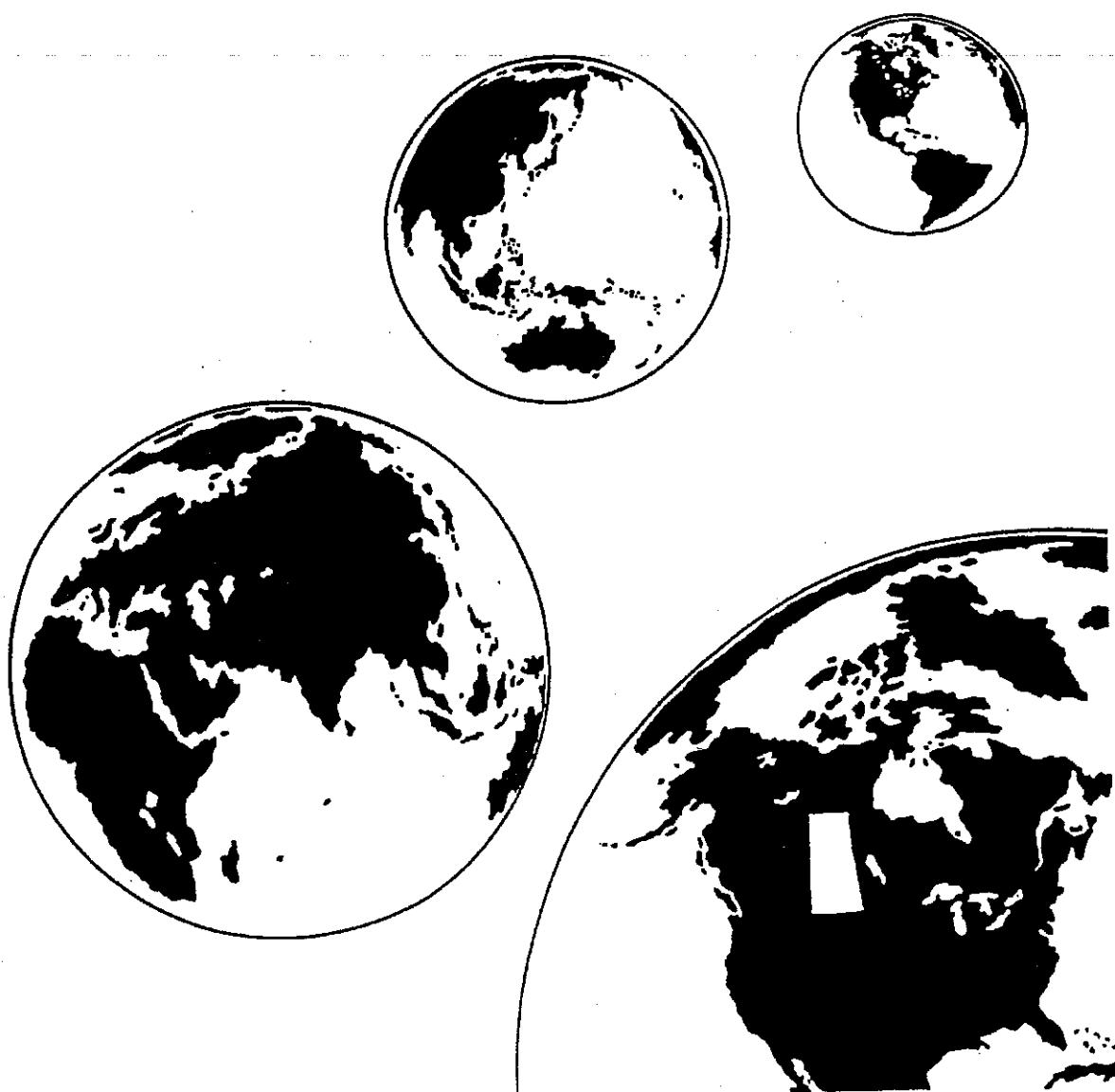




Saskatchewan
Learning

Psychology 20: Social Psychology

A Curriculum Guide for the Secondary Level



Recycled Paper

December 2002



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Acknowledgements

Saskatchewan Learning gratefully acknowledges the contribution of the following individuals and organizations to the development of curriculum and support materials for Psychology 20 and 30.

The members of the Writing Reference Committee who provided guidance for the development of Psychology 20 and 30 were:

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Many individuals and groups have contributed to the development of this guide:

- in-house consultants
- pilot teachers
- other field personnel.

This document was completed under the direction of the Social Sciences Unit, Curriculum and Instruction Branch, Saskatchewan Learning.

Introduction

Psychology Education

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

Psychology 20

This introductory course is designed to provide students with a general overview of the field of psychology, including psychological theory and the methodology of research. Students will learn the basic concepts of psychology and how psychological studies are conducted. As well, students will be encouraged to re-assess preconceived ideas and prejudices, and begin to discover how psychological theories, methods and studies lead to greater understanding of how humans think, feel and behave. This course deals with many current topics in scientific psychology such as: perception, memory, language and thinking, human communication, personality, motivation, aggression, addictive behaviour, learning, emotion, interpersonal relations and data collection.

Program Aim

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

Goals

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

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

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

Principles

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

Curriculum Principles

Learning

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teaching

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Teachers' Roles

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

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

Learning About the Students

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

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

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

Planning Classroom Environment and Routines

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

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

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

Organizing Classroom Facilities and Resources

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

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

Planning and Organizing for Instruction and Assessment

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

Communicating with Students' Families

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

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

Reflecting Upon Practice

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

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

- students: their interests, strengths, needs, personal learning goals, etc.
- curriculum: philosophy and expectations, aim, goals, instruction/assessment suggestions, etc.
- their own philosophy: about instruction/assessment, and how theirs is similar or different to that of the curriculum

- their own reflective practices: what they reflect upon, why they choose those areas, what requires reflection next, etc.

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

Core Curriculum Components and Initiatives

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

Adaptive Dimension

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

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

The Adaptive Dimension serves to:

- maximize student learning and independence
- reduce discrepancies between ability and achievement
- promote positive self-concept and a sense of belonging

- foster a willingness to become involved in learning.

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

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

Some guidelines for incorporating the Adaptive Dimension include:

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

The Adaptive Dimension includes all practices teachers employ to make concepts and activities more appropriate and relevant for students. Reflective practice allows teachers to make informed decisions about individual student needs and abilities. It is important to be flexible; the less rigid the setting and approach, the more easily it can be adapted. For more information about adapting for

student learning, refer to *The Adaptive Dimension in Core Curriculum* (Saskatchewan Education, 1992).

Common Essential Learnings

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

Communication

The teacher should:

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

Creative and Critical Thinking

The teacher should:

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

- extend students' abilities to infer, generalize, classify, categorize, organize and summarize ideas and information, orally, visually and in written form.

Personal and Social Values and Skills

The teacher should:

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

Independent Learning

The teacher should:

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

Numeracy

The teacher should:

- provide opportunities for students to interpret and produce relevant graphs and charts to enhance their own understanding of information,

and to convey their ideas and information to others

- provide opportunities for students to discuss the meaning of commonly used quantitative terms in the context of their learning experiences (e.g., in understanding statistics, making comparisons, making inferences)
- develop students' understanding of quantitative information as it contributes to their learning in a lesson or unit of study.

Technological Literacy

The teacher should:

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

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

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

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

Gender Equity

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

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

The teachers should:

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

Resource-Based Learning

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

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

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

The teachers should:

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

Aboriginal Content, Perspectives and Resources

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

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

Knowledge of Aboriginal peoples promotes understanding and positive attitudes in all students, including those who are from Aboriginal

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

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

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

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

the needs of individual students. As well, it is crucial to use a variety of instructional, motivational and assessment approaches that are sensitive to the range of Aboriginal cultural values and ways of communicating.

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

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

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

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

Multicultural Content, Perspectives and Resources

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

that celebrates and honours diversity to the benefit of ALL its members" (Melenchuk, 1996, p. 3).

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

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

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

- affirm each student's language use as unique and important
- accept and respect the language that each student brings to the classroom
- become educated about the cultural backgrounds of their students
- determine if unexpected behaviours and actions reflect a student's culture
- respect students' knowledge about their own cultures
- build a classroom environment that discourages racial put-downs of others' language usage and abilities, and their cultural and ethnic backgrounds
- deal with racist incidents in a positive manner, if they occur
- view students of all cultures as having equal potential
- become informed about a variety of cultures and inform their students
- help students to understand that individual identities are shaped by many factors, one of which is cultural background
- give students opportunities to select and respond to the resources that they listen to, read and view
- encourage students to read, view and listen to a variety of resources and media representative of cultural groups with which they do and do not identify

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

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

Portrayal of Persons with Disabilities

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

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

Heim (1994) suggests that it is important to be aware that literature, the media and other resources frequently portray people with disabilities in a stereotypical way. When evaluating material for use

in the Psychology 20 or 30 classroom, the teacher should consider the following:

Accuracy of Information

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

Stereotypes

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

Growth in Character

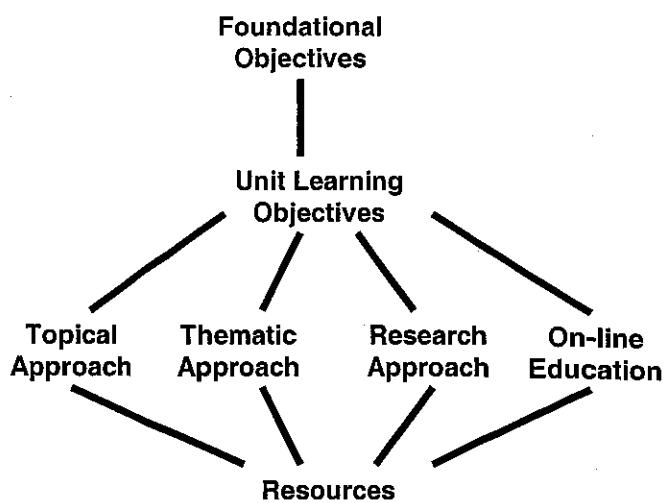
Often, in fiction, a character with a disability is used as a vehicle for the growth of another character who is "normal". The "normal" character gains sensitivity or awareness as a result of his or her relationship with the character with a disability. The character with a disability does not grow or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

Using This Curriculum Guide

The Psychology 20 curriculum guide supports any one, or combination of, four approaches to instruction: topical, thematic, action research oriented and on-line education.

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

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



Topical Approach

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

Thematic Approach

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

Research Approach

The third approach is that of a research-based approach. Each unit of study contains suggested research topics organized into one of six research methods: interview, observation, case study,

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

On-line Education

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

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

students or small groups to access the resources at home, or during out-of-class times.

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

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

The on-line resources include both curriculum guides, the Ages and Stages journals for each of the four required units of study, Ejournals for each of the units of study, Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan and links and resources to specific on-line resources to support the curriculum guide.

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

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

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

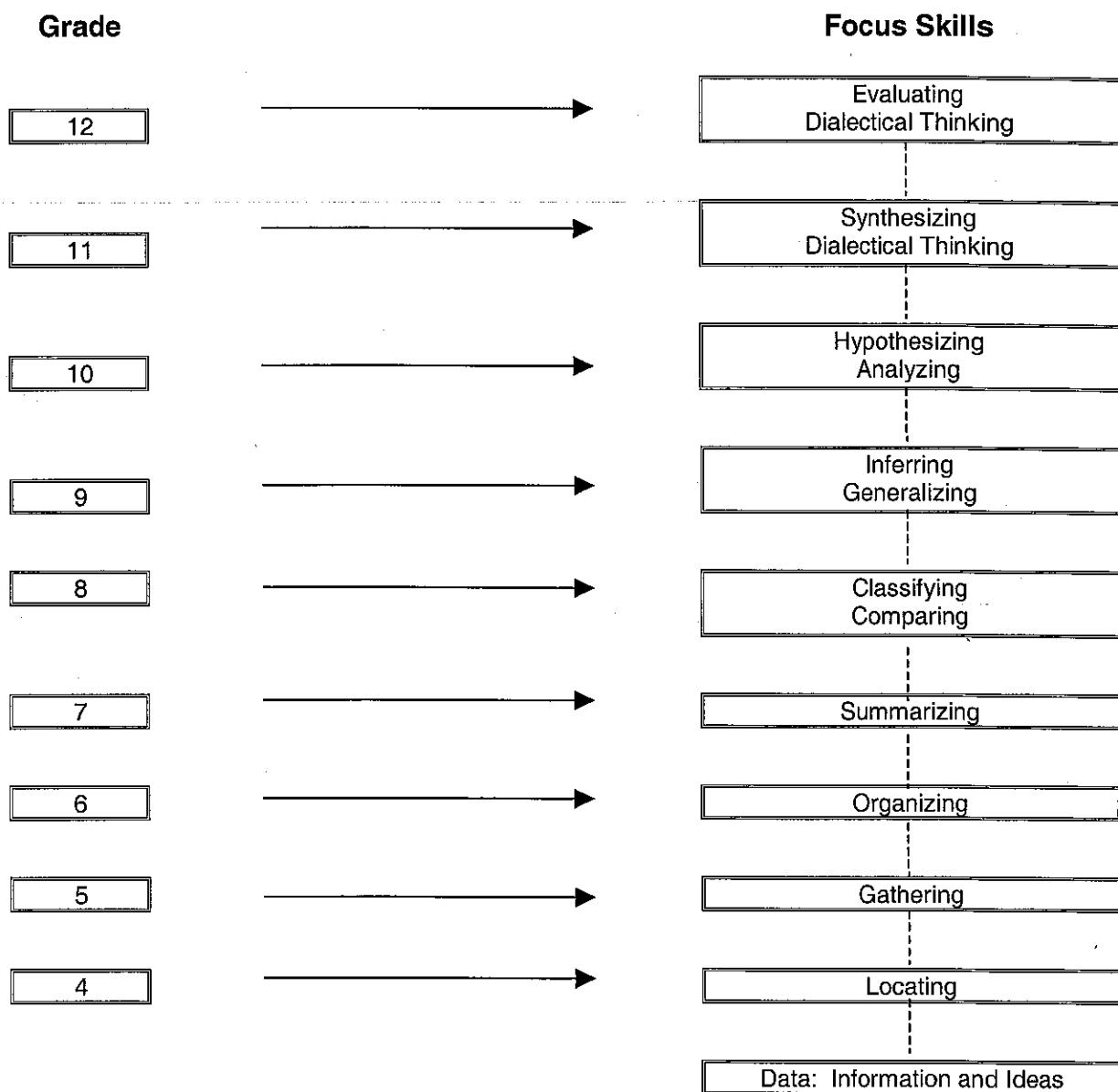
Learning Skills Development

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

and develop understanding of values and attitudes. While students use all of the skills, to some degree, in each grade, skill attainment requires sequential learning within a development context. Therefore, the skill or skills that provide the focus in one grade serve as the basis for the skills to be learned in subsequent grades. However, teachers should not

assume that all students have achieved independence in a skill identified at a lower grade level. Teachers need to make diagnostic assessments on a continuous basis, and help students to develop skills as necessary.

Sequence of Skills (Grades 9-12)



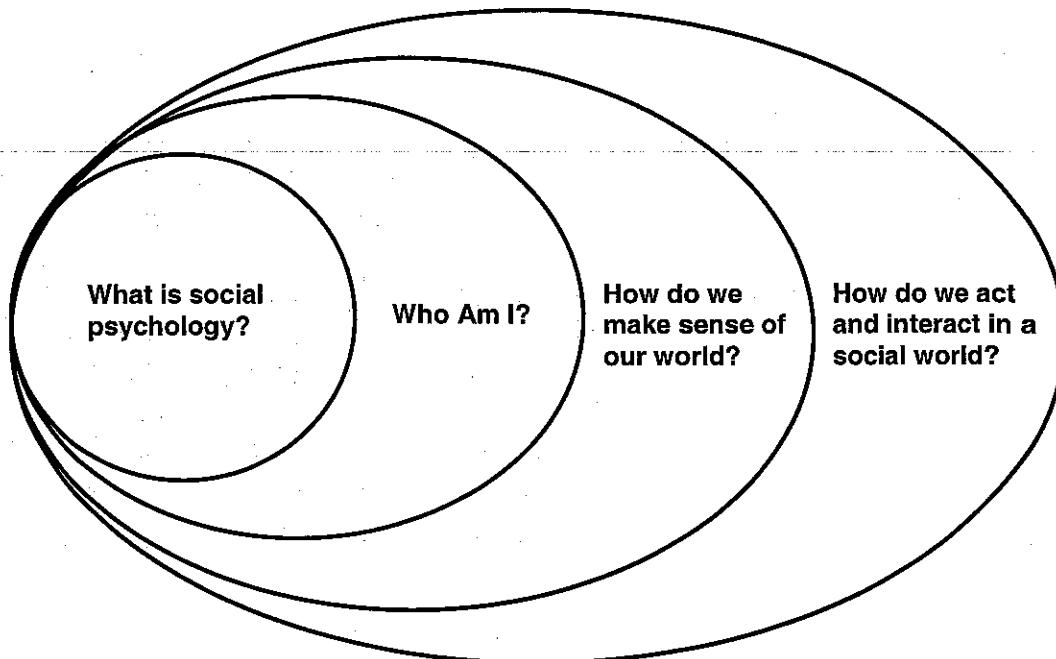
Units of Study

Course Description

Psychology 20 is the study of human behaviour and mental processes in a social context. It is a course designed to guide the students to a better understanding of themselves as individuals in their own right, and as part of the larger social context of their families, friends, and citizens of their country in a global community. Psychology 20 is a course that

emphasizes the application of concepts about behaviour in a variety of social contexts and situations, while guiding the students to consider the seminal question of social psychologists: How are the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others? (Alcock, Carment and Sadava, 1998, p. 11).

Concept Map



Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.
- To acquire knowledge about themselves, to consider the question: Who Am I?
- To understand how we make sense of ourselves, others, and our social nature.
- To understand how we influence, and are influenced by, others.
- To understand how we act and interact in a social world.

Skills

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

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

Values

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

Course Organization

Psychology 20 addresses the growth and development of human social thought, influence and behaviour by examining:

- the biological and environmental aspects of our social nature, and
- the influence that the various systems of support (Bronfenbrenner, 1977) provide:
 - microsystems (family, classroom, religious setting, peer group)
 - exosystems (community, school, mass media, health agencies)
 - macrosystems (culture, nationality, political, economic, social).

Psychology 20 is organized into four units of study:

- What is social psychology?
- Who am I?
- How do we make sense of our world?
- How do we act and interact in a social world?

Each of the units of study contains:

- unit overview
- unit concept map
- concepts and lesson objectives overview
- lesson plans for each concept that include:
 - quotes and sayings
 - objectives
 - suggested instructional strategies and methods
 - “Making Connections” with other issues within psychology and other subjects and disciplines
 - teacher information for each objective
 - instructional resources for each lesson
- suggested research topics
- Interactions: A Student Journal of Social Psychology* that includes:
 - articles related to each of the concepts for the unit of study
 - suggested activities connecting the concept to other concepts in psychology, and other disciplines.

Units of Study

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

- What is social psychology?
- What influences human social action and interaction?
- What are the different perspectives on human social action and interaction?
- How do we make sense of our behaviour?
- Action Research in Social Psychology.

Unit Two: Who Am I? (15 to 25 hours)

- | | |
|-----|---|
| 2.1 | Who Am I?
Physical Aspects: How do we receive, process and act upon information from our interaction with the world? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.2.1 The Human Sensory System 2.2.2 The Nervous System 2.2.3 Endocrine System 2.2.4 Heredity/Genetics |
| 2.3 | Emotional Aspects: What affects how we feel about the world? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.3.1 Motivation 2.3.2 Emotions 2.3.3 Attitudes 2.3.4 Social Perception |
| 2.4 | Mental Aspects: What affects how we think about the world? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.4.1 Social Cognition 2.4.2 Learning 2.4.3 Memory 2.4.4 Intelligence |
| 2.5 | Spiritual Aspects: How do we define our relationship to a Higher Power? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2.5.1 Worldview 2.5.2 Values 2.5.3 Morality and Ethics |
| 2.6 | Personality: Who I Am? |
| 2.7 | Action Research in Social Psychology. |

Unit Three: How do we make sense of our world? (15 to 25 hours)

- | | |
|-----|--|
| 3.1 | How do we make sense of our world?
Social cognition: What affects how we think about the world? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3.2.1 Social Schema 3.2.2 Biology 3.2.3 Judgements/Impression Formation 3.2.4 Prejudice |
| 3.2 | Social Perception: How do we come to understand other people? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3.3.1 Communication 3.3.2 Influences on 3.3.3 Attributions |
| 3.3 | Self-Understanding: How do we develop a sense of ourselves in the world? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3.4.1 Development of self-concept 3.4.2 Gender and the Self 3.4.4 Self Schema and Identity 3.4.5 Identity Management 3.4.6 Mass Media |
| 3.4 | Action Research in Social Psychology. |

Unit Four: How do we act and interact in a social world? (15 to 35 hours)

- How do we act and interact in a social world?

- 4.2 How do we act and interact in family settings?
- 4.3 How do we act and interact in interpersonal relationships?
- 4.3.1 Attraction and Intimacy
 - 4.3.2 Love
 - 4.3.3 Honesty
- 4.4 How do groups act and interact?
- 4.4.1 Crowds and Mobs
 - 4.4.2 Gangs
 - 4.4.3 Cults
 - 4.4.4 Social Movements
 - 4.4.5 Political Parties and Ideologies
- 4.5 How do we act and interact in social situations?
- 4.5.1 Cooperation/Competition
 - 4.5.2 Humour
 - 4.5.3 Pro-social Behaviours
 - 4.5.4 Leadership
 - 4.5.5 Conflict and Conflict Resolution
 - 4.5.6 Aggression
 - 4.5.7 Social Inaction
 - 4.5.8 Problem Solving/Decision Making
 - 4.5.9 Power
 - 4.5.10 Games
 - 4.5.11 Compliance, Conformity and Obedience
 - 4.5.12 Stress, Coping skills and Resiliency
 - 4.5.13 Social Justice
- 4.6 Dysfunctional behaviour
- 4.6.1 Mood Disorders
 - 4.6.2 Anxiety Disorders
 - 4.6.3 Eating Disorders
 - 4.6.4 Schizophrenia
 - 4.6.5 Criminal Behaviour
 - 4.6.6 Addiction
- 4.7 Action Research in Social Psychology.

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher-librarian or the Learning Resources Distribution Centre. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information. The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that

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

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

Print Resources

Beginning Psychology: A Comprehensive Introduction to Psychology
Corsini Encyclopedia of Psychology and Behavioral Science
Dictionary Of Psychology
Essentials of Psychology
Looking Out/Looking In: Interpersonal Communication
Psychology (Baron et al.)
Psychology (Lefton et al.)
Psychology (Tavris and Wade)
Psychology for Kids II: 40 Fun Experiments That Help You Learn About Others
Psychology for Kids: 40 Fun Tests That Help You Learn About Yourself
Psychology for You
Psychology: The Adaptive Mind
Psychology: The Science of Behaviour
Simply Psychology
Social Psychology (Aronson et al.)
Textbook of Social Psychology (Alcock)
Understanding Psychology (Kasschau)
Understanding Psychology (Robbins)

Non-Print Resources

Discovering Psychology Series

Internet Sites

The following sites provide a brief overview of what is available. To access sites that have been formally evaluated and linked to the curriculum visit the Evergreen Curriculum at the Saskatchewan Learning website - <http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/docs/evergrm.html>. American Psychological Association - <http://www.apa.org>
Canadian Psychology Association - <http://www.cpa.ca/contents.html>

Mental Health - Health Canada - <http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/hppb/mentalhealth>

Mental Health Web Portal - Self Help Magazine - <http://www.shpm.com>

Taking The Pulse of Saskatchewan - <http://www.arts.usask.ca/takingthepulse>

Glossary of Terms

Addiction: The physical need for a substance (physiological substance dependence).

Aggression: Baron and Richardson (1994) define anti-social behaviours as those that show a lack of feeling and concern for the welfare of others. Aggression is one such form of anti-social behaviour.

Attitudes: Long lasting patterns of feelings and beliefs about other people, ideas, or objects that are based in people's experiences and shape their future behaviour (Lefton, Boyes and Ogden, 2000, p. 448).

Altruism: An unselfish concern for another person.

Anger: A feeling, a normal emotion caused by stress, a signal that something is wrong. It is a secondary emotion that functions to protect the self and others.

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

Attitude: A state of readiness, based on past experiences, that guides, biases or otherwise influences our behaviour. There are three components: (1) Cognitive: what we believe, (2) Affective: our feelings and (3) Behavioural: learned associations. Attitudes serve a number of motivational functions:

- Value-expressive
- Instrumental: gain social acceptance or avoid disapproval
- Knowledge: organize social world (e.g., what I like or don't like), and make predictions (Aronson, Wilson and Akert, 1994, p. 287).

Attribution: The way in which we assess the causes of a behaviour or personal characteristics of people from the way they behave. Two factors:

- dispositional factors: ability or effort
- situational factors: environment or luck (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 197).

Biotechnology: Biological science when applied (especially in genetic engineering and DNA technology).

Cloning: The process of making a copy of genetic material.

Cognition: The processes people use to think, decide, and learn.

Cognitive dissonance: Discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour, between behaviour and self-image or between one attitude and another lead to the unpleasant state of cognitive dissonance (Buskist, Carlson, Enzle and Heath, 2002, p. 497).

Communication: A continuous, transactional process involving participants who occupy different but overlapping environments that create relationships through the exchange of messages, many of which are affected by external, physiological and psychological noise (Adler, Towne and Rolls, 2001, p. 13).

Conflict: An expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards and interference from the other party in achieving their goals. Conflict is not just a matter of individual choice. Rather, it depends on how the people involved interact. Conflict is natural (Adler et al., 2001, p. 415).

Conformity: The psychological need for acceptance by others. Conformity involves going along with one's peers in a group situation (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 508).

Crowd: A collection of people gathered around a centre or point of common attention. Several types of crowds may be distinguished. A casual crowd is one whose members rarely know each other and whose forms of behaviour are mostly unstructured. In times of social unrest or tension, crowds may be transformed into acting crowds or mobs (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 531).

Cult: Groups that are led by an all-powerful leader or leaders who claim to have special powers or abilities (Zeinert, 1997, p. 13).

Culture: The accumulation of values, rules of behaviour, forms of expression, religious beliefs, occupational choices, and the like for a group of people who share a common language and environment (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 17).

Deindividuation: A state of affairs in a group where members do not pay attention to other individuals as individuals and, correspondingly, the members do

not feel they are being singled out by others. According to Festinger (1957), membership in a group not only provides us with a sense of identity and belongingness, but allows us to merge with the group, forego our individualities and become anonymous. This may lead to a reduction of inner constraints and inhibitions (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 524).

Discrimination: Discrimination occurs in any situation in which a group or individual is treated unfavorably based on arbitrary grounds such as race, sex, religion or disability.

Drug: Any chemical substance that alters normal biological processes.

Ego: According to psychoanalytic theory, the ego is responsible for organizing ways to get what a person wants in the real world.

Emotion: Responses to an interaction between the subjectivity of feelings and an objective experience. Emotions, as opposed to feelings and sentiments, are:

- more momentary than prolonged
- an intense state
- characterized by behavioural disorganization
- reflect survival strategies
- non-habitual, reactive to certain situations (Cardwell, 1996, p. 84).

Extra Sensory Perception: E.S.P. includes telepathy, clairvoyance, precognition and psychokinesis. Telepathy is the transfer of thought from one person to another. Clairvoyance is the ability to recognize objects or events, such as the contents of a message in a sealed envelope, that are not present to normal sensory receptors. Precognition is unexplained knowledge about future events, such as knowing when the phone is about to ring. Psychokinesis is the ability to move objects by using one's mental powers (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 110).

Ethnocentrism: The belief that one's own ethnic group, nation or religion is superior to all others.

Exosystem: All the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems, that influence the microsystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, as quoted in Berger, 2000, p. 7).

Fundamental attribution error: The overestimation of the role of personal factors and the underestimation of the influence of situations.

Game: In its broadest sense, virtually any kind of situation in which two or more interdependent

parties (or players) make decisions that affect each other according to rules. The outcomes of the decisions depend on the joint actions of the players (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 268).

Gender: Culturally constructed distinctions between masculinity and femininity.

Gender identity: The classification of ourselves (and others) as male or female, boy or girl (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 393).

Gender role: Gender role refers to the behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and so on which a particular society either expects from, or considers appropriate to, males and females on the basis of their biological sex (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 393).

Genetics: The study of how heredity works and, in particular, of genes.

Genetic engineering: The alteration of an organism's genetic instructions through the insertion of additional genes.

Groupthink: The tendency for group members, especially elite groups, to assume that the group invariably has the right answer. It occurs when a group seeks a solution to a problem without fully considering all the possible alternatives (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 369).

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

Heuristics: Rules of thumb people follow in order to make judgements quickly and efficiently. People use judgemental heuristics to deal with the large amount of social information that they face (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 136).

Id: According to psychoanalytic theory, the id represents the inborn, unconscious portion of the personality where life and death instincts reside.

Impression Management: Impression management can take one of three forms: manner, appearance and setting. Manner consists of a person's words and nonverbal actions. The second dimension of identity management is appearance - the personal items people use to shape an image. A final way to manage identities is through the choice of setting - physical items we use to influence how others view us (Adler et al., 2001, p. 79).

Intelligence: The overall capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with the environment (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 264).

Learned Helplessness: People with this characteristic have accepted the generalized idea that there is nothing they can do about their situation (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 523).

Learning: Learning is an adaptive process in which the tendency to perform a particular behaviour is changed by experience. Learning cannot be observed directly; it can only be inferred from changes in behaviour. Learning takes place within the nervous system. Experience alters the structure and chemistry of the brain, and these changes affect the individual's subsequent behaviour (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 131).

Macrosystem: Cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions. Together, these systems are termed the social context of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, as quoted in Berger, 2000, p. 7).

Microsystem: The systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. Interactions among the microsystems, as when parents and teachers coordinate their efforts to educate the child, take place through the mesosystem (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, as quoted in Berger, 2000, p. 8).

Mob: A crowd bent upon an aggressive act such as lynching, looting or the destruction of property. The term refers to a crowd that is fairly unified and single-minded in its aggressive intent. Mob action is not usually randomly destructive but tends to be focused on a single target (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 531).

Morality: Morality provides guidance for making moral choices. Morality is based on a number of principles or criteria:

- no action may be taken unless it is right for everyone to take that action
- actions which may be hurtful to others in some way must not be carried out
- before any action is taken all information about the consequences of the proposed action(s) on others must be sought out, and:
- the effect of an action on another person must be considered
- advice from others should be considered
- the moral reasoning should be tested and rejected if it is faulty

- others involved in the action should test their moral reasoning and reject it if it is faulty.

Motivation: The internal state of an organism that drives it to behave in a certain way is its motivation. There are three aspects of motivation:

- drives (hunger, thirst, temperature regulation, sex)
- learned
- needs (Cardwell, 1998, p. 148).

Nature: The influence of nature on human development and behaviour includes inherited or genetically based influences.

Nurture: The influence of nurture on human development and behaviour includes the social environment.

Perception: The active selection, organization and interpretation of sensory input.

Perceptual Schema: Cognitive frameworks that allow us to organize the raw data we have selected. Five types of schema help us to classify ourselves and others:

- physical constructs classify people according to their appearance.
- role constructs use social position.
- interaction constructs focus on social behaviour.
- psychological constructs.
- membership constructs help us to identify others according to the group in which they belong (Adler et al., 2001, p. 91).

Personality: Your personality represents the sum of all your psychological, behavioural and biological processes. It reflects the consistent patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving that make you different from and, in some ways, similar to others (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 406).

Power: A person's or group's capacity to influence another person or group in a direction desired by the first. In its most primitive form, power derives from physical might (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 338).

Prejudice: A negative evaluation (attitude) of an entire group of people that is typically based on unfavourable (and often incorrect) ideas or stereotypes about the group. It is usually based on a small sample of experience with an individual from the group being evaluated, or even on no direct experience. When prejudice is translated into behaviour, it is called discrimination (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 464).

Psychological Theories

- **Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.** The psychodynamic perspective believes that behaviour is motivated by inner forces, memories and conflicts that are generally beyond people's awareness and control (Feldman, 2000, p. 15).
- **The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.** The behavioural perspective suggests that the keys to understanding development are observable behaviour and outside stimuli in the environment. If we know the stimuli we can predict the behaviour (Feldman, 2000, p. 18).
- **The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.** The cognitive perspective focuses on the processes that allow people to know, understand and think about the world. The cognitive perspective emphasizes how people internally represent and think about the world (Feldman, 2000, p. 20).
- **The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.** The humanistic perspective contends that people have a natural tendency to make decisions about their lives and control their behaviour. The humanistic perspective emphasizes free will, the ability of humans to make choices and come to decisions about their lives (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).
- **The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.** The Ethological Theory stresses that behaviour is strongly influenced by biology, is tied to evolution, and is characterized by critical or sensitive periods (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).
- **The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.** The Ecological model, the major proponent of which is Urie Bronfenbrenner, seeks to explain individual knowledge, development, and competencies in terms of the guidance, support, and structure provided by society and to explain social change over time in terms of the cumulative effect of individual choices (Berger, 2000, p. 8).

Reflex: An involuntary response to a stimulus by the animal organism is reflective action.

Research methodologies: There are several ways of conducting research, including:

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

- **Interview:** Typically, a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. The interviewer usually tape records or writes down the participant's responses.
- **Naturalistic Observation:** In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works to not interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated.
- **Survey:** Involves going out and asking, or sending out, questions about the phenomenon of interest.
- **Case Study:** A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual.
- **Topical:** A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources.

Realistic conflict: Intergroup conflict arises when interests conflict. When two distinct groups want to achieve the same goal but only one can, increased prejudice and discrimination is produced between them (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 464).

Relative deprivation: The discrepancy between our expectations (the things we feel entitled to) and actual attainments produces frustration. When attainments fall short of rising expectations, relative deprivation is relatively acute and results in collective unrest and prejudicial attitudes (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 464).

Reliability: The extent to which the research yields the same results each time they are applied to the same issue (Baron, Earhard and Ozier, 1998, p. 459).

Schema: A mental model of a person, object or situation. Schema include cognitive maps (mental representations of familiar parts of one's world), images, concept schema (categories of objects, events, or ideas with common properties), event scripts (schema about familiar sequences of events or activities) and mental models (clusters of relationships between objects or processes) (Bernstein and Nash, 1998, p. 223).

Self-concept: The self-concept has four components: self-image, self-esteem (or self-regard), ideal-self and self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy: A person's expectations of success in a given situation.

Self-fulfilling prophecy: A person's expectations of an event make an outcome more likely to occur than would otherwise have been true (Adler et al., 2001, p. 61).

Self-monitoring: The process of paying close attention to one's behaviour and using these observations to shape the way one behaves (Adler et al., 2001, p. 31).

Self-perception: People become aware of their own attitudes, feelings, values, dispositions and other internal characteristics in the same way that they form impressions of the characteristics of others - through observation of their own behaviour. The notion of self-knowledge through self-perception implies that, rather than introspecting about what we really believe in and then acting on those beliefs, we first act and then discover our beliefs and values from our own actions (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 70).

Self-presentation: The attempt to present who we are, or who we want people to believe we are, through our words, nonverbal behaviours and actions (Aronson et al. et al., 1995, p. 234).

Self-schema: Mental frameworks that represent and synthesize information about one's self are self-schema; a cognitive structure that organizes the knowledge, feelings and ideas that constitute the self-concept (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 502).

Social categorization: According to social categorization theory, people tend to divide the social world into two categories, "us" (the ingroup) and "them" (the outgroup) (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 465).

Social cognition: The way in which our thoughts are affected by the immediate social context, and in turn how our thoughts affect social behaviour.

Social contagion: The process whereby members of a crowd stimulate and respond to one another and thereby increase their emotional intensity and responsiveness is known as social contagion. When so aroused, a crowd needs emotional release, and it may act on the first suggested action that accords with its impulses (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 526).

Social dilemma: Social dilemmas occur when considering short term versus long term gains, "Catch 22" situations.

Social facilitation: Increased activity resulting from the presence of another person (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 514).

Social identity: Those aspects of a person's self-image that depend upon the social categories and groups to which he or she belongs creates one's social identity (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 466).

Social loafing: Decreased activity resulting from the presence of another person (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 514).

Social movements: A form of collective behaviour that usually begins slowly but then spreads, eventually producing a formal group oriented towards bringing about social change (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 413).

Social norms: Rules that regulate human life, including social conventions, explicit laws and implicit cultural standards (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 264).

Social perception: The process by which someone infers other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 158).

Social Psychology: The study of how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 11).

Social referencing: Especially in ambiguous situations, social referencing is the process by which other people's emotional expressions serve as a guide about what to do or what not to do (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 322).

Society: A system where individuals and social organizations performing a variety of roles interrelate with each other according to a set of mutual expectations and in ways controlled by the social and natural environments.

Spirituality: The experiences that appeal to the human spirit and one's connection to God or some spiritual power outside one's self. Through this spiritual dimension, people try to supply meaning to their lives. People also try to understand the profound sense of awe and mystery at the core of their Beings (Badley, 1996, p. 142).

Stereotypes: Fixed, overly simple, often incorrect, and often negative ideas about traits, attitudes and behaviours attributed to groups of people (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 464).

Substance abuse: A pattern of use that causes serious social, legal or interpersonal problems.

People can become psychologically dependent on psychoactive drugs without becoming physically addicted to them (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 467).

Superego: According to psychoanalytic theory, the superego represents our sense of morality.

Temperament: Every individual is born with a distinct, genetically based set of psychological tendencies, or dispositions. These tendencies, which together are called temperament, affect and shape virtually every aspect of the person's developing personality (Berger, 2000, p. 219).

Validity: The extent to which a research methodology measures what it is supposed to measure (Baron et al., 1998, p. 460).

Values: Global, abstract principles that serve as guiding principles in people's lives is called values.

Violence: Destructive, physical aggression intentionally directed at harming other persons or things.

Worldview: A template providing people with a set of beliefs about dealing with the reality in which they find themselves.

Worldview, Aboriginal: An Aboriginal worldview accepts that survival depends on cooperation and coexistence with the forces of nature rather than expecting to manipulate and control them. Social relations are also dependent on harmony and coexistence with strict social codes and mores to dictate relationships. People see themselves as part of the social order, with deep respect for the environment, because of their dependence on the land and its resources. The affinity with the land is referred to as "mother" (Hewitt, 2000, p. 112).

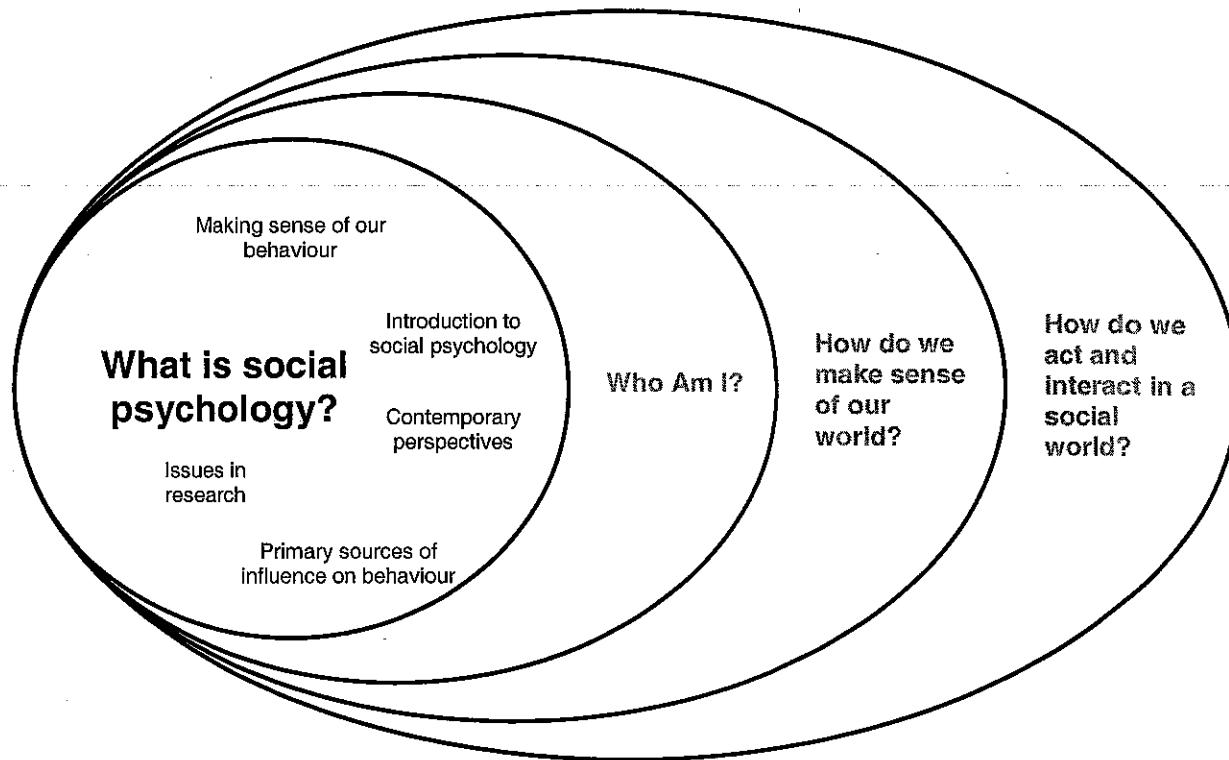
Unit One: What is social psychology?

Unit Overview

This unit serves as the basis upon which all of the other units of study are developed. It sets the context for the course by describing psychology as an empirically based, scientifically conducted discipline. This unit introduces the origins, development and perspectives of psychology, setting the foundation for a consideration of research

methods by which the students then can begin to acquire knowledge about the concepts of social psychology. The next step in the process involves organizing and integrating the new knowledge by making connections with their existing knowledge and understandings, as well as make connections between psychology and other disciplines. Finally, students can begin to apply those concepts and understandings in a practical, contemporary manner.

Concept Map



Time Frame: 5 – 10 hours

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand how thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others
- To understand the role, function and applicability of social psychology
- To understand the contemporary Western and Aboriginal perspectives on social psychology
- To understand the design, conduct and ethical issues of scientific research.

Skills

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

- To conduct research into issues of social psychology.

Values

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

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

1.1 What is social psychology?

- What is social psychology?
- Who are social psychologists and what do they do?
- How can social psychology make a positive difference in our lives?
- What is your metaphor for life?

1.2 What influences human social action and interaction?

- What is the biological basis for our behaviour?
- What are the various systems of support that influence our behaviour?
- In what ways does heredity, experience and/or the systems of support influence how we think, feel and behave?
- How does gender influence our thoughts, feelings and behaviours?

1.3 What are the different perspectives on human social action and interaction?

- What are the contemporary perspectives that try to explain human social behaviour?
- What is the Aboriginal perspective on social psychology?

1.4 How do we make sense of our behaviour?

- How do we make sense of our behaviour?
- What are the positive and negative aspects of each of the ways of conducting research?
- Given a research question, what research method is most appropriate?
- What are the methodological issues in research?
- What are some of the ethical issues in research?

1.5

Action research in social psychology

- Should parents be legally permitted to spank their children?
- Should the government be launching a national daycare program paid for by taxpayers?
- Should parents be held accountable in some way for the behaviour of their children?
- Should we abolish the military and use the money to fund social programs such as health and education?
- What, or who, are the primary influences on you?
- Should animals be used for scientific research purposes?
- What are the qualities you most admire in a friend?
- Should the legal age to drive a car be raised to 18?
- Should the legal age to consume alcohol be raised to 21?
- Do you agree with euthanasia (mercy killing)?
- Do you think we should reinstate capital punishment?
- Do you believe in fate?
- What is the most important human value?
- What is the most important quality in a parent?
- If you could swap genders, would you? Why?
- Moral dilemmas:
 - Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that you cannot afford?
 - Should you tell the police if your best friend committed a crime?
 - If you found a large sum of money in an unmarked envelope, should you keep it?
- What are the play behaviours of young children?
- How prevalent is violence in television programming?
- What are the social norms in a variety of contexts (e.g., cafeteria, malls, hallways, sporting events)?
- How do group behaviours change in varying social situations (e.g., single gender, mixed gender, different age groups)?
- What is a day in the life of like?
- In what situations does the presence of others influence behaviour?
- How do different seating arrangements affect conversation?

- Lives lived. Conduct a case study of a senior or Elder in your family or community and construct presentation or report on his/her life.
- Who was B.F. Skinner and what role did he play in social psychology?
- Who was Ivan Pavlov and what role did he play in social psychology?
- Who was Jean Piaget and what role did he play in social psychology?
- Who was Albert Bandura and what role did he play in social psychology?
- Who was Abraham Maslow and what role did he play in social psychology?
- Who was Lev Vygotsky and what role did he play in social psychology?
- Research one of the following topics:
 - gender development
 - personality
 - aboriginal spirituality
 - cultural Industries (fashion, music, beauty)
 - advertising.
- Ask an Elder or senior citizen: How has society changed since you were a teenager?
- Ask an Elder or senior citizen: What have you learned about the basic values and goals in life?
- Ask your parents: What are the major sources of stress in your lives?
- Ask a person in a position of leadership: What qualities are important in a leader?
- Ask your parents or family members: What qualities are important in a relationship?
- Ask your parents or family members: What are the human values you respect or aspire to the most?

class sets, in order to provide students with a broad range of perspectives and information.

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

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

Print Resources

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

Internet Sites

<http://www.arts.usask.ca/takingthepulse>
<http://www.readersdigest.ca>
<http://www.lyrics.com>

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

Resource-based learning is an integral part of all units. The accompanying bibliography will assist you in incorporating a variety of resources from different media into each unit. This annotated bibliography should be available from your teacher-librarian or the Learning Resources Distribution Centre. The bibliography contains annotations of current, useful resources including print, video, Internet sites and other media selections. Teachers are encouraged to assess their current resource collection, identify those that are still useful, and acquire small quantities of each new title, rather than

1.1 What is social psychology?

Quips and Quotes

Life is a process, not an event.

Unknown

Begin the unit by exploring the basic questions: What is social psychology, and how does it make a difference in understanding myself, and the lives of the people around me? Guide the students to consider their own knowledge, skills and values goals for the course, and issues of interest or concern that they might like to address in the course.

Lesson Objectives:

- What is social psychology?
- Who are social psychologists and what do they do?
- How can social psychology make a positive difference in our lives?
- What is your metaphor for life?
- What are the theoretical perspectives on human social action and interaction?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Large Group: What is social psychology?
 - Duplicate and distribute the handout Believe It or Not! found in the Curriculum Support Materials, and have the students complete the template in class.
 - Share the responses to the statements orally. Discussing the history and background of the people who had experienced the statements.
 - Emphasize the point that psychology is the science of human thought and behaviour, and that all of the statements included in the template are questions of interest to social psychologists.
- Role play: Persuasion techniques
 - Try to sell students an object that they really do not need! Have the students identify what techniques were used during the role play (e.g., persuasion, pressure, comparison, status, peer relations, cultural influences, media influence).
- Discussion: Metaphors for life
 - Review the information on life's metaphors (Teacher Information), invite the students to create their own life metaphor, and express it in whatever medium they feel most comfortable.
- Research/Construction: A day In the life of
 - Using the *Interactions* articles as a guide, direct the students to write their own "A day in the life of" article based on observation and interviews.
- Media Study: Worldviews
 - Listen to the songs. Invite the students to compare the views of the world between Louis Armstrong's "What A Wonderful World" and Buddy Guy's "It's A Jungle Out There".
- Discussion: Drawing Hands
 - Why do you think the editor of *Interactions* chose the cover graphic? What do you think it means? What connection would that graphic have to psychology? Design your own cover graphic.

Making Connections

- Life is like a box of chocolates! Or is it? Complete the metaphor: Life is like ...
- What is the meaning of the African proverb "It takes a whole village to raise a child"?

Resources

- *Interactions*: Welcome to *Interactions*!
- Curriculum Support Materials: Believe It or Not!
- Website for lyrics

Lesson 1.1: Teacher Information

What is social psychology?

Social psychology is the study of how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 11).

Social psychology deals with human interaction – the way people relate to one another and the way people influence one another. How can we understand human relations and social influence? By studying the way people feel and the way people think – in short, by studying the heart and the mind (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 5).

How can social psychology make a positive difference in our lives?

Social psychologists have worked to understand such phenomena as economic depression, attitude formation, racial prejudice, adaptation and acculturation of immigrants, friendships and relationships, the effects of the Canadian multiculturalism policy, social norms of behaviour, group dynamics, propaganda and conformity, the development of racial identity among native children, conflict resolution, cognitive processes such as memory, attention and problem solving, environmental issues, marital conflicts, addiction and aggression (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 9).

What is your metaphor for life?

On the television show *Ally McBeal* the characters have theme songs. The songs are supposed to reflect how they live their lives, or maybe how they would like to live their lives. Most of us don't have theme songs, but we often have metaphors for our lives that either help us or hinder us.

Some people see life as a battle. Every encounter is a struggle, and if they don't win, they feel like they have lost. Others view life as an adventure. A new day brings new opportunities to explore. If something goes badly today, there's always tomorrow.

How do these metaphors develop? As children we begin to understand and organize the world. If we think of the brain as a filing cabinet, then childhood is when we open the files and label them. We often spend the rest of our lives putting new material in these old files. If childhood was healthy, then we may have a pretty good filing system. If it was a struggle, then we often see struggles for the rest of our life.

What are your metaphors? This is not usually obvious. We have to stand back a long way to see patterns like this in our lives. A few examples:

A battle – Everything is a competition or a struggle. We are always either winning or losing.

A garden – Relationships are cultivated like flowers or vegetables. We see things as growing, flowering or producing.

A mission – We believe that we have the truth and we need to convince others that our point of view is right.

A journey or an adventure – We travel from place to place meeting new people and exploring.

A building – Starting with a solid foundation, then adding floors and rooms.

A roller coaster – Life consists of ups and downs, and we are along for the ride.

A stained glass window – Full of light and colours.

A mountain climb – Life consists of hierarchies. We are always climbing the various ladders of life.

A race – Always finding the fastest route, "keeping up with the Joneses".

A courtroom – Everything in life should be fair.

Stepping stones – We barely get comfortable where we are before we are looking for a better job or a bigger house.

A prison – Feeling like we do not have choices, like others have all the power.

A classroom – There are always new lessons to learn.

A battery – Every encounter seems to drain energy. We need the weekends to recharge (Source: [Mental Health Network](#)).

Quips and Quotes

Life is what happens to you while you're making plans.

John Lennon

1.2 What influences human social action and interaction?

This lesson is the first "lens" lesson. It addresses the various lenses through which we look at social psychology: the biological or genetic inheritance, the systems of support and gender.

Lesson Objectives

- What is the biological basis for our behaviour?
- What are the various systems of support that influence our behaviour?
- In what ways do heredity, experience and/or the systems of support influence how we think, feel and behave?
- How does gender influence our thoughts, feelings and behaviours?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: What are the primary sources of influence on our behaviour?
 - Invite students to find examples of the ways in which the cultural industries of fashion, music and beauty influence our thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Students can create a collage of such items as advertisements, song lyrics and magazine articles to demonstrate the techniques used by these industries to promote, direct and market their ideals.
- Research: Family genealogy
 - Have the students conduct an informal genealogical study into their own family history in terms of hair colour, eye colour, preferences, talents, skills or abilities.
- Discussion: The Ecological Model of Human Behaviour
 - Brainstorm specific examples, (e.g., family names, school names, specific teams or groups), and incorporate them into the ecological model.
 - Discuss interconnectivity between systems: In what ways do these systems work together, and in what ways do these systems interfere with each other?
- Discussion: Nature/nurture and human behaviour
 - Using the template supplied, discuss with the students the relative influences of heredity and environment in influencing human thoughts, feelings and behaviours.
- Activity/Discussion: Biology or environment?
 - Ask a female and a male student to stand up and hold hands. Note the relative position of the male student's hands. Invariably, the male student's hand will be on top, and the female student's hand will be on the bottom. Repeat several times to establish a pattern.
 - Discuss possible reasons or explanations as to why this occurs. A biological interpretation (nature) will explain it in terms of the mechanics of holding hands, in other words, the taller person (usually the male) will find it more comfortable to place his hand on top. A psychological (social environment or nurture) explanation might include the relative "dominance" of males versus the "submissiveness" of females, as illustrated in the unconscious act of placing the female hand on the bottom.
- Research: Gender
 - Conduct a survey or interview research project asking this question: If you could swap genders would you? Why?
- Find current newspaper or magazine articles that deal with issues in social psychology. Create a role play in which the two of you take opposing sides on the issue.
- *Interactions:* Introduction to social psychology
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Behaviour

Making Connections

Resources

Lesson 1.2: Teacher Information

What is the biological basis for our behaviour?

How is it that human beings have dreams, make plans, feel joy or hunger, fall in love, read and understand this page, or remember events that took place ages ago? This question is about the relationship between biology, brain, and behaviour and the answer is at once most simple and most complex. The simple answer is this. All of our thoughts, feelings and behaviours originate from basic biological processes – more specifically from the brain (Baron et al., 1998, p. 42).

What are the various systems of support that influence our behaviour?

In his Ecological Model, Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979) described three levels of influence that affect an individual through various processes. According to Bronfenbrenner, each person is significantly affected by interactions among a number of overlapping ecosystems. At the center of the model is the individual. Microsystems are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. Interactions among the Microsystems, as when parents and teachers coordinate their efforts to educate the child, take place through the mesosystem. Surrounding the Microsystems is the exosystem, which includes all the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems, that influence the Microsystems. Influencing all other systems is the macrosystem, which includes cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions. Together, these systems are termed the social context of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, as quoted in Berger, 2000, p. 7).

In what ways does heredity, experience and/or the systems of support influence how we think, feel and behave?

Psychologists and biologists have long debated whether interaction with the environment—a person's family and culture, for instance—is more important than genes in shaping disease, character, and behaviour. It is becoming more obvious that environment and genes have different degrees of influence, depending on the trait. Some traits such as eye colour appear to depend on only a genetic component with little or no environmental input. However, others such as muscle strength or musical achievement seem to require contributions from both genes and the environment. If a person is born with the alleles for great athletic or musical potential, for example, those talents will not develop without

practice. A child may be born with the alleles for potentially high academic intelligence, but lack of stimulation and limited exposure to new experiences in early childhood may keep the child from realizing that potential. Lack of nutrition during childhood can turn a person with the potential to be six feet tall into someone who barely clears five feet. Current research indicates that expression of alleles in certain individuals may also depend on their unique internal environment – their nervous system, hormone balance, or other aspects of their biochemistry (Berger, 2000, p. 82).

How does gender influence our thoughts, feelings and behaviours?

Gender identity is our classification of ourselves (and others) as male or female, boy or girl, and so on. Gender role refers to the behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and so on which a particular society either expects from, or considers appropriate to, males and females on the basis of their biological sex. To be masculine or feminine, therefore, requires males and females to conform to their respective gender roles (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 393).

Quips and Quotes

With all beings and all things, we should be as relatives.

Dakota Sioux

1.3 What are the different perspectives on human social action and interaction?

This lesson addresses the different perspectives from which human thoughts, feelings and behaviours are interpreted: psychoanalytic, behavioural, cognitive, humanistic, ecological, ethological and Aboriginal.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the contemporary perspectives used to explain human social behaviour?
- What is an Aboriginal perspective on social psychology?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Reflection: Worldview
 - Refer to the resources listed below in the *Interactions* student journal.
 - What are the student's basic beliefs and values? In the medium of their choosing, invite the students to express their worldview.
 - Can students give examples of how a worldview influences behaviour?
 - Ask the students to reflect on how they learned the difference between "good" and "bad," "right" and "wrong," and list the most important influences in their life.
- Research: Interview with a senior
 - Invite an Elder or a senior to speak, and based on the interview, direct the students to write an article for *Interactions*.
- Research and Construction: The Tipi
 - Build a Tipi, noting particularly how the tipi reflects an Aboriginal perspective on life, living and connection to Creation.
- Case Study: Theoretical perspectives on human development
 - Read the *Interactions* article and discuss each theoretical perspective. Divide the class into six groups. Using the Curriculum Support Materials, distribute one theoretical perspective to each group.
 - Using the case study article in the *Interactions* journal, "The Wild Boy of Aveyron," invite each group to demonstrate how its theoretical perspective would explain the behaviours of the "Wild Boy."
- Role Play: Expert in psychology
 - One person role plays "Skinner" or "Piaget" and explains a social psychology phenomenon from that theoretical perspective.
- Role Play: Explaining human behaviour
 - In a mime situation, the actor becomes increasingly emotional and excited while watching an event on television.
 - Divide the class into small groups. Discuss the perspectives on this behaviour based on the outlines given to each group.

Making Connections

- The exploration and settlement of North, Central and South America by the Europeans has been described as a "clash of worldviews." Discuss what this term means.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development
- *Interactions*: Introduction to social psychology; An Aboriginal perspective on "social psychology"; Book Review: *The Sacred Tree*; The Tipi; and, *The Wild Boy of Aveyron*.

Lesson 1.3: Teacher Information

What are the contemporary perspectives that try to explain human social behaviour?

The six major theoretical perspectives include:

Psychodynamic Perspective: Advocates of the psychodynamic perspective believe that behaviour is motivated by inner forces, memories and conflicts that are generally beyond people's awareness and control.

- Freud's psychoanalytic theory suggests that unconscious forces act to determine personality and behaviour. To Freud, the unconscious is a part of the personality about which a person is unaware. It contains infantile wishes, desires, demands and needs that are hidden, because of their disturbing nature, from conscious awareness. Freud suggested that the unconscious is responsible for a good part of our everyday behaviour. According to Freud, one's personality has three aspects: the id, the ego and the superego.

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

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

Finally, Freud proposed that the superego represents a person's conscience, incorporating distinctions between right and wrong. It develops around age five or six and is learned from an individual's parents, teachers and other significant figures (Feldman, 2000, p. 15).

- Erikson's psychosocial theory suggests that developmental change occurs throughout our lives in eight distinct stages. The stages emerge in a fixed pattern and are similar for all people. Erikson argues that each stage presents a crisis or conflict that the individual must resolve. Although no crisis is ever fully resolved, making life increasingly complicated, the individual must at least address the crisis of each stage

sufficiently to deal with demands made during the next stage of development (Feldman, 2000, p. 17).

- Carl Jung was originally one of Freud's closest friends, but by 1914 he had left Freud's inner circle. In addition to the individual's own unconscious, said Jung (1969), there is a collective unconscious shared by all human beings, containing universal memories, symbols and images that are the legacy of human history. In his studies of myths, art and folklore in cultures all over the world, Jung identified a number of these common themes, which he called archetypes. Psychologists have found that some basic archetypes such as the Hero, the Nurturing Mother, the Powerful Father, the Wicked Witch and the Earth Mother do appear in the stories and images of virtually every society. Two of the most important archetypes, in Jung's view, are those of Men and Women themselves. Jung recognized that "masculine" and "feminine" qualities exist in both sexes. Problems can arise, however, if a person tries to repress his or her internal, opposite archetype – that is, if a man totally denies his softer "feminine" side or if a woman denies her "masculine" aspects. People also create problems in relationships when they expect the partner to behave like the ideal archetypal man or woman, instead of a real human being who has both sides (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 481).

The Behavioural Perspective: The behavioural perspective suggests that the keys to understanding development are observable behaviour and outside stimuli in the environment. If we know the stimuli we can predict the behaviour. Behavioural theories reject the notion that individuals universally pass through a series of stages. Instead, people are assumed to be affected by the environmental stimuli to which they happen to be exposed. Developmental patterns, then, are personal, reflecting a particular set of environmental stimuli, and development is the result of continuing exposure to specific factors in the environment (Feldman, 2000, p. 18).

- John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner's theories of classical and operant conditioning hold that all behaviour is learned as a response to external stimuli. Classical conditioning occurs when an organism learns to respond in a particular way to a neutral stimulus that normally does not evoke that type of response. For example, Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov found that if a dog is repeatedly exposed to the pairing of two stimuli, such as the sound of a bell and the presentation of meat, it may learn to react to the sound of the

bell alone in the same way it reacts to the presentation of meat. In operant conditioning, Skinner demonstrated that individuals learn to act deliberately on their environments in order to bring about desired consequences. In a sense, then, people operate on their environment in order to bring about a desired state of affairs. Reinforcement is the process by which a stimulus is provided that increases the probability that a preceding behaviour will be repeated. In addition, punishment will decrease the probability that the preceding behaviour will occur in the future (Feldman, 2000, p. 18).

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

The Cognitive Perspective: The cognitive perspective focuses on the processes that allow people to know, understand and think about the world. The cognitive perspective emphasizes how people internally represent and think about the world. By using this perspective, developmental psychologists hope to understand how children and adults process information, and how their ways of thinking and understanding affect their behaviour (Feldman, 2000, p. 20).

- No single person has had a greater impact on the study of cognitive development than Jean Piaget who proposed that all people pass in a fixed sequence through a series of universal stages of cognitive development. In each stage, he suggested that not only did the quantity of information increase, but so did the quality of knowledge and understanding. Piaget suggests that the growth in children's understanding of the world can be explained by two basic principles. *Assimilation* is the process in which people understand an experience in terms of their current state of cognitive development and way of thinking. In contrast, *accommodation* refers to changes in existing ways of thinking in response to encounters with new stimuli or events (Feldman, 2000, p. 20).
- Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory proposes that a full understanding of development is impossible without taking into account the culture in which children develop. Sociocultural theory proposes that children's understanding of the world is acquired through their problem-solving interactions with adults and other children. As

children play and cooperate with others, they learn what is important in their society, and at the same time, advance cognitively in their understanding of the world (Feldman, 2000, p. 21).

The Humanistic Perspective: The humanistic perspective contends that people have a natural tendency to make decisions about their lives and control their behaviour. The humanistic perspective emphasizes free will, the ability of humans to make choices and come to decisions about their lives (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).

- Carl Rogers suggested that all people have a need for positive regard that results from an underlying wish to be loved and respected. Because it is other people who provide this positive regard, we become dependent on them. Consequently, our view of ourselves and our self-worth is a reflection of how we think others view us (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).
- Abraham Maslow suggests that self-actualization is a primary goal in life. Self-actualization is a state of self-fulfillment in which people achieve their highest potential in their own unique way (Feldman, 2000, p. 22).

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

- Konrad Lorenz discovered that newborn geese are genetically preprogrammed to become attached to the first moving object they see after birth. His work, which demonstrated the importance of biological determinants in influencing behaviour patterns, ultimately led developmentalists to consider the ways in which human behaviour might reflect inborn genetic patterns (Feldman, 2000, p. 23).
- The evolutionary perspective encompasses one of the fastest growing areas within the field of lifespan development, behavioural genetics. Behavioural genetics studies the effects of heredity and genetics on behaviour. As technology improves, and researchers continue to map the human genome, there is an increasing understanding of the role and function of the genetic codes and their influence on development (Feldman, 2000, p. 23).

The Sociocultural Perspective: The Ecological model, the major proponent of which is Urie Bronfenbrenner, seeks to explain individual knowledge, development, and competencies in terms of the guidance, support, and structure provided by society and to explain social change over time in terms of the cumulative effect of individual choices (Berger, 2000, p. 8).

- According to Urie Bronfenbrenner, each person is significantly affected by interactions among a number of overlapping ecosystems. At the center of the model is the individual. Microsystems are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. The primary Microsystems for children include the family, peer group, classroom, neighbourhood, and sometimes a church, temple, or mosque as well. Surrounding the Microsystems is the exosystem, which includes all the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems, that influence the Microsystems. And influencing all other systems is the macrosystem, which includes cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions. Together, these systems are termed the social context of human development (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, quoted in Berger, 2000, p. 7).

What is an Aboriginal perspective on social psychology?

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

- Each morning before rising, and each evening before sleeping, give thanks for the life within you and for all life, for the good things the Creator has given you and others and for the opportunity to grow a little more each day. Consider your thoughts and actions of the past day and seek for the courage and strength to be a better person. Seek for the things that will benefit everyone.
- Be truthful at all times, and under all conditions.
- Always treat your guests with honor and consideration. Give of your best food, your best blankets, the best part of your house, and your best service to your guests.
- The hurt of one is the hurt of all, the honor of one is the honor of all.

- Receive strangers and outsiders with a loving heart and as members of the human family.
- Observe moderation and balance in all things.
- All the races and tribes in the world are like the different coloured flowers of one meadow. All are beautiful. As children of the Creator they must all be respected.
- To serve others, to be of use to family, community, nation or the world is one of the main purposes for which human beings have been created. Do not fill yourself with your own affairs and forget your most important task. True happiness comes only to those who dedicate their lives to the service of others.
- Know those things that lead to your well-being, and those things that lead to your destruction.
- Respect the wisdom of the people in council. Once you give an idea to a council or a meeting it no longer belongs to you. It belongs to the people. Respect demands that you listen intently to the ideas of others in council and that you do not insist that your idea prevail. Indeed you should freely support the ideas of others if they are true or good, even if those ideas are quite different from the ones you have contributed. The clash of ideas brings forth the spark of truth. Once a council has decided something in unity, respect demands that no one speak secretly against what has been decided. If the council has made an error, that error will become apparent to everyone in its own time.
- Respect. Respect means "to feel or show honor or esteem for someone or something; to consider the well-being of, or to treat someone or something with deference or courtesy". Showing respect is a basic law of life.
 - Treat every person, from the tiniest child to the oldest elder with respect at all times.
 - Special respect should be given to elders, parents, teachers, and community members.
 - No person should be made to feel "put down" by you; avoid hurting other hearts as you would avoid a deadly poison.
 - Touch nothing that belongs to someone else without permission, or an understanding between you.
 - Respect the privacy of every person. Never intrude on a person's quiet moments or personal space.
 - Never walk between people that are conversing.
 - Never interrupt people that are conversing.
 - Speak in a soft voice, especially when you are in the presence of elders, strangers, or others to whom special respect is due.
 - Do not speak unless invited to do so at gatherings where elders are present.
 - Never speak about others in a negative way, whether they are present or not.

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- Treat the earth and all of her aspects as your mother. Show deep respect for the mineral world, the plant world, and the animal world. Do nothing to pollute the air or the soil. If others would destroy our mother, rise up with wisdom to defend her.
 - Show deep respect for the beliefs and religions of others.
 - Listen with courtesy to what others say, even if you feel that what they are saying is worthless.
 - Listen with your heart.
 - Listen to and follow the guidance given to your heart. Expect guidance to come in many forms; in prayer, in dreams, in times of quiet solitude and in the words and deeds of wise elders and friends (Bopp, Bopp, Brown and Lane, 1985, p. 74-82).

Quips and Quotes

A heart is not judged by how much you love, but by how much you are loved by others.

The Wizard of Oz

1.4 How do we make sense of our behaviour?

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

Lesson Objectives

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

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Research methodologies in social psychology
 - Describe the scientific method of research.
 - Describe the research methodologies in social psychology.
 - Use the Curriculum Support Materials, Research Methods: FAQs to describe the various issues and questions in conducting each type of research.
 - Complete the comparison chart that lists the research methodologies described in the article, briefly describe their methodology, their strengths and their weaknesses.
- Media Studies: *Awakenings*
 - View the movie, *Awakenings*, and have the student's note the various research methodologies used to arrive at a diagnosis of a patient's condition.
- Debate: Animals should be used for research purposes.
 - Using the *Interactions* template, From both perspectives, create a formal or informal debate in class of the issue of limiting families to two children.
- Case Study: The Wild Boy of Aveyron
 - Using the *Interactions* article of the same name, discuss the research method of case study as a reliable, valid instrument for making sense of our world. What are the benefits of such an approach? What are the limitations? Would another research method provide the same, or better information?
 - The title of the book from which the article was taken was *The Forbidden Experiment: The Wild Boy of Aveyron*. What were the ethical and moral issues that might have arisen from this kind of social psychology research? Can you cite examples of other kinds of research that might violate the ethics and morality of social research? Are there instances in which violating those principles is reasonable and justified?

Making Connections

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

Resources

- *Interactions: The Wild Boy of Aveyron*
- Curriculum Support Materials: Scientific Method of Research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Comparison Chart for Research Methodologies
- Curriculum Support Materials: Permission to conduct research
- Curriculum Support Materials: Research Methods: Frequently Asked Questions
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan

Lesson 1.4: Teacher Information

How do we make sense of our behaviour?

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

What are the methods of research in social psychology?

- *Experimental methods:* Came into being because of the need to draw causal inferences about how variables influence one another. Using the experimental method, the researcher deliberately assigns subjects randomly to two or more groups and applies an independent variable to one group and not the other. Then the researcher measures the effect of the treatment by comparing the two groups (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 23).
- *Interview:* Typically, a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. The interviewer usually tape records or writes down the participant's responses (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 14).
- *Observation:* Involves direct observation of the spontaneous behaviour of an individual, or group of people in a natural setting. The observer may remain aloof and simply observe, or become a participant-observer (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 19).
- *Case Study:* A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case-study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. Case studies can provide a wealth of detail, which makes them rich in possible insights. Many developmentalists prefer case studies precisely for that reason: the complexity of a human life is easier to understand through the rich qualitative, or descriptive, information of a case study than through a study involving sheer

numbers, even though statistical significance depends on such quantitative, or numerical data. The interpretation of case-study information reflects the biases as well as the wisdom of the researcher; and, even when a case-study is carefully interpreted, the conclusions apply with certainty to only one person. Nevertheless, the case-study has three important uses: to provide a provocative starting point for other research; to understand a particular individual very well; and to illustrate general truths. Remember, that no confident conclusions about people in general can be drawn from a sample size of one, or even 10 or 20, no matter how deep and detailed the study is (Berger, 2000, p. 28).

- *Topical:* A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies.
- *Survey:* Involves going out and asking, or sending out, questions about the phenomenon of interest. The survey method is especially useful for collecting data from a large number of people and is often the only way of obtaining data about thoughts, feelings, and private behaviour not open to direct observation. Survey methods do not provide cause-effect relationship data, and can be unreliable because of poorly constructed questions, interviewer bias, inaccurate reporting from respondents, and a poorly defined sample (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 21).

What are the methodological issues in research?

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

Validity: Validity refers to the extent to which a research methodology measures what it is supposed to measure (Baron et al., 1998, p. 460). Continuing with our example of the play behaviours of young children, is the observational approach a valid means of studying the topic? Let's say that we had

chosen to do an interview, and we interviewed the children and asked them questions about what happened at recess time. Would this method be considered valid as a way to gain information from which we could draw a conclusion? Probably not, or not as valid as directly observing them.

What are some of the ethical issues in research?

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

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

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

Researchers must be careful to avoid subtle *biases* that influence results, such as gender (male or female), ethnicity (people's common traits, background, and allegiances which are often cultural, religious, or language based), and cultural (a person's racial and ethnic background, religious and social values, artistic and musical tastes, and scholarly interests) bias (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 15).

How do I make research more valid and reliable?

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

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

- *Sample size:* To make statements about people in general, scientists study groups of individuals chosen from populations. Each such group, called a sample, must be large enough to ensure that a few extreme cases within the sample do not distort the picture it gives of the population.
- *Representative sample:* Data collected from one group of individuals may not be valid for other people who are different in significant

ways, such as in gender or ethnic background. Thus it is important that every sample be a representative sample, that is, consist of people who are typical of the general population the researchers wish to learn about.

- *"Blind experimenters":* When experimenters have specific expectations about their research findings, those expectations can affect the research results. As much as possible, therefore, the people who actually gather the data should be "blind", that is, unaware of the purpose of the research.
- *Operational definitions:* When planning a study, researchers must establish operational definitions of whatever phenomena they will be examining. That is, they must define each variable in terms of specific, observable behaviour that can be measured with precision.
- *Experimental and control groups:* To test a hypothesis accurately in an experiment, researchers must gather data on two samples that are similar in every important way except one. They must compare an experimental group, which receives some special experimental treatment, and a control group, which does not receive the experimental treatment.
- *Statistical significance:* Whenever researchers find a difference between two groups, they have to consider the possibility that the differences occurred purely by chance. Determining the statistical significance is a mathematical measure of the likelihood that a particular research result occurred by chance (Berger, 2000, p. 23).

Quips and Quotes

How can we understand human relations and social influence? By studying the way people feel and the way people think - in short, by studying the heart and the mind.

Elliott Aronson et al.

1.5 Action Research in Social Psychology

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

Lesson Objectives

- How do we use the scientific method to make sense of human social action and interaction?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experiments
- Case Study
- Topical

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

Resources

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

Lesson 1.5: Research Methods and Suggested Topics

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
Survey Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Should parents be legally permitted to spank their children?• Should the government be launching a national day care program paid for by taxpayers?• Should parents be held accountable in some way for the behaviour of their children?• Should we abolish the military and use the money to fund social programs, (e.g., health and education)?• What, or who, are the primary influences on you?• Should animals be used for scientific research purposes?• What are the qualities you most admire in a friend?• Should the legal age to drive a car be raised to 18?• Should the legal age to consume alcohol be raised to 21?• Do you agree with euthanasia (mercy killing)?• Do you think we should reinstate capital punishment?• Do you believe in fate?• What is the most important human value?• What is the most important quality in a parent?• If you could swap genders, would you? Why?• Is it right to steal life-saving medicines that you cannot afford?• Should you tell the police if your best friend committed a crime?
Naturalistic Observation In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard to not interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• play behaviours of young children• violence and television• social norms in a variety of contexts (e.g., cafeteria, malls, hallways, sporting events)• group behaviours (e.g., single gender, mixed gender, different age groups)• a day in the life of• social facilitation/inhibition• seating arrangements and their effects on conversation.• working with young children (e.g., daycare, nursery, babysitting)• play behaviours of young children.

<p>Case Study</p> <p>A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case-study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • a senior or Elder in your family or community • B.F. Skinner • Ivan Pavlov • Jean Piaget • Albert Bandura • Abraham Maslow • Lev Vygotsky
<p>Interview</p> <p>The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ask Elders or seniors: How has society changed since they were adolescents. • Ask an Elder or senior: What have you learned? • Ask your parents: What are the major sources of stress in your lives? • Ask people in leadership positions: What qualities are important in a leader? • Ask your parents or friends: What qualities are important in a relationship? • Ask your parents or friends: What are your values? Are there certain basic human values?
<p>Experimental research</p> <p>Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Eyewitness testimony: Stage an unexpected event such as a person bursting into the classroom and describing an "emergency" situation. Once the actor leaves, ask the students to write down exactly what they heard described. Share the descriptions orally with the group and discuss the variances in the "testimony".
<p>Topical research</p> <p>A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • gender development • personality • Aboriginal spirituality • cultural Industries (Fashion, Music, Beauty) • advertising.

Unit Two: Who am I?

Unit Overview

The life which is unexamined is not worth living.

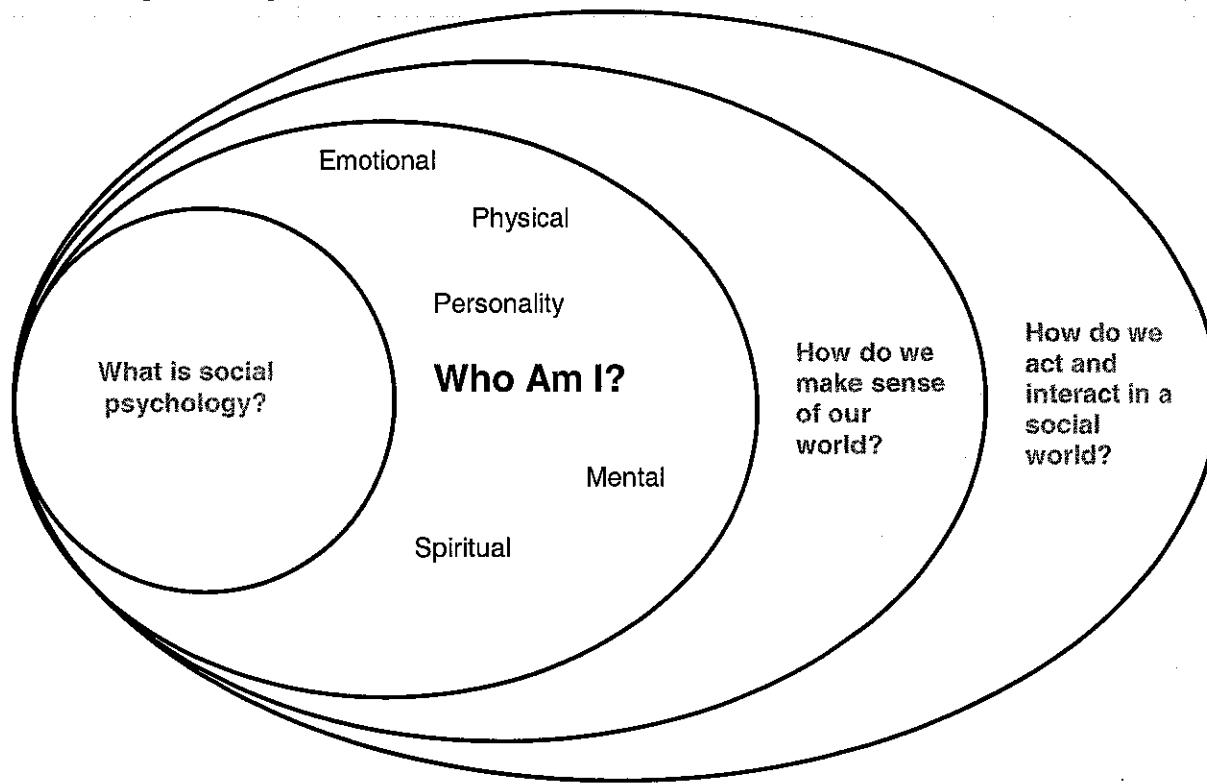
Plato, Dialogues, Apology

The most profound discovery that we can make is our discovery of self. Our identity rests in the kind of people we are. To understand who we are and to develop fully as human beings, we must explore the nature of our humanness and the purpose of our lives. Who and what are we? What are the common human qualities and ideals we hold? What roles do other people (e.g., friends, family) play in our lives? What brings us joy, inspiration and

fulfillment? What doubts and fears do we have? By examining our lives and searching for answers to these and other questions, we can find meaning and fulfillment as human beings (ELA B30 Unit Overview, Saskatchewan Education).

We begin our inquiry into the ways and means in which our own thoughts, feelings and behaviours influence other people. It is an introspective look at the biological, cognitive, emotional, spiritual, and social influences on how we think and feel about the world. Using the Aboriginal concept of the Medicine Wheel as our lens, we then consider how the influence we have on other people is affected by our biology and experiences, as well as in the context of the various systems of support.

Concept Map



Time Frame: 15 – 25 hours

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand how thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.
- To acquire knowledge about ourselves; to consider the question: Who am I?

- To understand the biological basis for our behaviour.
- To understand the role and function of the mental or cognitive aspects of our thoughts and behaviour.
- To understand emotional aspects of our Being.
- To understand the role and purpose of the spiritual aspect to our social nature.

Skills

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

Values

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

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

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| <p>2.1 Unit Overview: Who am I?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What are the four aspects of our Being?• What influence does biology have on thoughts, feelings and behaviour?• What affects how we feel about the world?• What affects how we think about the world?• Are our thoughts and emotions independent of each other?• What is spirituality, and what role does it play in our lives?• How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to self-understanding? <p>2.2 Physical Aspects: How do we receive, process and act upon information from our interaction with the world?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How do we receive information from the world?• How do we process information from the world?• How do we act upon the processed information? | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How are traits and characteristics passed from generation to generation?• What are the sociocultural influences on our physical development? <p>2.2.1 The Human Sensory System</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is the difference between sensation and perception?• What is subliminal perception?• What does extra-sensory information (E.S.P.) mean?• Is E.S.P. real? <p>2.2.2 The Nervous System</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How does the body transmit sensory information?• How does the brain process sensory information?• What areas of the brain control what functions?• How is experience represented in the brain?• Does the brain grow and develop, or is it stable and unchanging?• Are there gender differences in brain function? <p>2.2.3 Endocrine System</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is the endocrine system?• What is the role and function of the endocrine system?• What are hormones?• What do hormones do? <p>2.2.4 Heredity/Genetics</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is heredity and genetics?• How are traits passed from one generation to the next?• What is genetic engineering?• What are some ethical and moral issues involved in genetic engineering? <p>2.3 Emotional Aspects: What affects how we feel about the world?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What affects how we feel about the world?• In what ways are our emotions biologically based?• What are the sociocultural influences on our feelings and behaviours? <p>2.3.1 Motivation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is motivation?• Why is motivation important?• Is motivation innate or learned?• Why do some people persevere, and others give up?• What are the intrinsic and external motives that affect our thoughts and behaviour? |
|--|--|

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What motivates you? 	
2.3.2	Emotions <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is an emotion? • How is an emotion different than a feeling? • Are emotions innate or learned? • What are the social and cultural influences on emotional expression? • What is anger, and how can it be controlled or managed? • How can we manage our emotions? • How can we minimize the effects of debilitating emotions? 	Learning <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does it mean to learn? • How do people learn? • What are the biological bases for learning? • Are there gender differences in learning? • How can you improve your ability to learn?
2.3.3	Attitudes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are attitudes? • How do we form attitudes? • Why do we have attitudes? • How do attitudes change? • How are attitudes related to values and beliefs? • How can you resist peer pressure? 	Memory <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What role and function does memory serve? • How is experience stored and retrieved in the brain? • How can memory be improved?
2.3.4	Social Perception <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is social perception? • How are social perceptions formed and changed? • What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations? • What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination? • Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve? 	Intelligence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is intelligence? • What are the different types of intelligence? • To what extent is intelligence culturally or biologically based? • Is intelligence inherited?
2.4	Mental Aspects: What affects how we think about the world? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What does it mean to think? • What affects how we think about the world? • What is the mind? • What are the sociocultural influences on our thoughts and behaviours? 	Spiritual Aspects: Defining our relationship to a Higher Power <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is spirituality? • What is the soul? • What are the sociocultural influences on our spirituality? • What is an Aboriginal perspective on spirituality?
	2.4.1 Social Cognition <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people? • What processes do we use to make sense of other people? • How is our understanding of other people's behaviour represented in our minds? • What factors affect our judgement? 	2.5.1 Worldview <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is a worldview? • How does a worldview influence our behaviour? • How does a worldview develop? • What is your worldview? • How do the worldviews of different faith systems compare?
		2.5.2 Values <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are values? • How are beliefs and values related? • What are your values? • What is your credo?
		2.5.3 Morality and Ethics <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What are morals and ethics? • How is moral and ethical behaviour developed? • How do we know if our decisions or actions are moral? • What are the cultural perspectives on moral and ethical behaviour?

- 2.6 Personality: Who I am?
- What does it mean to have a personality?
 - How do personalities develop?
 - Is there a biological basis for personality?
 - What kind of personality do you have?
 - What are the types of personality disorders?
- 2.7 Action research in social psychology
- What is the most important value in your life?
 - What qualities do you most admire in a friend?
 - Do you believe in a Creator or Higher Power?
 - Do you attend church regularly?
 - Do you believe in E.S.P.?
 - Do you support the cloning of human genetic material?
 - What is your primary motivator?
 - What is your favourite colour?
 - Have you experienced prejudice, and if so, what form or type (age, gender, culture, race)?
 - Are there basic personality types?
 - How do personalities develop?
 - How prevalent are nutritional supplements?
 - Who was Jesus and what influence has he had on social actions and interactions?
 - Who was Buddha and what influence has he had on social actions and interactions?
 - Who was Mohammed and what influence has he had on social actions and interactions?
 - Who are social rights activists, and what influence have they had on our society?
 - How do people deal with stress?
 - What would a day in the life of be like?
 - Ask your parents and friends: What are your earliest recollections?
 - Ask your parents: What are some memorable stories or anecdotes about you as a child?
 - Ask your parents or grandparents: Have societal values changed? In what ways?
 - What are stereotypical attitudes towards:
 - female police officers
 - female truck drivers/bus drivers
 - female entrepreneurs
 - male nurses?
- How reliable is eyewitness testimony?
 - How much can you remember?
 - What are multiple intelligences, and what role do they play in social behaviour?
 - What is beautiful?
 - Are there gender differences in impression formation and making judgements?
- Research one of the following:
 - moral dilemmas
 - sensory system
 - nervous system
 - endocrine system
 - genetics and heredity
 - origins of names
 - Machiavelli
 - *The Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*
 - artificial intelligence
 - amnesia
 - Alzheimer's disease
 - hypnosis
 - anger management
 - eating disorders
 - parenting styles
 - abuse
 - addiction
 - drugs
 - toys
 - acupuncture
 - personality disorders.

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

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

The following list of evaluated resource titles provides a **starting point** for developing a resource collection that is current and relevant, and that addresses students' various learning styles and

abilities. Please refer to the bibliography for a complete list of resources giving the full citation, annotation, and ordering information. Please note that many of these resources can be ordered through the **Learning Resources Distribution Centre** (<http://lrdc.sasked.gov.sk.ca/>). Videos may be available from **Media Group** (<http://www.sasked.gov.sk.ca/video>). At the time of publication all of the resources listed here and in the bibliography were in print and available.

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

Print Resources

Brains That Work a Little Bit Differently: Recent Discoveries about Common Brain Diversities
Building Left-Brain Power: Left-Brain Conditioning Exercises and Tips to Strengthen Language, Math and Uniquely Human Skills
Canada's Teens: Today, Yesterday, and Tomorrow
Encyclopedia of Memory & Memory Disorders
Incredible Optical Illusions
Memory
Rebel, Rogue, Mischievous Babe: Stories About Being a Powerful Girl
Wake Up to Your Dreams
When the Brain Dies First
Where's Your Head?: Psychology for Teenagers
Youngest Minds: Parenting and Genes in the Development of Intellect and Emotion

Non-Print Resources

Brain Sex (Episodes 1-3)
Celebration of Differences
Lost
Memory (Exploring Your Brain Series)

Internet Sites

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

Brain Connection - <http://www.brainconnection.com>

Canadian Mental Health Association, Saskatchewan
- <http://www.cmhask.com>

Mental Health Disorders -
<http://www.mentalhealth.com/fr20.html>

Taking The Pulse of Saskatchewan –
<http://www.arts.usask.ca/takingthepulse>

Quips and Quotes

The life that is unexamined is not worth living.

Plato

2.1 Who am I?

We begin our inquiry into the ways and means in which our own thoughts, feelings and behaviours influence other people. It is an introspective look at the spiritual, biological, cognitive, emotional and social influences on how we think and feel about the world through the perspective of the Medicine Wheel.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the four aspects to our Being?
- What influence does biology have on thoughts, feelings and behaviour?
- What affects how we feel about the world?
- What affects how we think about the world?
- Are your thoughts and emotions independent of each other?
- What is spirituality, and what role does it play in our lives?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to self-understanding?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Reflection: Who am I?
 - The medicine wheel is but one symbol that we can use to describe ourselves. Create, construct, compose or find another symbol that represents you.
- Game: Who am I?
 - Have students write three interesting facts about themselves they are willing to share. Collect the papers, then randomly select one, read it, and have the rest of the class guess who that might be.
 - Emphasize all four aspects to our Being whenever the opportunity presents itself.
- Interview: Who are you?
 - Divide the class into pairs. Have students interview their partners to find out more about their backgrounds and history. Have each student introduce his/her partner to the class.
- Reflection: The four aspects to our Being
 - Using the template of the medicine wheel, discuss the four aspects of our Being. Then use the template My Medicine Wheel as a conceptual organizer to allow the students to reflect about themselves and the four aspects to their Being.
- Jigsaw/Activity: Issues in self-understanding
 - Assign one of the four issues in developmental psychology to a small group of students. Have each group brainstorm examples of how its issue is demonstrated in terms of developing self-understanding across the life span.
 - Based on their examples, the groups will create a role play in which they describe the issue and its applicability to developing self-understanding.
- Research: What's in a name?
 - Research the origins of names.
 - In what ways is the original meaning of your name reflected in your personality?
 - Read the *Interactions* article entitled "Aboriginal perspective on social psychology" for the relationship between names and the Self from an Aboriginal perspective.

Resources

- *Interactions*: Who am I?
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel
- Curriculum Support Materials: My Medicine Wheel
- [Website to find meanings of first names](#)
- [On-line genealogy index](#):

Lesson 2.1: Teacher Information

What are the four aspects to our Being?

Physical aspects includes all the growth and change that occur in a person's body, and in the genetic, nutritional, and health factors that affect that growth and change. Motor skills – everything from grasping a rattle to driving a car – are also part of the biosocial domain. Social and cultural factors that affect these areas, such as duration of breast feeding, education of children with special needs, and attitudes about ideal body shape, are also part of biosocial development (Berger, 2000, p. 3).

Mental (Cognitive) aspects includes all the mental processes that are used to obtain knowledge or to become aware of the environment. Cognition encompasses perception, imagination, judgement, memory, and language – the processes people use to think, decide, and learn. Education included within the formal curriculum within schools, informal tutoring by family and friends, and the results of individual curiosity and creativity, is also part of this domain (Berger, 2000, p. 3).

Emotional aspects includes development of emotions, temperament, and social skills. The influences of family, friends, the community, the culture, and the larger society are particularly central to the psychosocial domain. Thus cultural differences in the value accorded children, or in ideas about "appropriate" sex roles, or in what is regarded as the ideal family structure are considered part of this domain (Berger, 2000, p. 3).

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

What influence does biology have on my thoughts, feelings and behaviour?

Everything we do, from blinking reflexively to falling in love, has a biological basis. Why and how we behave and think is, in large part, a function of how the brain and body work (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 40).

What affects how we feel about the world?

Motivation is the internal state of an organism that drives it to behave in a certain way. There are three aspects: Drives (hunger, thirst, temperature regulation, sex), Learned and Needs (Cardwell, 1998, p. 148).

Emotions are responses to an interaction between the subjectivity of feelings and an objective experience. Emotions, as opposed to feelings and sentiments are more momentary than prolonged, an intense state characterized by behavioural disorganization, reflect survival strategies, non-habitual, and reactive to certain situations (Cardwell, 1998, p. 84).

Social Perception is the process by which someone infers other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 158).

Attitudes are long lasting patterns of feelings and beliefs about other people, ideas, or objects that are based in people's experiences and shape their future behaviour (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 448).

What affects how we think about the world?

Social cognition refers to the thought process of making sense of events, people, oneself, and the world in general through analyzing and interpreting them. It focuses on social information in memory, which affects judgements, choices, evaluations, and ultimately, behaviour (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 457).

Learning is an adaptive process in which the tendency to perform a particular behaviour is changed by experience. Learning cannot be observed directly; it can only be inferred from changes in behaviour. Learning takes place within the nervous system. Experience alters the structure and chemistry of the brain, and these changes affect the individual's subsequent behaviour (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 131).

Current research suggests that *memories* are encoded as they are stored, in forms dictated by people's assumptions, attention, and schema. Remembering is an active or "constructive" process in which these assumptions and schema influence the memory that is retrieved. A memory of a person will include both memories of specific things that the person has said or done, and more abstract memories of "what the person is like" such as personality traits, physical characteristics and dispositions. Our memory of past events can be influenced by our expectation or "theory" about what should have happened (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 225).

Intelligence is the overall capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 264).

Are your thoughts and emotions independent of each other?

It was a miracle Phineas Gage did not die. On September 13, 1848, while he was blasting rock on a Vermont railroad line, exploding gunpowder drove a tamping iron into his face under his left eye. The force of the explosion drove the rod up through his brain and out through his shattered skull at about the place where hair and forehead meet. Astonishingly, Gage made a complete physical recovery and lived for another dozen years. Psychologically, however, he was a changed man. Once emotionally well-balanced, he became obstinate, capricious, impatient of anything that went against his wishes, and given to outbursts of profanity.

It was the frontal lobes of Gage's brain that were destroyed, a part of the brain about which neuroscientists had previously known very little. The Gage case gave brain specialists the first clear evidence that thoughts and emotions are closely related, and that they are so because of actual physical connections between the limbic system (the principal emotional centre in the brain) and other brain structures.

From this case and later studies, it now appears that the frontal lobes enable us to control our emotions. Damage to the lobes and destruction of their links to the limbic system bring about chemical and electrical changes in many parts of the brain, and thus alter the way people express their emotions (Guinness, 1989, p. 68).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to self-understanding?

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

- *Continuous change versus discontinuous change:* In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about

behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.

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

Quips and Quotes

Behold the turtle. He makes progress only when he sticks his neck out.

James Bryant Conant

2.2 Physical Aspects: How do we receive, process and act upon information from the world?

In this overview lesson, we begin to describe the biological aspects of our Being: the human brain; the central nervous and sensory systems; the endocrine system; and, the influence of genetics and heredity.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we receive information from the world?
- How do we process information from the world?
- How do we act upon the processed information?
- How are traits and characteristics passed from generation to generation?
- What are the socio-cultural influences on our physical development?

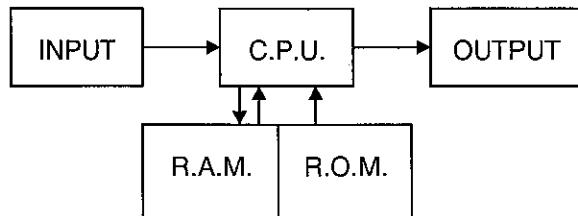
Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: How do we receive, process and act upon our experiences in the world?
 - Read the *Interactions* article. Based on the article, and using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss with the students how we receive, process and act upon our experiences in the world.
- Discussion: The Ecological Model
 - Using the template supplied, discuss how the various systems of support influence our physical nature.
- Research: Biological makeup
 - Divide the class into four groups, and assign one of the four aspects (sensory systems, nervous system, endocrine system, heredity and genetics) of our biological makeup to each group for independent research.
 - Review the research process:
 - Generate categories/topics, decide on presentation format.
 - Gather information, and record the reference sources.
 - Make jot notes; revise categories if necessary.
 - Organize, synthesize and present information.
 - Presentation formats might include oral presentations, using the blank *Interactions* page as a template for a written report; overhead transparencies; three panel displays; models; computer presentation software (e.g., PowerPoint); or Hyperstudio stack.

Making Connections

- Relate our biological makeup to the components of a computer:



Resources

- *Interactions*: How do we receive, process and act upon our experiences in the world?
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- Curriculum Support Materials: How do we receive, process and act upon our experiences in the world?

Lesson 2.2: Teacher Information

How do we receive information from the world?

Your senses gather information about the world by detecting forms of energy, such as sound, light, heat and physical pressure. Specifically, your eyes detect light energy, your ears detect the energy of sound, and your skin detects the energy of heat and pressure. Humans depend primarily on vision, hearing and the skin senses to gain information about the world. All of these senses must detect stimuli, encode them into neural activity, and transfer this coded information to the brain (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 73).

How do we process information from the world?

The human brain has three major structural components: the large dome-shaped cerebrum, the smaller somewhat spherical cerebellum and the brainstem. The cerebrum is responsible for intelligence and reasoning. The cerebellum helps to maintain balance and posture. The medulla is involved in maintaining involuntary functions such as respiration, and the thalamus acts as a relay center for electrical impulses travelling to and from the cerebral cortex.

How are traits and characteristics passed from generation to generation?

Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes. In each pair, one chromosome comes from the mother and the other from the father. Twenty-two of the pairs are the same in both men and women, and these are called autosomes. The twenty-third pair consists of the sex chromosomes, so called because they are the primary factor in determining the gender of a child. The sex chromosomes are known as the X and Y chromosomes (Berger, 2000, p. 69).

What are the socio-cultural influences on our physical development?

Discuss with your students the profound influence that all systems of support have on the physical development and nurturance of the individual.

- For the microsystems, discuss the importance of nutrition, poverty and high or low economic status of the family. For peers, emphasize how peer groups can influence our development (e.g., body image), and how groups such as sport teams can influence our physical development.

- For the exosystem, emphasize the role that schools and communities play in promoting healthy development through facilities (e.g., hockey rinks, skateboard parks) and programs (Health care programs, homecare, seminars for parents, single moms, teen moms).
- For the macrosystem level, what are the influences of the economic climate (e.g., slums, ghettos, underdeveloped nations), the political climate (e.g., political systems and their perspectives on amateur sport), and cultural values (e.g., competitiveness, individuality, and achievement)?

Quips and Quotes

Do more than touch, feel.
Do more than look, observe.
Do more than hear, listen.
Do more than listen, understand.
Do more than think, ponder.
Do more than talk, say something.

- John Rhoades

2.2.1 The human sensory system

This lesson provides a brief overview of each of the senses, as well as discussing what is commonly referred to as the “sixth sense,” E.S.P., or extra sensory perception.

Lesson Objectives

- What is the difference between sensation and perception?
- What is subliminal perception?
- What does extra sensory information mean?
- Is extrasensory perception real?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: What is the difference between hearing and listening?
 - What difference does hearing and not listening make in terms of social interactions and relationships?
- Media Study: Role of sensory systems
 - Analyze and describe how we receive information from the sensory systems through a number of demonstrations:
 - View a videotape of a social situation without the sound, or create a mime situation. What information did you gain from this modality? What are the sources of information (e.g., facial expressions, body language)? What are the potential sources of error in visual perception?
 - Listen to an audiotape of a social situation (e.g., discussion, argument) and repeat the process described above, emphasizing the auditory modality.
- Research: Extrasensory perception
 - Design and conduct a survey investigating people’s attitudes toward E.S.P.
- Research: Colour and psychology
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the effects of colour on emotions. What colours do people associate with which emotions? How is this relationship demonstrated in terms of fashion? What gender differences exist in terms of colours and fashion? What colours are related to “maleness” or “femaleness”?

Making Connections

- Figure/Ground: Why do we notice the figure and then the ground?
- Blind spot: Every person has a blind spot in his/her vision (the point at which the optic nerve leaves the back of the eye). Why, then, do we not have a black spot in our vision?
- Escher prints: How are some of the illusions represented?
- Ink blots: Create some and analyze.
- Abstract art: How do we experience, and make sense of, abstract shapes?

Resources

- Videotape, audiotape
- M.C. Escher website

Lesson 2.2.1: Teacher Information

What is the difference between sensation and perception?

To understand how sensory systems help us create reality, we need basic information about the senses. A sense is a system that translates outside information into activity in the nervous system. Messages from the senses are called sensations. Perception is the process of using information and your understanding of the world, so that sensations become meaningful experiences. By shaping experience, perceptions influence thoughts, feelings and actions. But before something can be perceived, it must be sensed (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 72).

What is subliminal perception?

People often know more than they know they know. In fact, nonconscious processing appears to occur not only in perception, but also in memory, thinking and decision making. However, the real-world implications of subliminal perception are not as dramatic as you might think. Even in the laboratory, where researchers have considerable control, the phenomenon is hard to demonstrate. The strongest evidence comes from studies using simple stimuli (faces or single words, like "bread"), rather than complex stimuli such as sentences (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 216).

What does extra-sensory information (E.S.P.) mean?

E.S.P. includes telepathy, clairvoyance, precognition and psychokinesis. Telepathy is the transfer of thought from one person to another. Clairvoyance is the ability to recognize objects or events, such as the contents of a message in a sealed envelope, that are not present to normal sensory receptors. Precognition is unexplained knowledge about future events, such as knowing when the phone is about to ring. Psychokinesis is the ability to move objects by using one's mental powers (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 110).

Is E.S.P. real?

Experimental support for the existence of E.S.P. is generally weak, and results have not been repeated often (refer to the scientific method as described in Unit One, particularly the aspects of reliability and validity). Moreover, E.S.P. phenomena such as "reading people's minds" or bending spoons through mental power cannot be verified by experimental manipulations in the way that other perceptual

events can be. None of these criticisms means that E.S.P. does not exist (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 110).

Quips and Quotes

The human brain holds about 100 billion nerve cells, or neurons. Each neuron forms contacts with a thousand others, on average, making for a system with at least 100 trillion interconnections.

2.2.2 The Nervous system

Focusing more on the biological aspects of our behaviour, thoughts and feelings, this lesson addresses the variety of means of experiencing our world.

Lesson Objectives

- How does the body transmit sensory information?
- How does the brain process sensory information?
- What areas of the brain control what functions?
- How is experience represented in the brain?
- Does the brain grow and develop or is it stable and unchanging?
- Are there gender differences in brain function?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Experience and the developing brain
 - What are the implications for teachers and students of Dr. Kolb's research? Should schools be changing to reflect what Dr. Kolb's research suggests about the nature of experience and the influence it has on our development even into adulthood?
- Research: Children's toys
 - In what ways are the toys with which children play influencing their cognitive development?
 - In what ways are the toys with which children play influencing their emotional development?
 - In what ways are the toys with which children play influencing their gender identity and roles?
- Discussion: The nervous system
 - Using the Curriculum Support Materials as the conceptual organizer, discuss the major aspects of the Nervous System.
- Research: Cerebral hemisphere functions
 - Research, describe and discuss the functions and localization of the hemispheres of the brain.

Making Connections

- Biorhythms:
 - In what ways are our thoughts, feelings and behaviours subject to normal biological cycles such as the Circadian rhythms?
- What is hypnosis, and how can people be hypnotized?
- What are the conscious and subconscious?
- What does Western science say about the practice of acupuncture?

Resources

- *Interactions: Experience and the developing brain*
- Curriculum Support Materials: The nervous system
- Website for topics related to the nervous system and the brain
- Portal to websites dealing with the brain, and the nervous system

Lesson 2.2.2: Teacher Information

How does the body transmit sensory information?

Fibers extending from the nerve cell body are called axons and dendrites. Each neuron generally has only one axon, whose function is to carry signals away from the cell body. At the end of each axon are terminal branches with pouch-like sacs called vesicles. Dendrites are fibers that receive signals from the axons of other neurons and carry those signals to the cell body.

The communication signal between neurons begins with an electrochemical pulse which shoots down the axon. The vesicles release a chemical substance called a neurotransmitter. The neurotransmitters flow across the gap between the axon and dendrites. On the dendrite of the next cell, the neurotransmitters reach places where they chemically fit, or bind, to proteins called receptors (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 43).

How does the brain process sensory information?

All modern brain theories assume that the major brain parts perform different (though overlapping) tasks. This concept, which is known as localization of function, goes back to at least Joseph Gall (1758-1828). There are several structures that work to process sensory information:

- The brain stem is responsible for functions such as sleeping, waking, dreaming and unconscious bodily functions such as breathing and heart rate.
- The cerebellum contributes to a sense of balance and coordinates the muscles so that movement is smooth and precise. In addition, the cerebellum is involved in remembering certain simple skills and acquired reflexes, analyzing sensory information, solving problems and understanding words.
- The thalamus is the busy traffic officer of the brain. The thalamus relays motor impulses from higher centres to the spinal cord. And conversely, as sensory messages come into the brain, the thalamus directs them to higher centres.
- The hypothalamus and the pituitary gland are involved in drives associated with the survival of both the individual and the species – hunger, thirst, emotion, sex and reproduction. It

regulates body temperature and it controls the complex operations of the autonomic nervous system (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 117)

How is experience represented in the brain?

Mental representations take the form of cognitive maps (mental representations of familiar parts of one's world), images, concept schema (categories of objects, events, or ideas with common properties), event scripts (schema about familiar sequences of events or activities), and mental models (clusters of relationships between objects or processes) (Bernstein and Nash, 1997, p. 225).

Does the brain grow and develop or is it stable and unchanging?

In the first three years of life, the human brain is a veritable factory of neural development. Trillions of synaptic circuits that will last a lifetime are being formed. Just to grow the brain, young children use twice as much energy in their heads as adults, who carry about all the cares of the world. But scientists are now discovering that the brain can grow and reorganize itself, within limits, past puberty and possibly well into adulthood, depending on the demands put on it. A British study released in March, 2000 showed that the brains of cab drivers ranging in age from 32 to 62 had experienced a "relative distribution of grey matter" in the memory-focusing hippocampus. The researchers attributed the change to having to learn to navigate the labyrinth of streets in London.

"Simply put, the brain is a riot of functional changes," says Alan Evans of the Montreal Neurological Institute. What's more, the maturing brain, awash in different stages of chemical and hormonal development, is like nature's wild garden: the grey matter grows more synapses than it needs, then spends part of its development "pruning" or leaving aside areas that are not put to use.

Between six and 15 are the peak language years when the left (language) hemisphere fills out. Some scientists believe the window shuts at about 11 or 12, at the onset of puberty, when learning new languages becomes much more difficult. Studies of children with damaged left hemispheres show that their language skills can be reorganized, within limits, on the right side before puberty; after that the right hemisphere has pretty well settled into a different way of ordering its world.

The brains of teenagers are definitely a work in progress. Hormones push the limbic system, where raw emotion is seated, into overdrive. At the same time, the frontal cortex, where cool-headed decision-

making takes place, is still trying to get its act together. This back and forth may help to explain why teenagers can't seem to choose between talking on the phone or doing their homework when a term paper looms; and why social situations and insults become so important: they are still sorting out the social signals. One study showed adults and teenagers images of faces contorted in fear. All the adults recognized the emotion; many teens did not. Scans also showed the adults and teens used different areas of their brains during the experiment (Sheppard, 2000, p. 47).

Are there gender differences in brain function?

Over the years, with a large body of animal studies and studies of humans that include psychological tests, anatomical studies and, increasingly, brain scans, researchers are constantly finding that the brains of the two sexes are subtly but significantly different:

- Researchers who conducted a study into processing of nonsense words and whether they rhymed, reported that the subjects did equally well at the task, but the men and women used different areas of their brains. The men used just a small area of the left side of their brain, next to Broca's area, while the women used the same area but on the right side of their brain.
- For the most part, researchers have found that the brains of men and women while "at rest" were virtually indistinguishable from one another, but there was one difference found in a brain structure called the limbic system that regulates emotions. Men, on average, had more activity in the area of the limbic system that was involved with action, while women had more activity in the areas that were involved in symbolic actions. Women have a larger corpus callosum, the tangle of fibers that run down the center of the brain and enable the two hemispheres to communicate.
- Men have larger brains than women, but women have about 11 percent more neurons (Wade, 1998, p. 64).

Quips and Quotes

Each individual is in a daily cycle in which all sorts of changes constantly occur, including body temperature, sexual drive, alertness, tolerance to stress and mood. Most of these changes are due to hormonal cycles.

James Alcock

2.2.3 Endocrine system

This lesson addresses the “chemical messengers” responsible for influencing almost every aspect of human biological function.

Lesson Objectives

- What is the endocrine system?
- What is the role and function of the endocrine system?
- What are hormones?
- What do hormones do?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Debate: Steroids and athletics
 - The use of performance enhancing drugs such as anabolic steroids should be allowed at all levels of athletic competition.
- Discussion: The endocrine system
 - Describe the various aspects of the endocrine system and the roles that they play in the proper functioning of the body.
 - How does learning about the endocrine system and its role and function help us to understand the biological basis for our behaviours?
 - What role does the endocrine system play in shaping our gender?
- Jigsaw: The endocrine system
 - Divide the class into small groups, and assign one aspect of the endocrine system for each group to research and report on.
- Discussion: Biochemistry and behaviour
 - Read the *Interactions* article, Biochemistry and Behaviour: Balancing the Equation.
 - What are the implications of Dr. Hoffer’s theories?
 - Design and conduct a research project that surveys people’s attitudes towards vitamins and minerals. Should people take vitamin supplements daily?
- Research: The human body
 - Using the *World Almanac* or other reference source, research the limits of human growth and development (e.g., the world’s tallest person, smallest person).

Making Connections

- What effects do stimulants, depressants and hallucinogens have on our body’s ability to process information?
- Research: Addiction
 - Define addiction and describe some types of addictive behaviours.

Resources

- *World Almanac, Guinness Book of World Records*
- *Interactions: Biochemistry and Behaviour: Balancing the Equation*.

Lesson 2.2.3: Teacher Information

What is the endocrine system?

The endocrine system employs chemical messengers called hormones, which move through the blood stream, and can reach every cell in the body. Their effect can be rapid or delayed (Guinness, 1989, p. 74).

What is the role and function of the endocrine system?

The roles and functions of the various aspects of the endocrine system include:

- The *hypothalamus* is involved in working through the pituitary gland to regulate the endocrine system, regulates the body's homeostatic balances such as blood sugars, and controls eating and hunger.
- The *pituitary*, the body's master gland, is responsible for hormone production that regulates and controls other endocrine glands, controls activity of gonads, regulates timing and amount of body growth, stimulates milk production in females and also regulates excretion of water.
- The *thyroid* produces thyroxin, which regulates the rate of metabolism and controls growth.
- The *parathyroid* produces hormones to regulate levels of calcium and phosphate that play a crucial role in the functioning of the nervous system.
- The *adrenal* produces epinephrine which plays an important role in reactions to stress as well as producing hormones that promote release of sugar stored in the liver.
- The *pineal body* secretes melatonin, a hormone that exerts a far-reaching sedative effect, reducing activity and increasing fatigue.
- The *reproductive glands* produces hormones responsible for secondary sex characteristics in males and females as well as regulating aspects of pregnancy in females and sperm production and sex-drive in males.
- The *pancreas* produces hormones such as insulin that regulate metabolism (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 67-71).

What are hormones?

Hormones help maintain a constant environment inside the body, adjusting the amount of salt and water in your tissues, sugar in your blood, and salt in your sweat to suit the particular conditions around you. Hormones produce both long-term

changes, such as a child's growth and sexual maturation, and rhythmic ones, such as the menstrual cycle. They trigger swift, dramatic responses in the body whenever illness or injury strikes or your brain perceives danger. They have a lot to do with such powerful emotions as anger and fear, joy and despair (Guinness, 1989, p. 74)

What do hormones do?

Hormones are amazingly diverse in function. Growth hormones secreted by the pituitary gland, are responsible for the development of the bones, muscles and other organs. The hormones secreted by the adrenals have a host of functions to perform – among them, hormones that help keep blood pressure normal and make it easier to cope with stress. Glucagon, produced by the pancreas, raises the level of sugar in the blood when it gets low (Guinness, 1989, p. 77).

Quips and Quotes

If the DNA in a single human cell could be unraveled, it would form a single thread almost two metres long and about 125 trillionths of a centimetre thick.

2.2.4 Heredity and Genetics

Increasingly, genetic engineering and stem cell research are raising moral and ethical dilemmas concerning the creation and modification of human life. This lesson provides background information on heredity and genetics and then moves into a consideration of those dilemmas.

Lesson Objectives

- What is heredity and genetics?
- What is genetic engineering?
- What are the ethical and moral issues involved in genetic engineering?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: A Double-edged sword
 - *Gattaca*, is the title of a 1997 science fiction movie about a world in which a person's DNA determines his or her place in the social structure. It is a world of cooled-down emotions and soft-spoken terror, in which the world's leaders and achievers have been genetically engineered as test tube babies to "be the best that they can be." Natural-born people are called "In-Valids" because they are more likely to carry imperfections, weaknesses and diseases. They are second-class citizens, shut out of meaningful society. Should society genetically engineer cognitive and emotional perfection in its leaders? Discuss the issue.
 - Design and conduct a research project that surveys people's attitudes towards genetic engineering of humans.
 - Design and conduct a research project that surveys people's attitudes towards cloning of genetic material for transplant purposes.
- Independent research: Family history
 - Students can question their parents or family members, or reflect upon their own genetic and hereditary history. In what ways are they a "product of their family"?
- From both perspectives: Genetic research
 - "Private companies should be allowed to protect their genetic discoveries in order to reap adequate financial rewards for the costly research they have undertaken." (Taylor, 2000c, p. 9).
- Research: Case Study
 - Research the scientists who mapped the human genome: Francis Collins and J. Craig Venter.

Making Connections

- Genetic engineering in agriculture: Humankind's hope for the future?
 - What are the benefits, and possible issues, in biotechnology directed at agriculture? The biotechnologist's perspective is presented in the Biotechnology Council's website listed below.

Resources

- *Interactions*: A Double-edged sword
- [Biography On-line](#)
- [Biotechnology website](#)

Lesson 2.2.4: Teacher Information

What is heredity and genetics?

Behaviour is the product of complex biological processes. Heredity refers to those biologically determined characteristics that, through the filter of our experience and environmental factors, influence behaviour.

Every cell of the body contains a set of biological blueprints that enables it to perform its essential functions. This information is contained in chromosomes, strand-like structures found in the nuclei of all cells. Chromosomes contain thousands of genes-segments of DNA that serve as basic units of heredity. Our genes, working in complex combinations with each other, with our environment, and with our experiences, ultimately determine our biological make-up (Baron et al., 1998, p. 74).

What is genetic engineering?

Genetic engineering is the alteration of an organism's genetic instructions through the insertion of additional genes. In humans, genetic engineering involves adding normal genes, either directly via a blood transfusion or bone marrow transplant or directly into a cluster of cells, thereby enabling the body to replace ailing cells with healthy ones. The technique is being used experimentally for hemophilia, cystic fibrosis, rheumatoid arthritis, several types of cancer, and dozens of rare diseases (Berger, 2000, p. 95).

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

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

Genome Project continue to make headway in mapping out human genes (Santrock, 1999, p. 74).

Quips and Quotes

When God measures us, he puts the tape around the heart, not the head.

Anonymous

2.3 Emotional Aspects: What affects how we feel about the world?

This overview lesson, describes the emotional aspects of our Being: motivation, emotions, attitudes and social perception or attribution.

Lesson Objectives

- What affects how we feel about the world?
- In what ways are our emotions biologically based?
- What are the socio-cultural influences on our feelings and behaviours?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: What affects how we feel about the world?
 - Using the *Interactions* article, What affects how we feel about the world? discuss the four aspects that influence how we feel about the world.
 - Of the four aspects, does any one predominate?
 - Brainstorm a list of motivations, emotions and attitudes. Direct the students to identify those motives, emotions and attitudes that describe themselves.
 - Relate the list to personality traits. How do these terms describe you?
- Construction: Emotions and the arts
 - How are emotions represented in the various art forms? Find, create or construct metaphors of emotional expression from a variety of media.
- Discussion: The Ecological Model
 - Using the Ecological model as a conceptual organizer, discuss with the students how each level of the model contributes to the formation, maintenance and change of our emotional states.
 - Is any one level more important than the others?
 - Do certain aspects of each level affect us differently at different times and stages of our life? How are these differences demonstrated?
 - Are there gender differences in how males and females respond to these influences from each of the systems of support?

Making Connections

- Sports Psychology: What role do emotions play in performance? What does it mean to get "psyched up" for a game?
- Humour as medicine:
 - Research has shown that humour has medical benefits. Is laughter really the best medicine?
- Emotional abuse:
 - What is emotional abuse? How prevalent is it? What are some of the signs of emotional abuse?
- Eating disorders: Research the two most common disorders that afflict thousands of teenagers.
 - Anorexia nervosa
 - Bulimia nervosa.

Resources

- *Interactions*: What affects how we feel about the world?
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 2.3: Teacher Information

What affects how we feel about the world?

Motivation is the internal state of an organism that drives it to behave in a certain way. There are three aspects: Drives such as hunger, thirst, temperature regulation and sex; learned motives; and needs, for examples Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs such as achievement, affiliation, status and power.

An emotion is a temporary experience with negative or positive qualities that is felt with some intensity as happening to the self, is generated in part by a mental assessment of a situation, and is accompanied by both learned and innate physical responses (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 310).

Attitude is a state of readiness, based on past experiences, which guides, biases, or otherwise influences our behaviour. There are three components: Cognitive, or what we believe; Affective which include our feelings; and Behavioural, or learned associations. Attitudes serve a number of motivational functions:

- ego-defensive
- value-expressive
- instrumental: gain social acceptance or avoid disapproval
- knowledge: organize social world (e.g., what I like or don't like) and make predictions (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 287).

Social perception is the process by which people come to know and evaluate one another.

Researchers in social perception study how we form impressions of each other, how we explain the causes of our own and other people's behaviour, and how we form stereotypes and prejudices toward social groups (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 158).

In what ways are our emotions biologically based?

All emotional responses contain three components: behavioural, autonomic and hormonal. The behavioural component consists of muscular movements that are appropriate to the situation that elicits them. For example, a dog defending its territory against an intruder first adopts an aggressive posture, growls, and shows its teeth. If the intruder does not leave, the defender runs towards it and attacks. Autonomic responses – that is, changes in the activity of the autonomic nervous system - facilitate these behaviours and provide quick mobilization of energy for vigorous movement. As a consequence, the dog's heart rate increases, and changes in the size of blood vessels shunt the

circulation of blood away from the digestive organs toward the muscles. Hormonal responses reinforce the autonomic responses. The hormones secreted by the adrenal glands further increase heart rate and blood flow to the muscles, and also make more glucose available to them (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 433).

What are the socio-cultural influences on our feelings and behaviours?

Using the Ecological model as a conceptual organizer, discuss with the students how each level of the model contributes to the formation, maintenance and change of our emotional states, most particularly our attitudes including biases and prejudice.

Quips and Quotes

The journey of a thousand miles begins with the first step.

Tao Te Ching

2.3.1 Motivation

Motivation refers to factors that influence the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of behaviour. The many sources of motivation fall into four categories: biological factors, emotional factors, cognitive factors and social factors (Bernstein and Nash, 1999).

Lesson Objectives

- What is motivation?
- Why is motivation important?
- Is motivation innate or learned?
- Why do some people persevere, and others give up?
- What are the intrinsic and external motives that affect our thoughts and behaviour?
- What motivates you?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Reflection: What motivates you?
 - Discuss with the students the four basic factors of motivation: personal, social, cognitive motives and biological motives.
 - For each category, direct the students to list as many motives as they can.
 - Are there some personal, social and biological motives that are most common?
 - Are there some motives that are gender specific? Culturally specific?
- Research: Motives
 - Given the list of motives found in the Curriculum Support Materials, find examples in life that demonstrate those motives. Be sure to respect the privacy of individuals by eliminating specific references to people.
 - Using those same motives, find examples in song lyrics of those kinds of motivations. Copy out the lyrics or bring in the music samples.
- Consensus decision making: The basic motive for all human action is self-interest.
 - Is self-interest the primary motive for all human behaviour? Using the consensus decision-making process, discuss this statement and attempt to reach a consensus opinion.
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Have the courage to act instead of react (Earlene Larson Jenks).
 - No problem is so big and complicated that it can't be run away from (Linus (Peanuts character by Charles Schultz).
 - Whatever you are, be a good one (Abraham Lincoln).
 - Never let your head hang down. Never give up and sit down and grieve. Find another way. And don't pray when it rains if you don't pray when the sun shines (Satchel Paige).

Making Connections

- Parenting: How can theories of motivation apply to make us effective parents?
- How and why do people become completely unmotivated (learned helplessness)?
- Motivation and Leadership: Leaders who have a strong power motive (e.g., self-direction, a concern for prestige, abundant energy) are somewhat more likely to be effective (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 612).
 - When, and why, do good leaders become bad?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: What motivates you?
- Curriculum Support Materials: Motivations
- *People Weekly*, October 30th, 2000 "Dying to be thin".

Lesson 2.3.1: Teacher Information

What is motivation?

Motivation refers to factors that influence the initiation, direction, intensity and persistence of behaviour. The many sources of motivation fall into four categories: biological factors, emotional factors, cognitive factors and social factors (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 287).

When we want to emphasize the needs, desires, and mental calculations that lead to goal-directed behaviour, we use the word "drive" or "motivation" (Kasschau, 1995, p. 314).

Why is motivation important?

The two major sources of construals - the need to maintain a positive view of ourselves (the self-esteem approach) and the need to view the world accurately (the social cognition approach) - are the most important of our social motives, but they are certainly not the only motives influencing people's thoughts and behaviours. We humans are complex organisms, and there are a variety of motives that, under various conditions, influence what we think, feel and do. Biological drives such as hunger and thirst, of course, can be powerful motivators, especially when we are under extreme deprivation. At a more psychological level, we can be motivated by fear or by the promise of love, favours, and other rewards involving social exchange. Still another important motive is the need for control; research has shown that people need to feel that they exert some control over their environment (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 230).

Are motivations innate or learned?

Which of your motives is the most purely physiological or inherited? You might say hunger or thirst. Both are inherited, present at birth, and appear without any evidence of a need to practice how to respond to them. Physiological motives are inherited needs satisfied only by specific goals - food for hunger and water for thirst. Yet, we quickly develop "tastes" for certain foods and dislikes for others. So, what is the role of learning and the environment in our motives? In the middle of the continuum, then, we could list such motives as pain avoidance, sex, and the need for stimulation. Here, physiology clearly plays a role, yet learning is crucial to our effective response to such "mixed" motives. Finally motives such as achievement and social approval certainly are most subject to the ultimate effects of experience. For these learned or social motives, the satisfying goals are much more diverse (Kasschau, 1995, p. 325).

Why do some people persevere, and others give up?

Many human behaviours are reinforced on intermittent schedules that require the performance of long sequences of behaviours over long intervals of time. Intermittent reinforcement leads to perseverance, even when the behaviour is no longer being reinforced. A person's previous experience with various schedules of reinforcement probably affects how long and how hard the person will work between occasions of reinforcement. If all attempts at a particular task are reinforced (or if none are), the person is unlikely to pursue a long and difficult project (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 420).

What are the intrinsic and external motives that affect our thoughts and behaviours?

Psychologists talk about intrinsic and extrinsic motivation - whether things are done for fun or for rewards. Extrinsic motivation is supplied in the form of rewards that come from the external environment. Praise, a high grade, and money are extrinsic rewards. In contrast, behaviours engaged in for no apparent reward except the pleasure and satisfaction of the activity itself arise from intrinsic motivation (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 299).

Quips and Quotes

God gives us faces; we create our own expressions.

Life happens; joy is optional.

Guilt is concerned with the past. Worry is concerned about the future.
Contentment enjoys the present.

2.3.2 Emotions

This lesson addresses the concept of emotions and their relationship to thoughts, feelings and behaviour. In particular, this lesson considers the secondary emotion of anger and anger management.

Lesson Objectives

- What is an emotion?
- How is an emotion different than a feeling?
- Are emotions innate or learned?
- What are the social and cultural influences on emotional expression?
- What is anger, and how can it be controlled or managed?
- How can we manage our emotions?
- How can we minimize the effects of debilitating emotions?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Group Activity: Emotions
 - Brainstorm a list of emotions and arrange them on a continuum from purely physiological to purely learned.
- Drama: Emotions (same/different).
 - Select a small group of 4 - 6 students. Assign or ask for ideas for a setting. Each person is given an emotion to display throughout the particular scene. The emotions can all be different or the same. For classes experienced in drama, characters that students have created before can be incorporated into the scene. For example a doctor (anxious), construction worker (angry), secretary (happy), politician (paranoid) and airline pilot (bored) all meet in a dentist's reception area.
 - Rules: Introduce one character at a time until all characters are involved in the scene. Introduce new characters at random, or remove characters through a device such as a telephone ringing.
- Discussion: Anger management
 - Identify actions and attitudes that serve as "anger buttons" for yourself and others.
 - Identify physical signs of anger.
 - Generate list of techniques helpful in managing anger (see Teacher Information for a list of skills and processes).
 - Discuss the role of empathy as critical to anger management.
- Research: Emotions and gender
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating gender differences in emotional response. Are females more emotional than males? How do males and females respond emotionally to the same situation?

Making Connections

- Road Rage: Why do people explode?
- How are emotions demonstrated in music, art, poetry, literature or movies?
- Are there cultural differences in emotional expression?
- What are some types of emotional disorders?

Resources

- ELA B30 Sub-theme:
 - Joy and Inspiration, Doubt and Fear
- Website dedicated to the psychology of colour

Lesson 2.3.2: Teacher Information

What is an emotion?

An emotion is a temporary experience with negative or positive qualities that is felt with some intensity as happening to the self, is generated in part by a mental assessment of a situation, and is accompanied by both learned and innate physical responses (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 310).

Emotions are rather like colours: Some are simple, whereas others are blends. For example, jealousy can be viewed as a combination of several different emotions: distress, anger, disgust, contempt, fear and even shame. Robert Plutchik has described eight primary emotions (anger, disgust, sadness, surprise, fear, acceptance, joy, anticipation). He suggests that these primary emotions can combine to form other, mixed emotions such as optimism, love, submission, awe, disappointment, remorse, contempt, aggressiveness, etc. Another way emotions are like colours is in their intensity. It is as if there is a vertical slice so that emotions might range from pensiveness to sadness to grief, or distraction to surprise to amazement (Adler et al., 2001, p. 135).

How is an emotion different than a feeling?

Emotions, as opposed to feelings and sentiments, are:

- more momentary than prolonged
 - an intense state
 - characterized by behavioural disorganization
 - reflect survival strategies
 - non-habitual, reactive to certain situations
- (Cardwell, 1998, p. 85).

Are emotions innate or learned?

In humans, voice tones, bodily movements, and, mainly, facial movements and expressions are involved in communicating emotions. Some facial expressions do appear to be innate, and certain facial movements are universally associated with certain emotions. Other emotional expressions are learned, and even innate expressions are modified by learning and social contexts. As children grow, they learn an emotion culture, the rules of emotional expression appropriate to their culture. Accordingly, the same emotion may be communicated by different facial expressions in different cultures. Especially in ambiguous situations, other people's emotional expressions may serve as a guide about what to do or what not to do, a phenomenon called social referencing (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 322).

What are the social and cultural influences on emotional expression?

Whereas some basic emotional expressions are innate, many others are neither innate nor universal. For example, facial expressions become more intense and change more frequently while people are imagining social scenes as opposed to solitary scenes. Similarly, facial expressions in response to odors tend to become more intense when others are watching than when people are alone. Further, although a core of emotional responses is recognized by all cultures, there is a certain degree of cultural variation in recognizing some emotions. In one study, for example, Japanese and North American people agreed about which facial expressions signaled happiness, surprise, and sadness, but they frequently disagreed about which faces showed anger, disgust and fear. In addition, there are variations in the ways that cultures interpret emotions expressed by tone of voice. An example is provided by a study showing that Taiwanese participants were best at recognizing a sad tone of voice whereas Dutch participants were best at recognizing happy tones (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 320).

What is anger, and how can it be controlled or managed?

Anger is a feeling; a normal emotion caused by stress; a signal that something is wrong. It is a secondary emotion whose function is to protect the self and others. The "fight or flight" responses vary from individual to individual, are changeable, but the first step toward managing anger is recognizing its warning signs. Techniques for preventing anger and violence may include:

- understanding behaviour
 - the ABC's of behaviour (antecedent, behaviour, consequences)
 - developing an internal locus of control
 - developing positive belief systems
 - understanding basic needs (e.g., Maslow's hierarchy)
- dealing with feelings
- alternatives to aggression
- dealing with stress
- problem solving/decision making skills.

How can we manage our emotions?

Focusing on the self-talk that we use is key to understanding how to manage emotional response. Many debilitating feelings come from accepting a number of irrational thoughts - fallacies - which lead to illogical conclusions and, in turn to debilitating emotions.

1. The Fallacy of Perfection asserts that people should be able to handle every situation with complete confidence and skill. Subscribing to the myth of perfection not only can keep others from liking you, but also can act as a force to diminish your own self-esteem.
2. The Fallacy of Approval is the mistaken belief that it is not just desirable but vital to get the approval of virtually every person. In addition to the obvious discomfort that arises from denying your own principles and needs to gain acceptance and approval from others, the myth of approval is irrational because it implies that others will respect and like you more if you go out of your way to please them. Striving for universal acceptance is irrational because it is simply not possible.
3. The Fallacy of Shoulds is the inability to distinguish between what is and what should be. Becoming obsessed with shoulds has three troublesome consequences. First, it leads to unnecessary unhappiness, for people who are constantly dreaming about the ideal are seldom satisfied with what they have or who they are. A second drawback is that merely complaining without acting can keep you from doing anything to change unsatisfying conditions. A third problem with shoulds that you impose on others is that this sort of complaining can build a defensive climate with others, who will resent being nagged.
4. The Fallacy of Overgeneralization comprises two types. The first occurs when we base a belief on a limited amount of evidence and use overgeneralizations.
5. The Fallacy of Causation is based on the irrational belief that emotions are caused by others rather than by one's own self-talk. This fallacy causes trouble in two ways. The first plagues people who become overly cautious about relating because they don't want to "cause" any pain or inconvenience for others. The second is when we believe that others cause our emotions. It's our thinking, not the actions of others, that determines how we feel.
6. The Fallacy of Helplessness suggests that satisfaction in life is determined by forces beyond your control, that we are only helpless victims. Our emotions, thoughts and actions are either a matter of choice, or an area that calls for further action.

7. The Fallacy of Catastrophic Expectations operates on the assumption that if something bad can possibly happen, it will. Once we start expecting terrible consequences, a self-fulfilling prophecy can build (Adler et al., 2001, p. 154).

How can we minimize the effect of debilitating emotions?

- Monitor your emotional reactions, be aware and self-reflective about your emotional state.
- Note the activating event or series of events that has triggered your response.
- Record your self-talk and begin to analyze the thoughts that are the link between the activating event and the emotions and feelings. Putting your thoughts on paper will help you see whether they actually make any sense.
- Dispute your irrational beliefs by listing each belief and labeling it as either rational or irrational. Next, explain why the belief does or does not make sense. Finally, if the belief is irrational, write down an alternative response that will lead to better feelings as a response to the trigger (Adler et al., 2001, p. 161).

Quips and Quotes

Some people grumble because the roses have thorns instead of being grateful that the thorns have roses!

Anonymous

2.3.3 Attitudes

This lesson will describe the definition, formation, role and importance of attitudes in how we feel about the world.

Lesson Objectives

- What are attitudes?
- How do we form attitudes?
- Why do we have attitudes?
- How do attitudes change?
- How are attitudes related to values and beliefs?
- How can you resist peer pressure?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: What makes up our attitudes?
 - Using the template provided in the Curriculum Support Materials, brainstorm the behavioural, cognitive and affective components to our attitudes.
 - Using the Beliefs, Values and Attitudes template provided in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss how our basic beliefs about human beings form the basis for our values which in turn guide and direct our attitudes.
- Consensus Decision Making/Research: Attitudes
 - Given the list of attitudes found in the Curriculum Support Materials, rank the attitudes to establish the most important attitudes for success in life.
 - Using those same attitudes, find examples in song lyrics. Copy out the lyrics or bring in the music samples. Discuss how the attitudes are exemplified.
- Discussion: Attitudes
 - The only thing you can control in your life is your attitude (Anonymous).
 - Happiness is an inside job (Anonymous).
 - If you change your action, your attitude will change (Anonymous).
 - Nothing succeeds like persistence (Anonymous).
 - Warning: Carrying a grudge can be hazardous to your health (Anonymous).
 - Activity: Create a poster. Draw a grudge!
- Discussion: Attitude change
 - How do you change attitudes? What is the role and importance of persuasion?
- Role Play: Persuasion
 - Based on the various techniques of persuasion identified, role play situations that illustrate the various techniques.

Making Connections

- Canadian Values: What do Canadians value, and how do our values compare to those of other societies?
- Canadian values and the *Charter of Rights*:
 - Using the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms* as a guide, discuss how the Canadian values are represented and described in the *Charter*.
- Cigarette package warnings and attitude change: Do they really work? Based on the cognitive dissonance theory, how do scare tactics work best?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: What makes up our attitudes?
- Curriculum Support Materials: Beliefs, Values and Attitudes
- Curriculum Support Materials: Attitudes
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan
- Reader's Digest Poll of Canadian attitudes

Lesson 2.3.3: Teacher Information

What are attitudes?

Long lasting patterns of feelings and beliefs about other people, ideas, or objects that are based in people's experiences and shape their future behaviour. Attitudes are usually evaluative and have cognitive, emotional and behavioural dimensions, each of which serves a function. Attitudes are formed early in life through learning processes. Social psychologists can assess people's attitudes, but whether those attitudes predict behaviour depends on a number of variables, including attitude strength, vested interest, specificity of attitudes, and accessibility of attitudes (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 448).

An attitude implies an internal state which, given the occurrence of certain stimulus events, will ultimately result in some sort of response or behaviour. The definition also implies that an attitude is learned and that our actions are related to it. This latter characteristic is important because it gives us the basis for deciding whether or not a given attitude exists, that is, whether a label can be attached to an individual. It is important to note that attitudes are hypothetical constructs. You can never actually observe people's attitudes; you can only infer or guess the existence of an attitude from what people say or do (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 96).

How do we form attitudes?

There are three types of attitudes which we can develop:

- Cognitively based attitudes are based primarily about people's beliefs about the rewards and punishments they can provide, about the pluses and minuses of an object, the head over the heart.
- Affectively based attitudes are based more on people's feelings and values than on beliefs about the nature of the attitude object, the heart over the head. Affectively based attitudes come from a variety of sources: basic religious and moral beliefs, sensory reactions (e.g., chocolate), or conditioning through the linking of a stimulus and a response.
- Behaviourally based attitudes are based more on self-perception, how you feel about something is based on performance or activity (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 287).

Why do we have attitudes?

Attitudes are functional in the sense that they satisfy important needs:

- Utilitarian or instrumental function leading to greater rewards and fewer costs.
- Social function by gaining approval and acceptance from others.
- Knowledge function, enabling us to make sense of our world, to cope with everyday decisions, and to feel that we do understand.
- Ego-defensive function, protecting people from becoming aware of harsh, uncomfortable truths about themselves or their world
- Value-expressive function demonstrating our uniqueness and what is important to us (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 101).

How do attitudes change?

Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance suggests reasons for interactions between attitudes and behaviour. It proposes that discrepancies between attitudes and behaviour, between behaviour and self-image, or between one attitude and another lead to the unpleasant state of cognitive dissonance (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 497).

Cognitive dissonance is a state of psychological tension, the uncomfortable feeling people get when they become aware of inconsistencies in their thoughts. For example, in the case of "Smoking is dangerous" versus "I smoke", there are five possible outcomes:

1. Change behaviour: I'll quit smoking.
2. Modify dissonant cognition: It's only a statistical danger.
3. See cognition as irrelevant: It's not dangerous to me.
4. Bolster with consonance: Smoking keeps my weight down.
5. Downgrade importance: Dangerous? They'll come up with a cure (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 113).

Explicit attempts at changing attitudes often involve persuasion. We tend to be persuaded by arguments that have a credible source, such as an expert on a particular topic, or an attractive source, such as a handsome or beautiful model. Aspects of the message being delivered in a persuasive appeal are

also important. If you know little about an issue or hold a strong opinion about it, then you are likely to be persuaded by a one-sided appeal. However, if you are already well informed about the issue, then you are likely to find a two-sided appeal more persuasive. Scare tactics appear to work best when they include information that is instructive as well as emotional (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 496).

Bem's (1972) alternative to cognitive dissonance – self-perception theory - suggests that many of our attitudes are based on self-perception. When our motives are unclear, we look to the situation for the stimuli and probable reinforcers and punishers that cause us to act (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 499).

Our attitudes are influenced constantly by other people. Sometimes people persuade us to change our minds using reasoned argument; sometimes they use subtle manipulation; and sometimes outright coercion.

- Friendly persuasion is the drip, drip, drip of a repeated idea. Another effective technique for influencing people's attitudes is to have arguments presented by someone who is considered admirable, knowledgeable or beautiful. Persuaders may also try to link their message with a good feeling.
- Persuasion techniques become coercive when they suppress an individual's ability to reason, think critically, and make choices in his or her own best interests. Studies of religious, political, and other cults have identified some of the key processes of coercive persuasion:
 - The person is put under physical or emotional distress.
 - The person's problems are reduced to one simple explanation, which is repeatedly emphasized.
 - The leader offers unconditional love, acceptance and attention.
 - A new identity based on the group is created.
 - The person is subjected to entrapment.
 - The person's access to information is severely controlled (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 277).

In most cases, efforts at persuasion involve the following elements: Some source directs some type of message to some target audience. The most important research findings on persuasion include:

- Messages that do not appear to be designed to change our attitudes are often more successful in this respect than ones that seem intended to reach this goal. In other words, we generally

don't trust - and generally refuse to be influenced by - persons who deliberately set out to persuade us.

- Experts are more persuasive than non-experts.
- Attractive sources are more effective in changing attitudes than unattractive ones.
- People are sometimes more susceptible to persuasion when they are distracted by some extraneous event than when they are paying full attention to what is being said.
- When an audience holds views contrary to those of the would be persuader, it is often much more effective for the communicator to adopt a two-sided approach in which both sides of the argument are presented, rather than a one-sided approach.
- People who speak rapidly are often more persuasive than those who speak more slowly.
- Persuasion can be enhanced by messages that arouse strong emotions (especially fear) in the audience, particularly when the message provides specific recommendations about how a change in attitude or behaviour will prevent the negative consequences described in the fear-provoking message (Baron et al., 1998, p. 669).

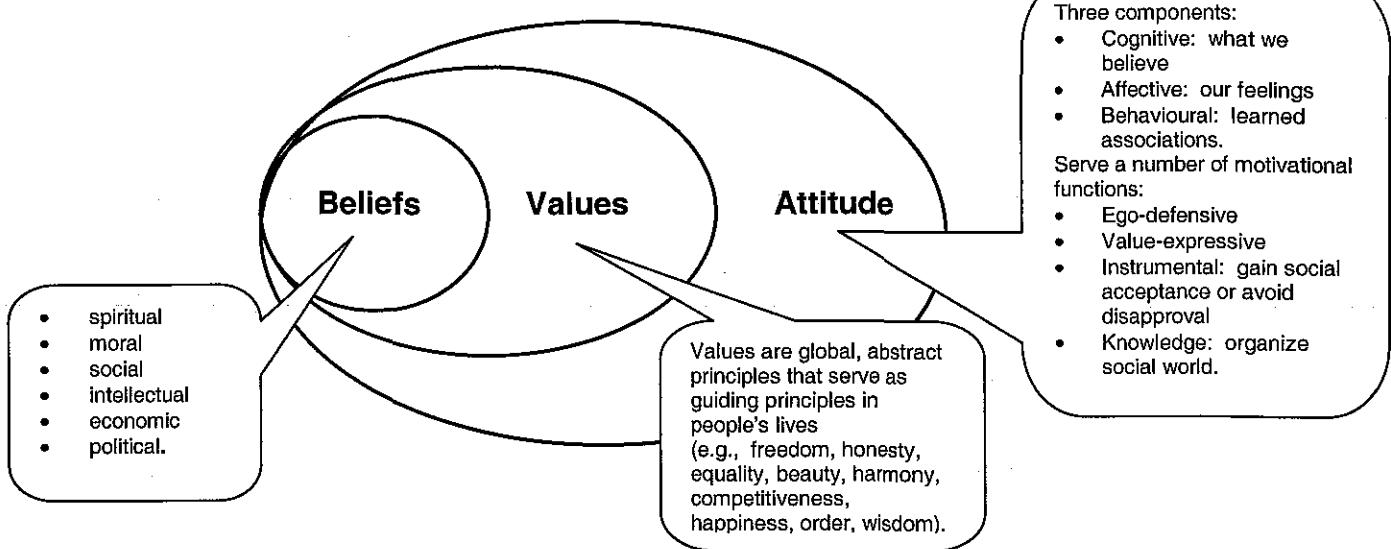
In the 1950s, Carl Hovland was one of the first social psychologists to identify key components of attitude change: the communicator, the communication, the medium and the audience.

- To be persuasive, the communicator - the person trying to effect attitude change - must project integrity, credibility and trustworthiness. If people don't respect, believe or trust the communicator, they are unlikely to change their attitudes. Researchers have also found that the perceived power, prestige, celebrity, prominence, modesty and attractiveness of the communicator are extremely important.
- A clear, convincing and logical argument is the most effective tool for changing attitudes - especially attitudes with emotional content. Communications that arouse fear are effective in motivating attitude change, especially when health issues are concerned and the communicator does not overdo the fear appeal. Researchers have also found that if people hear a persuasive message often enough, they begin to believe it, regardless of its validity.

- The medium - the way in which the communication is presented - influences people's receptiveness to attitude change.
- The audience; Openness to attitude change is in part age - and education-related. People are most susceptible to attitude change in their early

adult years. People of high intelligence are less likely to have their opinions changed, and people with high self-esteem tend to be similarly unyielding. However, when a friend tries to change a person's attitude - attitude change is far more likely (Leffon et al., 2000, p. 450).

How are attitudes related to values and beliefs?



How can you resist peer pressure?

- Realize that you are being manipulated. Others are deliberately trying to get you to change your mind.
- If you are the only holdout, you are more likely to give in. Try to get just one other person on your side, and you will feel much stronger about your position.
- People want their behaviour and attitudes to be in harmony. Consequently, even if they know of some negative effects of what they are doing, they probably won't own up to them, because to do so would cause cognitive dissonance. Thus, you should be aware that you are probably not getting the whole story from the group.
- For all age groups, peers are more persuasive than other people are. The more prestige particular peers have, the greater their influence. Use this tendency to your advantage by finding peers who have had a bad experience with whatever you are being urged to do and listen to what they have to say.
- Minority opinions can have an effect on the majority. One way to increase this effect is to

give consistent and repeated statements of your position. Often, this technique has a private effect on others - one that is not publicly expressed.

- If all the members of a group are on one side, doesn't that mean that they are more likely to be right than a single, lone individual? Actually, a group's decision-making is usually not as accurate as an individual's, particularly if the individual is well-informed and highly rational.
- When attempting to persuade someone, group members often try to make that person feel embarrassed for not going along. Embarrassing people is an age-old tool for making them conform. If you know that ahead of time, perhaps it will have less impact on you.
- One of the best ways to resist conformity is to be exposed to all the arguments in favour of some risky behaviour and then learn to refute these arguments, one by one (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 616).

Quips and Quotes

Every man gauges us by himself. A rogue believes all men are rascals; and moral weakness excuses mankind on the same ground. But a Parsival sees no rascality in any one, for the pure see all things purely.

Anonymous

2.3.4 Social perception

This lesson addresses the process by which someone infers other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational.

Lesson Objectives

- What is social perception?
- How are social perceptions formed and changed?
- What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?
- What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?
- Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: First impressions
 - First impressions can change, but the process is usually very slow. We like to maintain our existing beliefs about the world, often using our schema to preserve a reality that fits our expectations. Holding onto existing impressions appears to be part of this effort. Another reason first impressions appear to be so stable is that we often do things that cause others to confirm our impressions of them.
 - Reflect on those situations where your first impressions of someone have either proven to be correct or false.
- Discussion: Stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination
 - Using Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model as the schema, discuss with the students the various types of stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination that exist at all of the levels.
 - Read the literature selection, "On the Sidewalk, Bleeding." What impressions, biases, stereotypes, prejudices and discriminatory attitudes exist in the story?
- Discussion: Gender role stereotyping
 - Again, using Bronfenbrenner's model, discuss with the students the stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination that Canadian society demonstrates in terms of gender roles, responsibilities and rights.
- Reflection: Making attributions
 - Based on the list of people provided, ask the students to write a description of those people, including their attributes or qualities. The list might include: doctor, lawyer, construction worker, soldier, police officer, teacher, mechanic, farmer, computer scientist, nurse, politician or professional athlete.
 - In discussing the list, highlight the stereotypes that exist including status, gender, culture, intelligence and work ethic.
- Reflection: How might the self-serving prophecy apply to you?

Making Connections

- Research: Prominent social rights activists such as Rosa Parks, Martin Luther King, Ghandi and Nelson Mandela
- See Prejudice, Topic 3.2.4 for discussions of stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination.

Resources

- Literature: "On the Sidewalk Bleeding" by Evan Hunter

Lesson 2.3.4: Teacher Information

What is social perception?

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

How are social perceptions formed and changed?

Research has shown that people form impressions of each other in two ways. Sometimes people make quick and effortless judgements based on others' physical appearance, facial expressions, or body language. Studies have shown, for example, that people who are physically attractive are perceived to be happy, warm, friendly, successful, confident, and well-adjusted. At other times, however, people form impressions based on a careful observation of a person's behaviour. According to this latter view, people act like amateur scientists, gathering and analyzing behavioural evidence before evaluating others. The explanations for behaviour that people come up with are called attributions, and the theory that describes the process is called *attribution theory* (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 192).

What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?

Over the years, research into attribution has shown that when we explain the behaviour of others, we tend to overestimate the role of personal factors and underestimate the influence of situations. This bias is so universal that it has been called the *fundamental attribution error*. In one demonstration of the fundamental attribution error, experimenters randomly assigned subjects to participate in a quiz show in the role of either questioner or contestant. Then in front of the contestant and an observer, the experimenters told the questioner to devise a set of difficult questions to ask the contestant. Not surprisingly, many of the questions—created from the questioner's own store of esoteric knowledge—stumped the contestant. Yet when asked to rate the general knowledge of both participants, observers consistently saw the questioners as more knowledgeable than the contestants. The observers failed to take the situational roles into account and

attributed the behaviour they witnessed to each person's level of knowledge.

In forming impressions of others, people are subject to other biases as well. For example, a great deal of research shows that people are often slow to revise their first impressions of others even when those views are not supported by the evidence. Part of the problem is that once we form an impression of someone, we tend to interpret that person's later behaviour in ways that seem to fit our impression. Another problem is that our first impression of someone may shape the way we treat that person—which, in turn, may influence his or her actual behaviour. This process is known as a *self-fulfilling prophecy*. In a classic illustration of this phenomenon, in 1968 American psychologists Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson told a group of elementary school teachers that certain students were on the verge of an intellectual growth spurt (in fact, these students were randomly chosen from their classes). By the end of the school year, these designated students—who had received more positive attention from the teachers—actually had higher average test scores than their peers (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 197).

What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?

Prejudice is a negative evaluation (attitude) of an entire group of people that is typically based on unfavourable (and often incorrect) ideas or stereotypes about the group. It is usually based on a small sample of experience with an individual from the group being evaluated, or even on no direct experience. Stereotypes are fixed, overly simple, often incorrect, and often negative ideas about traits, attitudes and behaviours attributed to groups of people. When prejudice is translated into behaviour, it is called discrimination (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 464).

Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve?

- Rosa Parks
- Rev. Martin Luther King Jr.
- Mahatma Gandhi
- Mother Theresa
- Nelson Mandela

Quips and Quotes

You cannot think your way into right actions. You have to act your way into right thinking.

Anonymous

2.4 Mental Aspects: What affects how we think about the world?

This overview lesson describes the four cognitive aspects of our Being: thinking, learning, memory and intelligence.

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean to think?
- What is the mind?
- What are the socio-cultural influences on our thoughts and behaviours?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: What affects how we think about the world?
 - The role of the media and technology:
 - In what ways do the media portray people and situations, and what influences does the media have on our social cognition, particularly as we are entering the “global village”?
 - Propaganda: What can happen when manipulation goes to the extreme?
 - Rituals and superstition: How do rituals and superstitions relate to learning? What kind of learning is this?
 - Discussion: The Ecological Model.
 - Based on the Ecological model, discuss how the various levels of support influence our thoughts and behaviours about the world.
 - How is social cognition influenced by your family, peers, cultural background?
 - How is learning, and schooling, influenced by family expectations, peer group influences, educational systems and political environment (e.g., Nazism and communism and their control of education)?
 - Research: Multiple intelligences
 - Conduct research into the theory of multiple intelligences.
 - What “intelligences” are necessary to be successful in our contemporary Canadian society? How have these changed in the last century? With the increasing technologization of our world, what intelligences will be required in the future?
 - Research: Cognitive aspects of human behaviour
 - Assign one of the four cognitive aspects of human behaviour (thinking, learning, memory, intelligences) to each small group of students. Direct the students to conduct a research study investigating their assigned topic.

Making Connections

- What is hypnosis? How are people hypnotized?
- Artificial intelligence: Can machines think?
 - The Turing Test is a test of artificial intelligence devised by Alan Turing. Simply put, if you cannot tell if the responses offered to questions are made by a human or a machine, and if it is a machine that is answering, then that machine is intelligent. Discuss how this test defines intelligence? Is it complete?
 - List the benefits and drawbacks of artificially intelligent machines.

Resources

- *Interactions*: What affects how we think about the world?
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model.

Lesson 2.4: Teacher Information

What does it mean to think?

The five core functions of thought are to describe, elaborate, decide, plan, and guide action. Thinking is defined as the manipulation of mental representations by a process that receives, represents, transforms, and acts on incoming stimuli. Mental representations take the following forms:

- cognitive maps (mental representations of familiar parts of one's world)
- images
- concept schema (categories of objects, events, or ideas with common properties)
- scripts (schema about familiar sequences of events or activities) (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 221).

What is the mind?

According to Freudian psychoanalysis, the mind is comprised of the id, the ego and the superego.

“Mind, in essence, is all the things the brain does,” according to neurologist Richard Restak. Most but not all neuroscientists now share this view. On the other hand, neurobiologist David Hubel says that the word mind is so “fuzzy at the edges” that it falls outside the realm of science. That is, “mind” suggests something too elusive and ethereal to be pinned down, and some issues, including the mind-brain question, are really philosophical rather than scientific (Guinness, 1989, p. 46).

What are the socio-cultural influences on our thoughts and behaviours?

Based on the Ecological Model, discuss how the various levels of support influence our thoughts and behaviours about the world.

- How is social cognition influenced by your family, peers, cultural background?
- How is learning and schooling influenced by family expectations, peer group influences, educational systems and the political environment (e.g., Nazism and communism and their control of education)?
- What “intelligences” are necessary to be successful in our contemporary Canadian society? How have these changed in the last century? With the increasing technologization of our world, what intelligences will be required in the future?

Quips and Quotes

It is a great and noble thing to cover the blemishes and excuse the failings of a friend; to draw a curtain before his stains, and to display his perfection; to bury his weaknesses in silence, but to proclaim his virtues on the house-top.

Robert South

2.4.1 Social Cognition

This lesson addresses the ways and means that we make sense of the behaviour of other people, the judgements and schema formed to help people interpret social behaviour.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?
- What processes do we use to make sense of other people?
- What factors affect our judgement?
- What role does culture play in how we come to make sense of others?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Media Study: Analysis and interpretation
 - Given a series of images, ask students to describe what processes are involved in forming understandings about the people and the situations. See Teacher information for list of judgemental heuristics.
- Group Activity: Mental schema
 - Given a series of images of people, places and objects, develop a schema for each to illustrate that schema are social constructions using the processes of anchoring and objectification (see Teacher Information for details).
- Role play: Social cognition
 - Invite small groups of students to create a mime illustrating various judgement forming situations (e.g., romantic, intimidation, arrogance, argumentative, stubbornness, danger, fear, worry, cooperative, competitive, power, intimate, friendship).
 - The other students should be able to guess what the situation is through the actions and body language of the actors.
- Group activity: Mental schema
 - Given a visual of a small aspect of a country or city (e.g., countryside, factories, highways, city or slums), ask students to write a paragraph about what they think that country or city is like.
- Activity: Social cognition
 - Tape a rectangle on the floor to represent an elevator. Clearly mark the elevator entrance. Invite a student to enter the elevator and go the second floor. Invite other students to enter the elevator and move to the fifth floor. Observe their behaviours. Coach one student to face the back of the elevator.
 - Discuss the mental scripts that the students followed. How did the students learn those social behaviours? What are social norms? How did the students react to the student who faced the back of the elevator? Why? What other social norms do we have for behaviour?

Making Connections

- See Topic 3.2.4, Prejudice, for more information concerning stereotypes.
- Canada's homeless:
 - What are the issues and statistics about Canada's homeless population?
 - What are our judgements about the homeless?

Resources

- Media: Images of people and situations
- Magazines, newspapers featuring pictures of countries or cities.
- Statistics Canada

Lesson 2.4.1: Teacher Information

How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?

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

- People have a limited capacity to process information about the social world and will take cognitive shortcuts (such as stereotyping) in order to minimize the load.
- We develop schema that represent our knowledge about ourselves, others, and our roles within the social world. These schema, once formed, bias our judgements about ourselves and others.
- Schema become more complex and organized over time, and also harder to change (Cardwell, 1996, p. 218).

What processes do we use to make sense of other people?

Often, to save time, people use mental short cuts to make sense of the world, developing rules of thumb. Some of these rules of thumb include:

- representativeness, (individuals or events that appear to be representative of other members of a group are quickly classified as such),
- availability (ease of association with existing knowledge),
- false consensus effect (people tend to believe that others agree with them), and
- framing (the way in which information is organized and presented helps determine whether it is will be accepted, rejected or ignored) (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 458).

What factors affect our judgement?

In addition to schema, people use judgemental heuristics to help us deal with the large amount of social information with which we are faced.

Heuristics are rules of thumb people follow in order to make judgements quickly and efficiently. The availability heuristic refers to the ease with which we can think of something, which has a strong effect on how we view the world. The representative heuristic helps us decide how similar one thing is to another; we use it to classify people or situations on the basis

of their similarity to a typical case. When using this heuristic we have a tendency to ignore base rate information - that is, the prior probability that someone or something belongs in that classification. People also rely on the anchoring/adjustment heuristic, wherein an initial piece of information acts as an anchor, or starting point, for subsequent thoughts on the subject (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 136).

What role does culture play in how we come to make sense of others?

Collectivist societies, which include most traditional pre-industrial societies and, to a large extent, the predominantly Catholic countries of Southern Europe and Latin America, as well as most Asian and African cultures, are characterized by an emphasis on family and community-based relations and values. The members of one's primary "in-group" - that is, one's kin, one's immediate neighbourhood community, and in the case of modern industrial societies, one's work group - are the primary sources of demands and rewards, and the primary arbiters of what is desirable, what is permissible and what is unthinkable. In short, in collectivist societies it is in-group norms and role relations that provide both the motivating force that drives the individual and the compass from which the person takes direction.

Individualistic cultures, which, not coincidentally, predominate in the nations of Western Europe that gave rise to the Protestant Reformation, as well as North America, show opposite orientations. They are characterized by an emphasis on personal goals, interests, and preferences. Social relationships are dictated by commonality of interests and aspirations and are therefore subject to change as those interests and aspirations shift over time. In such societies the individual's choices, whether of dress, diet, friends, occupation, or spouse, are relatively free of the dictates of family, neighbours or others to whom one might be linked in traditional role relations (Nisbett and Ross, 1991, p. 181).

Quips and Quotes

Listen to learn. Learn to listen.

Anonymous

2.4.2 Learning

This lesson considers learning, the adaptive process in a particular behaviour is changed by experience. Learning cannot be observed directly; it can only be inferred from changes in behaviour.

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean to learn?
- How do people learn?
- What are the biological bases for learning?
- Are there gender differences in learning?
- How can you improve your ability to learn?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Learning styles/preferences
 - Do your students have a preferred learning modality (e.g., visual, auditory, kinesthetic)?
 - Review how students study. What is their learning environment like?
 - How could you improve your learning based on your preferred modality?
- Discussion: A day in the life
 - Discuss, or describe, all of the ways in which we learn in a typical day.
 - Emphasize the sources of that learning, the types of learning (e.g., social, academic, practical) and the modalities through which that information is communicated.
 - Connect to the basic learning theories (e.g., behavioural, social, cognitive, ethological, ecological) and emphasize the point that no one theory alone can account for all of the ways in which we learn.
- Drama: The world's greatest expert
 - Students will write, or improvise, a short presentation in which they are the world's recognized expert on the topic of _____.
- Research: Theoretical perspectives and learning
 - Divide the class into six groups. Assign one of the theoretical perspectives to each group. Invite each group to find examples of how people learn based on their theoretical perspective.
- Application: The best way to learn something is to teach it.
 - Have the students become an "expert" on a topic of their choosing, then using any medium of their choosing, present on their topic.

Making Connections

- Discuss how students can improve their study habits and skills.
- Rituals and superstition:
 - How do rituals and superstitions relate to learning? What kind of learning is this?
- Education and career development:
 - What educational qualifications do you need to pursue your career?
- In what ways might Ernst Mayr's (1974) theory of open and closed genetic programs for learning (adaptation) be used as a possible explanation for the disappearance of the dinosaurs?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Behaviour

Lesson 2.4.2: Teacher Information

What does it mean, to learn?

Learning is an adaptive process in which the tendency to perform a particular behaviour is changed by experience. Learning cannot be observed directly; it can only be inferred from changes in behaviour. Learning takes place within the nervous system. Experience alters the structure and chemistry of the brain, and these changes affect the individual's subsequent behaviour (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 131).

How do people learn?

For centuries, education in Western cultures was guided by the principle of formal discipline. According to this principle, the mind has certain elemental abilities that improve through practice, and struggling with difficult concepts enhances mental abilities. Edward Thorndike (1914) was among the first to challenge the value of formal discipline. Thorndike saw education as a "transfer of training" problem. He claimed that what is learned in the classroom is valuable only to the degree that it can be transferred to, and used in, the student's life, termed the identical elements approach. Educational psychologists are still debating the degree to which school curricula should be based on formal or identical elements (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 176).

What are the biological bases for learning?

Ernst Mayr (1974), an American biologist, argues that the type of genetic program, the specific set of genetic instructions an organism inherits at birth, determines the extent to which an organism's behaviour may be changed by environmental factors, or how much it may be capable of learning. Across species, the capacity to learn varies across a continuum. At one end are species having closed genetic programs and at the other end are species having open genetic programs. Species having closed genetic programs such as insects and some amphibians and reptiles, generally have short life spans, mature quickly, and receive little or no care from their parents. At birth, these animals are genetically predisposed to respond in certain ways to particular situations. Species having open genetic programs, which include many mammals and birds, generally have longer life spans and extended periods of immaturity and parental care. Learning is the means by which organisms having open genetic programs adapt to their environments (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 150).

Are there gender differences in learning?

Educators are recognizing that women students work better in groups, in cooperative efforts that stimulate connections among their ideas and emphasizes critical thinking which focuses on integrating ideas rather than memorizing information. As boys and girls, children are taught different behaviours on the playground and in the home, and these behaviours affect the way they learn at least according to some experts. In general, psychologists argue that boys are more independent and aggressive than girls, and that girls are more cooperative than boys. In general, boys are taught to win, whereas girls are encouraged to enjoy the game and the process of playing and to maintain their relationships with their playmates (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 182).

How can you improve your ability to learn?

McKeachie, Pintrich, and Lin (1985) have argued that there are general cognitive techniques that span topics, which students can use to learn better. Among them are:

- Elaboration: translating concepts into one's own language and actively trying to relate new ideas to old ones.
- Attention: focusing one's concentrative abilities and staying on task.
- Organization: developing skills that allow one to perform the tasks of learning and concept formation in an orderly manner.
- Scheduling: developing routine times for studying.
- Managing anxiety: learning to focus anxiety on getting a task done, rather than becoming paralyzed with fear.
- Expecting success: developing an expectation of success rather than failure.
- Note taking: acquiring the skills necessary to take notes will be a worthwhile learning tool.
- Learning in groups: developing good cooperative learning styles that make the most of interactions with other students (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 184).

Quips and Quotes

Memory, the warden of the brain.

William Shakespeare

2.4.3 Memory

Much of our social behaviour is based on memory, the schema we have created and continually refine based on new experiences. This lesson considers the role, nature and importance of memory in social behaviour.

Lesson Objectives

- What role and function does memory serve?
- How is experience stored and retrieved in the brain?
- How can memory be improved?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: I remember when
 - Ask the students to write down humorous, or memorable experiences, and then share in the whole class setting.
- Research: Childhood memories
 - Interview family members about what they remember from their childhood. What are the funniest, scariest, most ridiculous or surprising incidents that they can remember?
 - What is your, or your parent's, earliest memory?
- Research: Improving your memory
 - Select one of the different methods to improve memory. Design and conduct an experiment to determine if it is effective in improving memory.
- Research: Memory
 - Present 10 items arranged on a tray. Allow the students to view the items for 30 seconds. Ask the students to list the items.
 - How many items could the students remember? What criteria did the students use (shape, colour, arrangement, usage, etc.)? Is there any relationship between how the students memorized the items and their preferred learning style?
- Role play: Reliability of eyewitness testimony
 - Create a situation where someone unexpectedly bursts into the room and reports a fictitious event containing details such as events, people, time and location then leaves the room.
 - Ask the students to write down everything they heard and saw.
 - Collect the papers; randomly select several, and read them out loud.
 - Compare and contrast the reports. Why are there discrepancies? What implications might this have for eyewitness testimony in actual cases? How might the passage of time affect the recall and the validity of the testimony?

Making Connections

- Repressed memories: Is there really such a thing?
- Study skills: Applying memory improvement techniques to enhance learning.
- What is amnesia? How is amnesia caused? How is it treated?
- Alzheimer's Disease: What is it, and what are the latest research findings on the treatment and control of Alzheimer's?

Resources

- [Website of the Alzheimer's Disease Education and Referral Centre](#)

Lesson 2.4.3: Teacher Information

What role and function does memory serve?

Current research suggests that memories are encoded as they are stored, in forms dictated by people's assumptions, attention, and schema. Remembering is an active or "constructive" process in which these assumptions and schema influence the memory that is retrieved. A memory of a person will include both memories of specific things that the person has said or done, and more abstract memories of "what the person is like" such as personality traits, physical characteristics and dispositions. Our memory of past events can be influenced by our expectation or "theory" about what should have happened (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 225).

How is experience stored and retrieved in the brain?

We develop schema that represent our knowledge about ourselves, others, and our roles within the social world. These schema, once formed, bias our judgements about ourselves and others. Schema become more complex and organized over time, and also harder to change (Cardwell, 1998, p. 204).

How can memory be improved?

- Remembering lists of items:
 - use mnemonics
 - look for meaningful acronyms
 - try the method of loci (associating items to be remembered with familiar places such as your home).
- Remembering textbook material:
 - follow the SQ3R system (survey, question, read, recite, review),
 - allocate your time to allow for distributed practice,
 - read actively not passively.
- Taking lecture notes:
 - Take notes, but record all the main points, think about the overall organization of the material, review your notes as soon after the lecture as possible to fill in the missing points.
- Studying for exams:
 - Write a detailed outline of your lecture notes, rather than passively reading them (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 213).

Quips and Quotes

Knowing others is intelligence.
Knowing yourself is wisdom.

Tao Te Ching, Verse 33

2.4.4 Intelligence

This lesson explores the theory that there are several types of intelligence other than thinking ability or problem solving ability.

Lesson Objectives

- What is intelligence?
- What are the different types of intelligence?
- To what extent is intelligence culturally or biologically based?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Multiple intelligences
 - Using either Gardner's model, or Sternberg's model found in the Teacher Information section, discuss with the students the concept of multiple intelligences, then identify people (including themselves) that have more pronounced intelligences than others.
 - What intelligences would be required for: pilot, scientist, single parent, construction worker, professional athlete, musician, landscape artist, farmer, architect, university student, police officer, politician or lawyer?
- Research: Multiple intelligences
 - Design and conduct a research study that investigates Sternberg's triarchic model of analytic, practical and creative intelligences.
 - For each aspect, design a series of tests that will allow the researchers to determine whether the participants have one dominant intelligence.
 - Are there gender differences in the results? In other words, do females/males exhibit one predominant type of intelligence?
 - Is age a factor in the type of intelligence demonstrated?
- Discussion: Emotional intelligence
 - Discuss Daniel Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence. Is how you feel more or less important than what you think or what you do?
 - In what instances might emotional intelligence be more important, beneficial or valuable than cognitive intelligence?

Making Connections

- Multiple intelligences and career choices: What are the implications for choosing a career path that fits your preferential intelligence(s)?
- Emotional Intelligence and Gender: Are females more emotionally intelligent than males?
- Intelligence and early intervention: If intelligence can be improved by an enriched environment, what implications might this have for social policy?
- Artificial Intelligence: What is it? What are some possible benefits and drawbacks of artificially intelligent machines?

Resources

- Movie: Space Odyssey 2001
- Website for multiple intelligences

Lesson 2.4.4: Teacher Information

What is intelligence?

Intelligence is the overall capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with the environment (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 264).

What are the different types of intelligence?

Cases of remarkable ability in specific areas are part of the evidence that led Howard Gardner to propose his theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983). Gardner focused on how people learn and use symbol systems like language, mathematics and music. According to Gardner, all people possess a number of intellectual potentials, or "intelligences," each of which involves a different set of skills. The specific intelligences that Gardner proposes are (1) linguistic intelligence (proficient vocabulary and reading comprehension); (2) logical-mathematical intelligence (skill at arithmetic and certain kinds of reasoning); (3) spatial intelligence (reflected in understanding of relationships between objects); (4) musical intelligence (reflected in abilities involving rhythm, tempo and sound); (5) body-kinesthetic intelligence (reflected in skill at dancing, athletics and eye-hand coordination); and (6) personal intelligence (reflected in self-awareness and social skills) (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 257).

To what extent is intelligence culturally or biologically based?

The concept of intelligence is determined by culture. Most Western societies include academic skills such as verbal ability and formal reasoning in their definitions of intelligence and regard non-academic abilities as talents. People in pre-industrial societies are less likely to approach a logical problem abstractly. Instead, they tend to base their conclusions on what they know to be true – and not on the hypothetical situations proposed by the person questioning them (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 352).

Environmental influences on intelligence show up in studies that compare children's IQ scores before and after environmental changes such as adoption. Children from relatively impoverished backgrounds who were adopted into homes with more enriching intellectual environments - environments with interesting materials and experiences, as well as a supportive and responsive adult - show modest increases in their IQ scores (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 267).

Quips and Quotes

I am not a human being having a spiritual experience; I am a spiritual being having a human experience.

Anonymous

2.5 Spiritual Aspects

This overview lesson describes the spiritual aspects of our Being: Worldview, values and our moral and ethical perspectives.

Lesson Objectives

- What is spirituality?
- What is the soul?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Spiritual perspectives
 - Interview people such as a local pastor, priest, minister, Elder or representative of a faith community. What are their spiritual perspectives? What are their perspectives on the soul? In what ways does their spirituality guide, inform and direct their lives?
- Discussion: Spirituality and the Ecological Model
 - How is our spirituality influenced by the various levels of the Ecological Model?
 - Are any of the levels more or less influential than the others?
 - What is the most influential source of spirituality in your life?
- Research: Religious beliefs
 - Design and conduct a research project that surveys people's attitudes and beliefs towards such topics as God, Heaven, Hell and Church attendance.
- Discussion: How is spirituality reflected or described in our lives?
 - Visual Art: Works by Da Vinci, Michaelangelo
 - Music: Contemporary music, Christian Rock
 - Drama: Les Miserables
 - Poetry: "On his blindness" by John Milton, "Dover Beach" by Matthew Arnold; "Prospice" by Robert Browning
 - Literature: "Life is Sweet at Kumansenu" by Abioseh Nicol
 - Architecture: Cathedrals (e.g., Notre Dame, Loudres, York, Canterbury)
 - Sculpture: Michaelangelo's David
- Research: Religious leaders
 - Assign one of the major religious figures in history to each small group of students; have each group conduct a case study research project.
- Discussion: Questions of life
 - Why am I here?
 - What is the meaning of life?
 - Where am I heading?
 - What do I believe in?

Making Connections

- Construction: The Tipi
 - See *Interactions*, Unit One, Introduction to social psychology, "The Tipi"
- Website for North American spirituality
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- *Interactions*, Unit One, Introduction to social psychology, "The Tipi"
- Taking The Pulse of Saskatchewan

Resources

Lesson 2.5: Teacher Information

What is spirituality?

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

It's the whole world to an Aboriginal person. Spirituality is central to our way of Being. In our tradition, we celebrate life, give thanks every day. I remember a story when I was in Navajo country in the United States, and a small cactus was pointed out to me. I was reminded that this small plant was absolutely critical to my survival, because if I had nothing else, that the milk of this cactus would provide enough nutrition to survive in the desert. That's what I mean about giving thanks, and appreciating the gifts of Creation (Asikinak, 2001).

2.5.1 Worldview

Quips and Quotes

Respect for human life, and tenderness towards every form of human suffering is one of the most marked features of the best culture.

Anonymous

A worldview is a fundamental belief about how you treat and value yourself, as well as how you treat and value the environment, the natural world, and the people who live on this planet. This lesson considers the role and importance of a worldview in our lives.

Lesson Objectives

- What is a worldview?
- How does a worldview influence our behaviour?
- What is your worldview?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Worldview: Our relationship to nature
 - Worldview and the environment: Are we owners or stewards?
 - Worldview and the social construction of human rights
 - What would be your *Charter of Human Rights and Freedoms*?
 - Describe your *Charter of Children's Rights and Freedoms*
 - Research the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*
 - What are the basic human values inherent in the *Charter*?
 - What worldview is described in the *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*?
- Construction: Visual metaphor
 - Create your own visual metaphor that illustrates and describes your worldview.
- Discussion: The Ecological Model and Worldview
 - Our worldview is influenced by all aspects of the systems of support. Discuss with your students how each of these aspects has both a direct and indirect influence on their beliefs and value systems. See Teacher Information for conceptual model incorporating Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Model.
- Reflection: Sociocultural influences and worldview
 - In what ways have the various levels of support influenced your life? Reflect on the varying influences that the micro-, exo- and macro-systems have had on your worldview.
- Media Study: Worldviews
 - Compare and contrast the views of the world between Louis Armstrong's "What A Wonderful World" and Buddy Guy's "It's A Jungle Out There".
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Do not overestimate the decency of the human race (H.L. Mencken).
 - Keep your eyes on the stars, and your feet on the ground (Theodore Roosevelt).
 - You must grow like a tree, not like a mushroom (Janet Erskine Stuart).
 - Do not speak harshly to any one; those who are spoken to will answer thee in the same way. Angry speech is painful: blows for blows will touch thee (Buddha, The Dhammapada (c. B.C. 300)).
 - Win any way as long as you can get away with it. Nice guys finish last (Leo Durocher).

Resources

- *Interactions: Worldview: Our relationship to nature*
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- *Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms*
- [Website for lyrics](#)

Lesson 2.5.1: Teacher Information

What is a worldview?

The Aboriginal worldview accepts that survival depends on cooperation and coexistence with the forces of nature rather than expecting to manipulate and control them. Social relations are also dependent on harmony and coexistence with strict social codes and mores to dictate relationships. People see themselves as part of the social order, with deep respect for the environment, because of their dependence on the land and its resources. The affinity with the land is referred to as "mother" (Hewitt, 2000, p. 112).

Worldview is a description of reality providing "natural and believable" knowledge which is generally accepted by the members of a cultural group, because it meets their needs, creates order and coherence, and provides a basis for predictions. A worldview acts as a template providing people with a set of beliefs about dealing with the reality in which they find themselves:

- spiritual beliefs defining the meaning and purpose of existence
- moral beliefs about people's rights and obligations
- social beliefs about the organization of individuals into a society
- intellectual beliefs about determining truth and beauty
- economic beliefs about creating and distributing wealth
- political beliefs about making and enforcing decisions within society.

How does a worldview influence our behaviour?

The worldview of a group of people underlies every aspect of their life - their language, social system, religious beliefs, even the way they go about their daily life. Worldview can be defined as a set of concepts that relate individuals within any culture to the natural universe and to other humans who comprise their social reality (Hewitt, 2000, p. 111).

Quips and Quotes

Open your arms to change, but don't let go of your values.

Anonymous

2.5.2 Values

This lesson, discusses the role and function of values, particularly in reference to our belief systems and attitudes.

Lesson Objectives

- What are values?
- How are beliefs and values related?
- What are your values?
- What is your credo?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Based on the seven basic belief systems as described by the Social Studies 20 curriculum guide (see 2.5.1 Worldview, Teacher Information), list the values that you feel reflect the beliefs listed below:
 - spiritual beliefs defining the meaning and purpose of existence
 - moral beliefs about people's rights and obligations
 - social beliefs about the organization of individuals into a society
 - intellectual beliefs about determining truth and beauty
 - economic beliefs about creating and distributing wealth
 - political beliefs about making and enforcing decisions within society.
 - Are there any "universal values" that speak to all belief systems?
 - The social construction of human rights: Review the information listed in the Glossary of Terms, and describe how a society's basic beliefs and values are translated into aspects of that society such as health, education, law and justice.
- Research: Values
 - Design and conduct a research project that survey's people's attitudes towards basic human values. What is the most important human value? What values do you think are most important in a friend, a spouse and a leader?
- Think/Pair/Share: Human values
 - Based on the Curriculum Support Materials provided, duplicate one copy for each student and have the students complete them individually.
 - Then in pairs, have the students share and discuss their ranking of the values.
 - After pair discussion, combine pairs to make groups of four, and ask the students to arrive at a group ranking of the values.
 - In the final stage of the discussion, have students report, and average, the values ranked by each of the groups.
 - Is there a general consensus? Can you arrive at a collective agreement regarding the ranking of those values? Are there gender differences?

Making Connections

- *Interactions:* Comparing national values (Hofstede, 1983)
 - A study of values by a Dutch psychologist (Hofstede, 1983) identified four underlying value dimensions on which inhabitants of various nations could be compared: power distance, avoidance of uncertainty, individualism and masculinity-femininity.

Resources

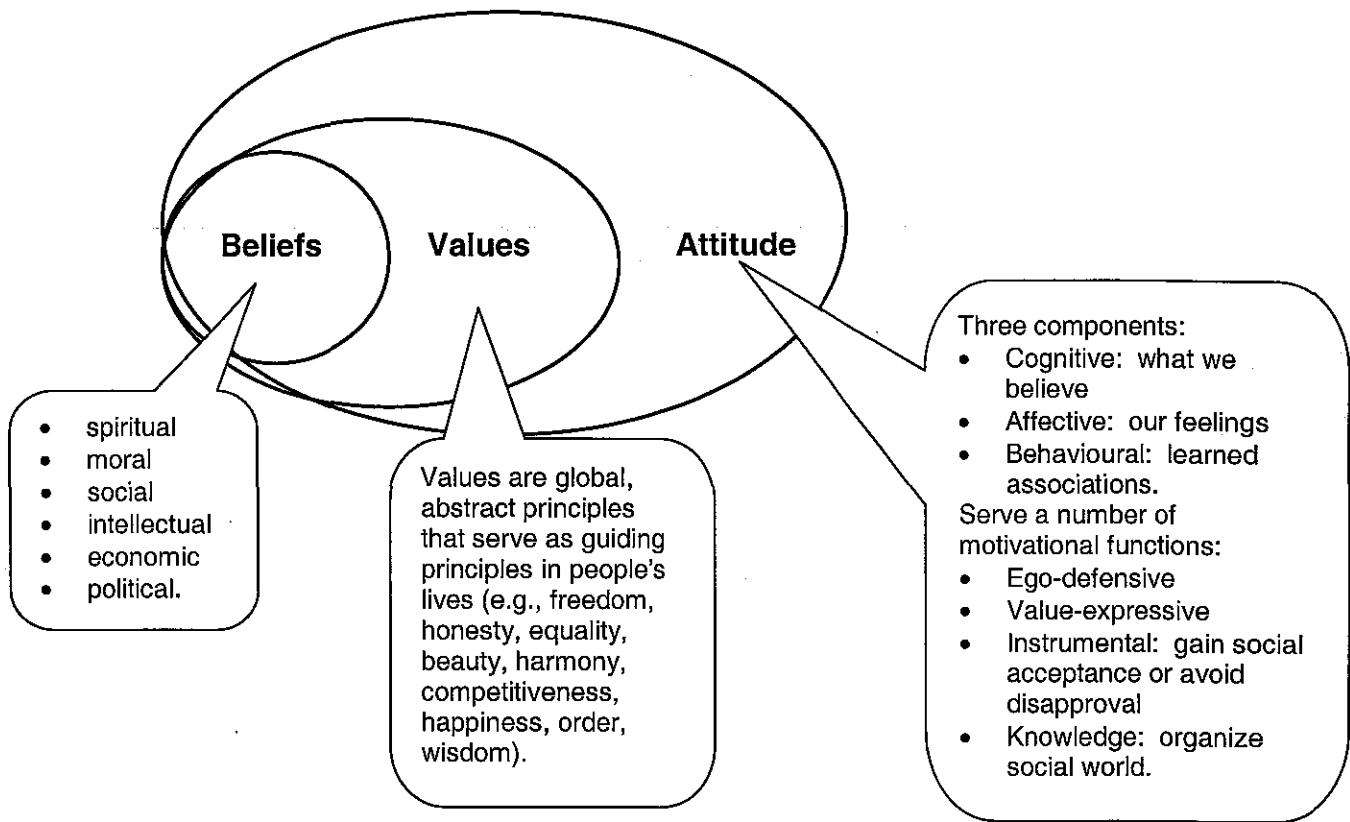
- Curriculum Support Materials: Human Values
- *Interactions:* Comparing National Values (Hofstede, 1983)
- Taking The Pulse of Saskatchewan

Lesson 2.5.2: Teacher Information

What are values?

Values are global, abstract principles that serve as guiding principles in people's lives (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 88).

How are beliefs, values and attitudes related?



What is your credo?

A credo is a statement of personal beliefs and values. Based on the aspects of belief systems, as described in the definition of worldview, reflect upon and describe your credo. This statement does not necessarily have to be in written form. It should be in a medium appropriate both to the author as well as to the message and meaning. Sculpture, visual metaphors, art, poetry, are all mediums of expression available to define a credo.

Quips and Quotes

Follow the 3 R's:

- Respect for self
- Respect for others
- Responsibility for all your actions.

Anonymous

2.5.3 What does it mean to act in a moral and ethical way?

In our daily lives, we must make choices that involve questions of honesty, the treatment of other people and acting responsibly. These are moral choices because they are about right and wrong. Moral choices are choices between what might be good for us personally and what would be good for others.

Lesson Objectives

- What are morals and ethics?
- How is moral and ethical behaviour developed?
- How do we know if our decisions or actions are moral?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Morality and Leadership
 - An examination of historical records showed that in a sample of 600 monarchs, the ones who became the most eminent were those who were highly moral or highly immoral. This suggests that there are two roads to eminence: Having great moral virtue or having Machiavellian deviousness (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 612).
 - What does this statement mean for people who are political, social, business and athletic leaders (captains of teams)?
- Discussion: Moral decision making
 - Ask the students to reflect on several recent situations where they had to make a choice or decision concerning a moral or ethical issue, a question of whether their actions were "right" or "wrong". For each situation, ask the students to describe the situation they faced, the questions they asked and addressed in making a decision, and the decision at which they arrived. Based on the moral-testing process, have the students apply their issues to each of the three moral-test cases.
- Research: Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development
 - Design and conduct a research project that investigates the process or stages of moral development. Have students interview a series of participants ranging in age from early childhood to adolescence. Each participant will be given the same moral dilemma (e.g., stealing, cheating, lying) and his or her responses recorded as to what would be the "right" thing to do, and why.
- Discussion: Moral testing
 - Discuss the moral test cases as described in the Teacher Information section, and complete the moral-test cases included, or substitute those given for issues brainstormed with the class.
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Win any way as long as you can get away with it. Nice guys finish last (Leo Durocher).

Making Connections

- Moral Issues and the Law
 - Is it morally correct to steal a drug to save someone's life?
 - Is euthanasia morally correct?
 - Is capital punishment morally correct?
- Is civil disobedience morally correct? Are there situations when civil disobedience and breaking the law are justified because of moral or ethical considerations?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Applying Moral Tests to Everyday Situations
- Curriculum Support Materials: Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Lesson 2.5.3: Teacher Information

What are morals and ethics?

Our sense of morality and ethical decision making is influenced by a variety of factors. These factors include:

- our view of human nature
- the value we put on human life
- our view of the purpose of life
- the significance we give to death and dying
- whether we think we will face rewards and punishments for our actions in this life or some future life (Badley, 1996, p. 9).

How do we know if our decisions or actions are moral?

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

Moral reasoning as the basis for making moral choices

The concept of moral testing provides guidance for making moral choices. It is based on a number of principles or criteria.

- I may not do something unless it is right for everyone to do that thing
- I must be aware that my actions may be hurtful to others in some way
- I must be willing and able before taking action to:
 - seek out all information about the effect of my proposed actions on others
 - imagine the consequences of my actions on others
 - imagine myself in the place of another person in order to better understand the effect of my actions on that person
 - seek advice from others
 - test the moral reasoning I am using and reject it if it is faulty

- demand from others that they test their moral reasoning and reject it if it is faulty.

After applying all of the above criteria, I must be resolved to carry out that which is morally correct and reject that which is morally wrong.

The process of moral testing

All of the above principles can be summarized into three tests which can be used to determine whether a morally doubtful choice or an action can be taken. In using the tests, there are three things that must be done before any of the tests can be applied. The moral decision maker must:

- Clearly understand the critical parts of the situation about which you are making a moral choice.
- Make a preliminary value claim (choice).
- Clearly lay out the reasons for your value claim.

When this has been done, then the moral tests may be applied:

The New Cases Test

This test holds that:

- You should be able to apply the same value claim to other similar situations.
- If you find in another case, it is not morally acceptable to make that value claim then it is not acceptable to make the claim in the first situation.
- If you find in another case it is morally acceptable, then your value claim has passed this test and you can look at other moral tests for further confirmation.

The Role Exchange Test

This test holds that:

- Before carrying out your value claim, you should imagine how another person who might be affected by your choice would react to that situation.
- You must imagine how you would react if some other person treated you the way you are thinking of treating them (remembering that

another person might not accept everything you might accept).

- The issue is not whether you "like" the treatment but whether the treatment is right for everyone.
- There may be circumstances where another individual may not like the treatment but it is clearly good for them, then the choice may be made for another person (e.g. a child not wanting to take the bad tasting medicine they need).
- The critical issue is to clearly understand the consequences of the value claim for others and that the consequences are morally acceptable for everyone.

The Universal Consequences Test

This test holds that:

- You must imagine what the consequences would be if everyone carried out the actions involved in your value claim.
- A value claim cannot be acceptable if the consequences of acting upon it are unacceptable.
- If it is wrong for everyone to act on a value claim, then it is wrong for anyone to act on that claim.
- If it is right for everyone to act on the value claim, then it has passed this test .

The Process of Evaluation

When you have finished the moral testing, you then have to decide what you have learned. There are some things to consider when evaluating the results of moral testing:

- No test takes precedence over another test so if a value claim fails any of the four tests, then the value claim needs to be reconsidered.
- In selecting which of the tests to apply, it must be remembered that:
- The most difficult test for any given situation should be applied.
- Not all cases apply to all situations.
- The new cases, and the role exchange tests fit well for situations where an action will have

negative consequences for one or more persons, and

- The universal consequences test suits situations where the effect of many people performing the action will have negative consequences for others.

Adapted from "Validating Moral Judgements by Principle Testing" Jerrold R. Coombs (1980). Development of Moral Reasoning: Practical Approaches, Donald B. Cochrane, Michael Manley-Casimir Ed., New York: Praeger.

Quips and Quotes

Whatever I have tried to do in this life, I have tried with all my heart to do well; whatever I have devoted myself to, I have devoted myself to completely; in great aims and in small, I have always been thoroughly earnest.

Charles Dickens

2.6 Personality: Who I am

This lesson represents the synthesis of all aspects of this unit, by looking at the biological, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects that together address the core question: Who am I?

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean to have a personality?
- How do personalities develop?
- Is there a biological basis for personality?
- What kind of personality do you have?
- What are the types of personality disorders?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to personality development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Reflection: Who I am
 - Using the template supplied in the *Interactions* article, have students reflect on the basic values and attitudes that define them.
- Reflection: Personality traits
 - Ask each student to answer this question: Are you basically a happy person? Why or why not?
 - This exercise guides students to consider their basic personality traits, which leads into a discussion of the basic theories of personality.
- Discussion: Personality trait theory
 - Ask each student to reflect on where they fit in terms of the model as presented.
 - In what ways are your personality characteristics similar to those of your parents or other family members?
 - In what ways are your personality traits similar to those of your friends?
 - Why do some people take more risks than others?
- Research: Theoretical perspectives on personality development
 - Divide the class into six groups. Assign one theoretical perspective to each group.
 - Have each group look for examples of how personalities are developed from its theoretical perspective.
- Construction: My theory of personality development
 - Have students develop their own theory of personality development.
- Research: Personalities and relationships
 - Do friends have the same or similar personalities? Do married couples have the same or similar personalities? Design and conduct a research study investigating the similarities in personalities between people involved in close interpersonal relationships.

Making Connections

- What are the types of personality disorders?
- Surprisingly little evidence shows that traits such as dominance, charisma and self-confidence predict who will become leaders (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 612).
 - What personality traits would you want in a leader?

Resources

- *Interactions: Who I Am*
- Personality website

Lesson 2.6: Teacher Information

What does it mean to have a personality?

Your personality represents the sum of all your psychological, behavioural and biological processes. It reflects the consistent patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving that make you different from and, in some ways, similar to others (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 406).

How do personalities develop?

The psychodynamic approach: Freud, on the basis of his work in treating "neurotic disorders," came to believe that personality and behaviour are determined more by psychological factors than by biological conditions or current events. He proposed that people may not know why they think, feel or act the way they do because they are partly controlled by the unconscious portion of the personality, of which people are normally unaware (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 408).

The trait approach to personality makes three main assumptions:

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

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

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

Is there a biological basis for personality?

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

What are the types of personality disorders?

People with personality disorders are divided into three broad clusters: those whose behaviour appears: odd or eccentric; dramatic, emotional and erratic; fearful or anxious. There are essentially six basic personality disorders:

- Paranoid personality disorder involves unwarranted feelings of persecution and those who display these feelings mistrust almost everyone. They are hypersensitive to criticism and have a restricted range of emotional responses. They have strong fears of being exploited, and of losing control and independence. Sometimes they appear cold, humourless and even scheming.
- Borderline personality disorder is characterized by difficulty with relationships; it shows a pattern of instability with interpersonal relationships, self-image and affect. In addition, it is often impulsive. Easily bored and distracted, such individuals fear abandonment.
- Histrionic personality disordered individuals seek attention by exaggerating situations in their lives. They have stormy personal relationships, are excessively emotional, and demand constant reassurance and praise.
- Narcissistic personality disorder is closely related to histrionic, because people with this disorder have an extremely exaggerated sense of self-importance, expect favours, and need constant attention and admiration. They show a lack of caring for others, and they react to criticism with shame, rage or humiliation.
- Antisocial personality disorder is characterized by egocentricity, behaviour that is irresponsible and that violates the rights of other people (e.g., lying, theft, delinquency), a lack of guilt feelings, an inability to understand other people's feelings and a lack of fear of punishment. Antisocial people consistently blame others for their

behaviour. The disorder occurs six times more in men than in women. As many as three percent of all individuals may be diagnosed with antisocial personality disorder.

- Dependent personality disorder involves acting fearful or anxious, submissive or clinging and letting other people make all of the important decisions in life. People with this disorder try to appear pleasant and agreeable at all times. They act meek, humble and affectionate in order to keep their protectors. Overprotective, authoritarian parenting seems to be a major initiating cause of dependency (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 538).

Quips and Quotes

How can we understand human relations and social influence? By studying the way people feel and the way people think- in short, by studying the heart and the mind.

Elliott Aronson et al.

2.7 Action Research in Social Psychology

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

Lesson Objectives

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

Suggested Research Topics

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experiments
- Case Study
- Topical

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

Resources

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

Lesson 2.7: Research Methods and Suggested Topics

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
Survey <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What is the most important value in your life? What qualities do you most admire in a friend? Do you believe in a Creator or Higher Power? Do you attend church regularly? Do you believe in E.S.P.? Do you support the cloning (copying) of human genetic material? What is your primary motivator? What is your favourite colour? Have you experienced prejudice, and if so, what form or type (age, gender, culture, race)? Do you use nutritional supplements?
Naturalistic Observation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> basic personality types stress and coping behaviours. a day in the life of personality development.
Case Studies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case-study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Jesus Buddha Mohammed Social rights activists
Interview <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Parents, Friends: What are some of your earliest recollections? Parents: I remember when....! Societal values. Have they changed? In what way? Stereotypical attitudes: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> female police officers female truck drivers/bus drivers female entrepreneurs male nurse.
Experimental research <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> eyewitness testimony memorization multiple intelligences impressions and beauty perception of emotions moral dilemmas.

Topical Research

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

- sensory system
- nervous system
- endocrine system
- genetics and heredity
- origins of names
- Machiavelli
- Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms
- artificial Intelligence
- amnesia
- Alzheimer's disease
- hypnosis
- anger management
- eating disorders
- parenting styles
- abuse
- addiction
- drugs
- toys
- acupuncture
- personality disorders

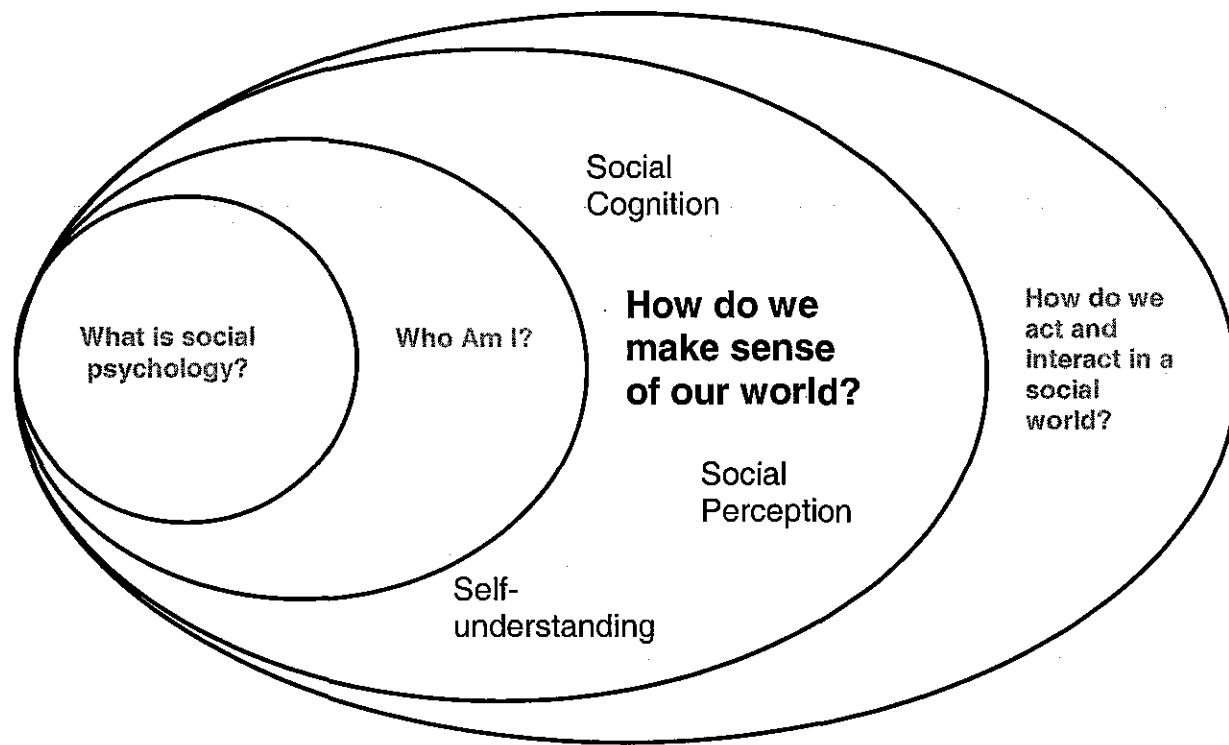
Unit Three: How do we make sense of our world?

Unit Overview

This unit begins with inquiry into the ways and means in which people's own thoughts, feelings and behaviours influence other people. It is an introspective look at the biological, cognitive,

emotional, spiritual and social influences on how people think and feel about the world. Using the conceptual organizers as the lens, consider how the influences people have on other people is affected by biology and experience, as well as in the context of the various systems of support.

Concept Web



Time Frame: 15 – 25 hours

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand how thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.
- To acquire knowledge about themselves; to consider the question: Who am I?
- To understand the role and function of social cognition as the processes behind how people think about the world.
- To understand the role and function of social perception as the processes by which people come to understand other people.
- To understand the role and function of self-understanding.

Skills

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

Values

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

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

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|--|--|
| <p>3.1 How do we make sense of our world?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What processes do we use to understand the world?• How do we understand others?• How do we come to understand ourselves?• How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to making sense of our world? <p>3.2 Social cognition: Overview</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?• What factors affect our judgement? <p>3.2.1 Social Schema</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How is experience represented in the brain?• In what ways do we interpret our schema?• How are schema revised or changed?• In what ways do we create our own schema? <p>3.2.2 Biological basis for social cognition</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How does our biology influence social cognition?• What biological processes are involved in social cognition?• What is autobiographical memory, and how does it influence cognition? <p>3.2.3 Judgements and impression formation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• How do we form impressions about people?• What are some biases on how we form impressions of other people?• How do we make judgements and decisions about other people? <p>3.2.4 Prejudice</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is prejudice?• How do people develop prejudicial attitudes?• How do we reduce prejudice? | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Why does enhanced contact reduce prejudice and discrimination?• What is racism?• How is racism related to prejudice?• How do racist attitudes develop? <p>3.3 How do we come to understand other people?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is social perception?• How are social perceptions formed and changed?• How do we select information about others?• How do we organize the information received in social situations?• What processes do we use to interpret social information?• What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?• What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?• Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve? <p>3.3.1 Communication</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What is communication?• What are the basic principles of communication?• What are the purposes of communication?• What are the different means of communication?• What are some communication misconceptions?• What are the characteristics of effective communicators? <p>3.3.2 Influences on perception</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What are the physiological influences on our perceptions?• In what ways does culture influence the accuracy of our perceptions?• How does gender influence perception?• What influence does self-esteem have on our social perceptions? <p>3.3.3 Attributions: Asking the why?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• What processes do we use in trying to understand why a person acted in a particular way? |
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- What processes do we use in trying to understand our own feelings and behaviours?
 - What are some biases in our causal explanations of the behaviour of others?
- 3.4 Self-understanding: How do you develop a sense of yourself in the world?**
- What is self-concept?
 - How do we develop a self-concept?
 - What are the cultural influences on self-concept?
 - How does gender influence self-concept?
- 3.4.1 Development of self-concept**
- What are the characteristics of a self-concept?
 - What influences the development of a self-concept?
 - How important is your self-concept?
 - What do we do when our self-concept is threatened?
- 3.4.2 Culture and the Self**
- What does culture mean?
 - Does your cultural background influence your general health and outlook on life?
- 3.4.3 Gender and the Self**
- What does gender mean?
 - How does a gender identity develop?
 - What are the differences between the genders?
 - What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?
- 3.4.4 Self-schema and Identity**
- How do we represent knowledge about ourselves?
 - How does self-identity develop?
 - What influences does the family have on identity?
 - How does gender influence identity development?
- 3.4.5 Identity Management**
- How does our behaviour change in social situations?
 - In what ways does our behaviour change in social situations?
 - What processes of identity management do we use in social situations?
 - How do we act differently in private versus public situations?
- How, and why, do we disclose private and personal information about ourselves to others?
- 3.4.6 Mass Media**
- What defines the mass media?
 - What influence does the media have on our thoughts, feelings and behaviours?
 - What influence does the media have on developing aggression and violence, especially in children?
 - What influence does the Internet have on social relations and behaviour?
 - What influence does the media have on society and our culture?
 - What is the relationship between cultural values, the media and censorship?
- 3.5 Action research in social psychology**
- What are stereotypical attitudes towards
 - Should cosmetic surgery be free?
 - How would you define beauty?
 - Media:
 - How many hours of television do you watch in a week?
 - How many times do you go to the movies in a month?
 - How many videos do you rent in a month?
 - Do you think television values are replacing family values?
 - Are the movie and television rating systems appropriate? Effective?
 - Social cognition
 - Emotional expressions
 - Business woman
 - Internet usage
 - Love at first sight?
 - Gender differences
 - Sleep behaviours
 - Non-verbal communication
 - A day in the life of
 - Proxemics:
 - Intimate distance
 - Personal space
 - Social distance
 - Television violence
 - Gender differences
 - Television usage
 - Gender differences
 - Circadian rhythms
 - Sleep
 - Dreams

- Sexism
- Sign language
- Advertising techniques
- Women's suffrage
- Gender differences
- Internet usage
- Martin Luther King
- Rosa Parks
- Mahatma Gandhi
- Terry Fox
- Mother Theresa
- Nelson Mandela
- Helen Keller
- Autobiographical memory
- Schema
- Prejudice and discrimination
- Dreams and dream interpretation
- Changing role of women in society

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

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

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

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

Print Resources

- Adolescent Portraits: Identity, Relationships, & Challenges*
Advertising: Information or Manipulation
Boys Will Be Men: Raising Our Sons for Courage, Caring & Community
Can You Relate?: Real-World Advice for Teens on Guys, Girls, Growing Up, and Getting Along
Girls Are Equal Too: How to Survive for Teenage Girls
Obesity
Propaganda and Persuasion
Self-Discipline: Using Portfolios to Help Students Develop Self-Awareness, Manage Emotions & Build Relationships
Violence in the Media
Where's Your Head? Psychology for Teenagers

Non-Print Resources

- Advertising and the End of the World*
Brand Marketing: Why We Eat, Drink, and Wear Brand Names
Ethnic Man!
Killing Us Softly 3: Advertising's Image of Women
Language Development Lost
Raceoff: A Video Workshop
Tough Guise: Violence, Media and the Crisis in Masculinity
Why Ads Work: The Power of Self-Deception

Internet Sites

Taking The Pulse of Saskatchewan –
<http://www.arts.usask.ca/takingthepulse>

Quips and Quotes

Four things a person must learn to do
For to make their record true:

To think, without confusion, clearly;
To act, from honest motives, purely;
To love their fellow Man sincerely,
To trust in God and heaven securely.

Henry Van Dyke

3.1 How do we make sense of our world?

This introductory lesson to the unit examines three primary aspects of “meaning making”: social cognition, social perception and self-understanding.

Lesson Objectives

- What processes do we use to understand the world?
- How do we come to understand others?
- How do we come to understand ourselves?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to making sense of our world?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: How do we make sense of our world?
 - Discuss the *Interactions* cover graphic, “Hand with Globe” by M.C. Escher. Why do you think this graphic is, or is not, appropriate for the topic?
- Discussion: How do we make sense of our world?
 - Using the *Interactions* article, discuss the three aspects that together comprise how we come to make sense of, and understand the social world.
 - Social Cognition (mental schema)
 - Social Perception (internal/situational attributions)
 - Self-understanding (self-image, self-esteem, self-ideal, self-efficacy)
- Construction: Trees of self-realization and self-defeat
 - Ask each student to add those behaviours and attitudes to the root systems of both trees that would promote the growth of the trees of self-realization and self-doubt.
 - As a class, discuss those behaviours and attitudes that seem to be most common.
 - Referring to the Ecological Model, discuss how the various systems of support influence the development or growth of the tree of self-realization and the tree of self-defeat.
- Game: Psychology Squares!
 - Draw a grid on the board, listing the topics across the top row and the points down the first column.
 - Divide the class into two groups. Invite each team member to select a category and point level. Convert the statements into questions by omitting the answer. Place an “X” in the cell once the question has been asked. Record the point totals for each team to determine a winner.
- Jigsaw/Activity: Issues in making sense of our world
 - Assign one of the four issues in developmental psychology to each small group of students. Have each group brainstorm examples of how its issue is demonstrated in terms of making sense of the world across the life span.
 - Based on their examples, have the groups create a role play in which they describe the issue and its applicability to making sense of their world.

Making Connections

- Create a game:
 - Have the students create their own game as a means of teaching and learning the concepts of social psychology!

Resources

- *Interactions*: How do we make sense of our world?
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Tree of Self-knowledge
- Curriculum Support Materials: Psychology Squares! Games #1, #2, #3

Lesson 3.1: Teacher Information

How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?

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

- People have a limited capacity to process information about the social world and will take cognitive shortcuts (such as stereotyping) in order to minimize the load
- We develop schema that represent our knowledge about ourselves, others, and our roles within the social world. These schema, once formed, bias our judgements about ourselves and others
- Schema become more complex and organized over time, and also harder to change (Cardwell, 1998, p. 218).

How do we come to understand others?

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

How do we come to understand ourselves?

It is generally believed that awareness of "the self" develops from early experience. Indeed, one of the first stages in the development of thinking in the child is the capacity to distinguish what is "me" and what is "not me" (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 69).

According to Carl Rogers, self-concept or identity is shaped partly by self-actualizing tendencies and partly by others' evaluations. In this way, people come to like what they are "supposed" to like and to behave as they are "supposed" to behave. Although this socialization process is adaptive, allowing people to get along in society, it often requires that they stifle the self-actualizing tendency and distort experience (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 425).

Aspects of the self-concept develop by degrees, rather than clearly defined stages. Whilst young

children may know their own names and understand the limits of their own bodies, they may not yet be able to think about themselves as coherent entities. Self-awareness or self-consciousness, develops very gradually (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 404).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to making sense of our world?

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

- *Continuous change versus discontinuous change:* In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
- A *critical period* is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.
- *Life span approaches* versus a focus on a particular period: Developmentalists now believe the entire life span is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are in large measure providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
- *Nature versus Nurture:* One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, nature refers to traits, abilities, and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. It encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information, a process known as maturation. These genetic

inherited influences are at work as we move from the one cell organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully formed human being. In contrast nurture refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parent's discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

Quips and Quotes

If you close your mind in judgements, and traffic with desires, your heart will be troubled. If you keep your mind from judging and are not led by the senses, your heart will find peace.

Tao Te Ching, Verse

3.2 Social Cognition: Overview

This overview lesson sets the stage to discuss the general concept of social cognition, or the ways in which we make sense of the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of other people through analysis and interpretation.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?
- What processes do we use to make sense of other people?
- What factors affect our judgement?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Social cognition
 - Ask students to consider what they believe about people? Are people basically good or bad? Are people basically lazy or hard working? Are people basically fair or unfair, greedy and self-centered, or cooperative and altruistic?
 - Direct students to write their own basic set of belief statements about people.
- Discussion: Social cognition
 - Based on the template provided in the Curriculum Support Materials, emphasize the two-stage approach that biology, schema, culture and heuristics contribute to arriving at judgements and decisions. These judgements and decisions are then translated into thoughts, feelings and behaviours. However, there are many biases that can influence the decision-making process.
- Discussion/Reflection: Schema
 - Have the students describe their schema for the following people and situations: themselves, siblings, best friend, a hero, the Prime Minister, Wayne Gretzky, Terry Fox, gangs, a school sports team, lawyers, teachers, nurses and graduation from high school.
- Role play: Social cognition
 - Invite small groups of students to create a mime illustrating various judgement-forming situations (e.g., romantic, intimidation, arrogance, argumentative, stubbornness, danger, fear, worry, cooperative, competitive, power, intimate, friendship).
 - The other students should be able to guess what the situation is through the actions and body language of the actors.
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Never take anything for granted (Benjamin Disraeli).
 - Remember that happiness is a way of travel, not a destination (Roy Goodman).
 - When people talk, listen completely. Most people never listen (Ernest Hemingway).
 - When a friend is in trouble, don't annoy him by asking if there is anything you can do. Think up something appropriate and do it (Edgar Watson Howe).

Making Connections

- Describe and provide examples of the following:
 - Bias, stereotypes, prejudice or discrimination
 - Relate to Prejudice, Topic 3.2.4.

Resources

- *Interactions: Social Cognition: Answering the "What" question*
- Curriculum Support Materials: Social Cognition: Answering the "What" question

Lesson 3.2: Teacher Information

How do we make sense of the behaviour of other people?

Social cognition is the thought process of making sense of events, people, oneself, and the world in general through analyzing and interpreting them. It focuses on social information in memory, which affects judgements, choices, evaluations, and ultimately, behaviour (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 457).

What processes do we use to make sense of other people?

Often, to save time, people use mental short cuts to make sense of the world, developing rules of thumb. Some of these rules of thumb include:

- *representativeness*, (individuals or events that appear to be representative of other members of a group are quickly classified as such)
- *availability* (ease of association with existing knowledge)
- *false consensus effect* (people tend to believe that others agree with them), and
- *framing* (the way in which information is organized and presented helps determine whether it is will be accepted, rejected or ignored) (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 458).

What factors affect our judgement?

In addition to schema, people use judgemental heuristics to help us deal with the large amount of social information with which we are faced.

Heuristics are rules of thumb people follow in order to make judgements quickly and efficiently. The availability heuristic refers to the ease with which we can think of something, which has a strong effect on how we view the world. The representative heuristic helps us decide how similar one thing is to another; we use it to classify people or situations on the basis of their similarity to a typical case. When using this heuristic we have a tendency to ignore base rate information - that is, the prior probability that someone or something belongs in that classification. People also rely on the anchoring/adjustment heuristic, wherein an initial piece of information acts as an anchor, or starting point, for subsequent thoughts on the subject (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 136).

3.2.1 Social Schema

Quips and Quotes

To a great extent, we are who we believe we are.

Ronald Adler

Social schema are the mental concepts and scripts that help us to interpret our experience in the world. This lesson considers the many different types of mental schema and their role in social behaviour.

Lesson Objectives

- How is experience represented in the brain?
- In what ways do we interpret our schema?
- How are schema revised or changed?
- In what ways do we create our own schema?
- What is your schema for life?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Reflection: Life's metaphors
 - Using the information contained in the Teacher Information section (What is your schema for life?), have the students create their own metaphor for life. These metaphors can be described in written form through any of the literary forms such as prose or poetry, or in graphical form such as painting, drawing or sculpting.
- Role Play: Social schema
 - Assign one of the seven interpretive elements (e.g., relational satisfaction, degree of involvement, past experience) to each small group of students, and have the participants create a role play in which they demonstrate the principle of organization of social schema.
- Drama: A day in the life
 - Invite the students, using observational research techniques, to create a short character study on the day in the life of a _____.
- Simulation: Mental schema
 - Create a situation involving a small group of students planning an event, such as a camping trip or weekend at the lake.
 - Have other students watch the simulation and record one of the following: cognitive maps, images, concept schema, event scripts and mental models.
- Discussion: How believable is love "at first sight"?
 - Have students consider the notion that we can love someone instantaneously. How important is attractiveness in terms of forming first impressions? What other strategies and methods do people use to form first impressions?
- Application: Create a flowchart
 - Using the example in the *Interactions* journal, create a flowchart that describes how to act in certain situations, for example, how to get the dye out of your hair, how to write a psychology exam or how to make popcorn.
- Reflection: Self-fulfilling prophecy
 - What are some situations you have experienced recently, or are experiencing now, that demonstrate the principle of the self-fulfilling prophecy?
 - In what ways might changing your behaviour change the nature of the situation?

Resources

- *Interactions*: How to get out of bed in the morning!
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Expectant in Estevan."

Lesson 3.2.1: Teacher Information

How is experience represented in the brain?

A schema is a mental model of a person, object or situation. Schema include cognitive maps (mental representations of familiar parts of one's world), images, concept schema (categories of objects, events, or ideas with common properties), event scripts (schemas about familiar sequences of events or activities), and mental models (clusters of relationships between objects or processes) (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 223).

In what ways do we interpret our schema?

Once we have selected and organized our perceptions, we interpret them in a way that makes some sort of sense. Interpretation plays a role in virtually every interpersonal act. Several factors cause us to interpret an event in one way or another:

- Relational satisfaction: The behaviour that seems positive when you are happy with a partner might seem completely different when the relationship is not satisfying.
- Degree of involvement with the other person: We sometimes view people with whom we have or seek a relationship more favourably than those whom we observe from a detached perspective.
- Past Experience: What meaning have similar events held?
- Assumptions about human behaviour: "People generally do as little work as possible to get by", or "in spite of their mistakes, people are doing the best they can." Beliefs like these will shape the way we interpret another's actions.
- Expectations: Anticipation shapes interpretations. If you imagine that your boss is unhappy with your work, you will feel threatened by a request to "see me in my office first thing Monday morning."
- Knowledge: If you know that a friend has just been jilted by a lover or laid off from a job, you will interpret any aloof behaviour differently than you would if you were unaware of what had happened.
- Self-concept: When you are feeling insecure, the world is a very different place from the world you experience when you are confident. The way we feel about ourselves strongly influences

how we interpret other people's behaviour (Adler et al., 2001, p. 96).

How are schema revised or changed?

First impressions can change, but the process is usually very slow. We like to maintain our existing beliefs about the world, often using our schema to preserve a reality that fits our expectations. Holding onto existing impressions appears to be part of this effort. Another reason first impressions appear to be so stable is that we often do things that cause others to confirm our impressions of them. When, without our awareness, schema cause us to subtly lead people to behave in line with our expectations, a self-fulfilling prophecy is at work (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 497).

In what ways do we create our own schema?

A self-fulfilling prophecy occurs when a person's expectations of an event make an outcome more likely to occur than would otherwise have been true. There are two types of self-fulfilling prophecies:

- Self-imposed prophecies occur when your own expectations influence your behaviour.
- A second category of self-fulfilling prophecies is that imposed by one person on another, so that the expectations of one person govern another's actions. It is not just the observer's belief that creates the self-fulfilling prophecy for the person who is the target of the expectations. The observer must communicate that belief in order for the prediction to have any effect (Adler et al., 2001, p. 61).

What is your schema for life?

Life metaphors can shape how we live. How do these metaphors develop? As children we begin to understand and organize the world. If we think of the brain as a filing cabinet, then childhood is when we open the files and label them. We often spend the rest of lives putting new material in these old files. If childhood was healthy, then we may have a pretty good filing system. If it was a struggle, then we often see struggles for the rest of our lives. A few examples:

- A battle – Everything is a competition or a struggle. We are always either winning or losing.
- A garden – Relationships are cultivated like flowers or vegetables. We see things as growing, flowering or producing.

-
- A mission – We believe that we have the truth and we need to convince others that our point of view is right.
 - A journey or an adventure – We travel from place to place meeting new people and exploring.
 - A building – Starting with a solid foundation, then adding floors and rooms.
 - A roller coaster – Life consists of ups and downs, and we are along for the ride.
 - A stained glass window – Full of light and colours.
 - A mountain climb – Life consists of hierarchies. We are always climbing the various ladders of life.
 - A race – Always finding the fastest route, “keeping up with the Joneses”.
 - A courtroom – Everything in life should be fair.
 - Stepping stones – We barely get comfortable where we are before we are looking for a better job or a bigger house.
 - A prison – Feeling like we don’t have choices, like others have all the power.
 - A classroom – There are always new lessons to learn.
 - A battery – Every encounter seems to drain energy. We need the weekends to recharge
(Source: Mental Health Network)

Quips and Quotes

Keep your face to the sunshine and you cannot see the shadows.

Helen Keller

3.2.2 Biological basis for social cognition

Our biology has a significant influence not only on what we perceive, but how we perceive and make sense of it. This lesson addresses the topic of consciousness and awareness.

Lesson Objectives

- How does our biology influence social cognition?
- What biological processes are involved in social cognition?
- What is autobiographical memory, and how does it influence cognition?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Media Study: Facial expressions
 - Using a number of different pictures of people's faces, ask the students to list the emotions that they believe are being expressed.
 - Compare and contrast the student's answers, discussing the possible explanations as to why people interpret facial expressions differently.
- Discussion: Perceptual processes
 - Using a variety of examples, demonstrate the perceptual processes as described in the Teacher Information section.
 - Perceptual illusions are another important source of information. See the resources listed below for links to a website featuring the work of M.C. Escher for examples of optical illusions in art.
 - Have students create examples of "impossible" art.
- Reflection: I remember when.... (autobiographical memory)
 - What are your earliest memories?
 - What are your most profound memories?
- Discussion: Social memory
 - Describe your social schema for the following situations (e.g., meeting someone for the first time, meeting someone and not remembering his/her name, introducing a friend, group situations, family gatherings, attending a concert or play).

Making Connections

- Research: Altered consciousness
 - What are the effects of substance abuse (e.g., alcohol, drugs, stimulants, steroids) on the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people?
- Controlling consciousness: Hypnosis, biofeedback and meditation
 - What are they; how and why do they work?
- Circadian rhythms:
 - What role and influence do circadian rhythms play in people's thoughts, feelings and behaviours?
- Research: Sleep and dreams
 - What does current research offer in terms of the role and importance of sleep and dreams?
 - What are the cultural differences in the importance and interpretation of dreams?

Resources

- [M.C. Escher website](#)

Lesson 3.2.2: Teacher Information

How does our biology influence social cognition?

There are four aspects to the biological influence on our cognition:

- perception
- attention
- memory
- consciousness.

What biological processes are involved in social cognition?

The process by which we structure the input from our sensory receptors is called perceptual organization. Perception is more than the sum of all the sensory input supplied by our eyes, ears and other receptors. It is the active selection, organization and interpretation of such input.

Although we receive many different messages at once, we can watch, listen and attend to only a small number of stimuli at a time. There are several theories about how people attend selectively, two of which are the filter theory and the attenuation theory:

- The filter theory states that human beings possess a limited capacity to process information and that perceptual "filters" screen out or ignore extraneous information.
- The attenuation theory states that all information is analyzed but that intervening factors inhibit (attenuate) attention so that only selected information reaches the highest centres of attention (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 77).

What is autobiographical memory, and how does it influence cognition?

A great deal of a person's self-knowledge consists of our memories of our past attitudes, feelings and behaviours. Psychologists use the term autobiographical memory to refer to our memories about ourselves. Whereas these memories define us, it is also the case that we define our memories. A key part of our schema about ourselves is our theory about the stability of our thoughts and feelings. First, when trying to remember something we once thought or did, we access from memory our current behaviour or attitude. Second, we consider whether our present state is similar to, or different from our past one, using our theories about whether this attitude is the type that is usually stable over time or is the type that frequently changes. In sum,

we learn about ourselves through introspection and observations of our own behaviour, and then organize that information into self-schema. We also interpret our past using schema and theories about how our attitudes and behaviours are likely to change (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 229).

Quips and Quotes

Don't look down on another person unless you are leaning over them to help them up!

Anonymous

3.2.3 Judgements and Impression Formation

This lesson addresses impression formation, the biases involved that influence the process, and the heuristics that people employ in making decisions about other people and situations.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we form impressions about people?
- What are some biases that influence how we form impressions of other people?
- How do we make judgements and decisions about other people?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Forming impressions
 - Gather pictures of people in different situations (e.g., smoking, studying, caring for the elderly or a sick person).
 - For each situation, direct the students to write down the impressions they have of the people in the pictures. Are they intelligent, caring
 - Discuss how we form impressions based on a minimal amount of information.
 - Present a picture where the person is acting "out of character," for example a biker on a "Teddy Bear ride."
 - What happens when we are faced with forming an impression that goes against the basic schema and traits we have established?
- Discussion: Constructs and impression formation
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss specific examples of the five types of schema that help to classify ourselves and others.
- Reflection/Discussion: Stereotypes
 - Ask students to complete the following:
 - Men are _____.
 - Women are _____.
 - Hockey players are _____.
 - Elaborate on those aspects of the mental schema that did not come from personal experience. Where did they come from? What are the most powerful influences on our development of schema and stereotypes?
- Drama: Day in the life
 - Invite the students, using observational research techniques, to create a short character study on the day in the life of a _____.
- Reflection: To a great extent we are what we believe we are (Anonymous).
 - What impact might this statement have on your life?

Making Connections

- See Prejudice, Topic 3.2.4 for a further discussion of stereotypes and their relationship to prejudice and discrimination.
- Discussion:
 - Find examples of the progression from biases to stereotypes to prejudice to discrimination, in your own classroom, school, community, province and country.

Resources

- *Interactions:* Social cognition: Answering the "What" question
- Curriculum Support Materials: Constructs and Impression Formation

Lesson 3.2.3: Teacher Information

How do we form impressions of people?

The evidence indicates that we follow a weighted averaging model in combining information about people. That is, we keep a rough “running average” of our trait ratings in our heads, as we discover more characteristics about people (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 40).

Each of us uses a particular organizing schema to make sense of the information about others. We do this by using perceptual schema - cognitive frameworks that allow us to organize the raw data we have selected. Five types of schema help us to classify ourselves and others:

- Physical constructs classify people according to their appearance: male or female, beautiful or ugly, fat or thin, young or old, and so on.
- Role constructs use social position: student, lawyer, wife, and so on.
- Interaction constructs focus on social behaviour: friendly, helpful, aloof, sarcastic.
- Psychological constructs: curious, nervous, insecure and so on.
- Membership constructs help us to identify others according to the group in which they belong: teacher, Liberal, Environmentalist, and so on (Adler et al., 2001, p. 91).

What are some biases that influence we form impressions of other people?

Researchers have noticed two interesting biases in how first impressions of people are formed. First, people tend to form impressions of others which are positive rather than negative, a positivity bias. But while we have this bias towards being positive in our impressions of others, those impressions will be influenced more by negative than by positive information. This is called the negativity effect (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 40).

In forming impressions of others, people bring their own personal way of looking at the world. We have our own set of implicit personality theories, a set of unstated assumptions about certain types of people in general (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 41).

Primacy/Accessibility: The tendency to form an impression of a person based on the initial information we learn about him or her is called the

primacy effect. The first impression we receive of a person seems to be resilient (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 487).

Self-fulfilling prophecy: A self-fulfilling prophecy occurs when a person's expectations of an event make an outcome more likely to occur than would otherwise have been true. There are two types of self-fulfilling prophecies:

- Self-imposed prophecies occur when your own expectations influence your behaviour.
- A second category of self-fulfilling prophecies is that imposed by one person on another, so that the expectations of one person govern another's actions. It is not just the observer's belief that creates the self-fulfilling prophecy for the person who is the target of the expectations. The observer must communicate that belief in order for the prediction to have any effect (Adler et al., 2001, p. 61).

How do we make judgements and decisions about other people?

In addition to schema, people use judgemental heuristics to help us deal with the large amount of social information with which we are faced. Heuristics are rules of thumb people follow in order to make judgements quickly and efficiently. The availability heuristic refers to the ease with which we can think of something, which has a strong effect on how we view the world. The representative heuristic helps us decide how similar one thing is to another; we use it to classify people or situations on the basis of their similarity to a typical case. When using this heuristic we have a tendency to ignore base rate information - that is, the prior probability that someone or something belongs in that classification. People also rely on the anchoring/adjustment heuristic, wherein an initial piece of information acts as an anchor, or starting point, for subsequent thoughts on the subject (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 136).

Quips and Quotes

The mind of a bigot is like the pupil of the eye; the more light you pour upon it the more it will contract.

Oliver Wendell Holmes Jr.

3.2.4 Prejudice

This lesson addresses the “dark side” of human thoughts, feelings and behaviour including stereotypes, biases, prejudice, discrimination and racism.

Lesson Objectives

- What is prejudice?
- How do people develop prejudicial attitudes?
- How do we reduce prejudice?
- Why does enhanced contact reduce prejudice and discrimination?
- What is racism?
- How is racism related to prejudice?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Multiculturalism and intergroup contact
 - Using the information supplied in Teacher Information, how might multiculturalism help reduce prejudice and discrimination? Discuss definitions of integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization. Provide examples in your school, community or in society in general of how multiculturalism can reduce prejudicial attitudes and discriminatory behaviours.
- Discussion: Prejudice reduction in your classroom, school and community.
 - Based on the above, what practical things can be done to reduce prejudice and racism in your community?
- Research/Construction: Prejudice and the media
 - Find examples of prejudicial or stereotypical attitudes in the media, particularly magazines, television and the movies.
 - Videotape, or create a collage of stereotypes that are the basis for prejudice and bias.
- Research: Stereotypes
 - Survey stereotypes by gender/age towards such groups as blondes, lawyers, hockey players, “jocks,” women drivers, doctors, males, females and politicians.
- Discussion: Reverse discrimination.
 - Find examples of reverse discrimination. Is this kind of discrimination any more or less fair than “normal” discrimination?
- Activity: Create a poster campaign against racism, prejudice and discrimination.
- Activity: Create a “prejudice-free” credo or code of conduct for the classroom or school.
- Drama: Stereotypes, Prejudice and discrimination
 - Create a mime or role play that portrays an example of a bias, stereotype, prejudice, racism or discrimination. Discuss the implications of each, for individuals involved, as well as for society in general.

Making Connections

- Research apartheid and the role of Nelson Mandela as a social activist.
- Research sexism.
- Humour as a weapon: Find examples of stereotypes and biases in humour (e.g., “blonde jokes”).

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Constructs and Impression Formation
- Movies: *Mississippi Burning*, *Remember the Titans*

Lesson 3.2.4: Teacher Information

What is prejudice?

Prejudice is defined as a positive or negative attitude based on information or knowledge that is either illogical, unrelated to reality, or a distortion of fact, and that is unjustifiably generalized to all the members of a group.

As with other attitudes, prejudice can be thought of as consisting of three components: cognitive, affective and behavioural.

- The beliefs that make up the cognitive component of prejudice are called stereotypes. Stereotypes are categories of cognitions concerning the members of a particular group. These cognitions are usually simple, often overgeneralized, and frequently inaccurate. Stereotypes are not simply abstractions about group categories. They can act as "cognitive filters" through which we select what information to use, what to ignore, and how to interpret it.
- A crucial factor in prejudice appears to be the affective component. Stereotypes do not exist in isolation. They are accompanied by emotions, which are usually expressed in terms that can be distributed along a continuum ranging from the intensely negative to the very positive.
- Discrimination represents the physical component of prejudice. As society becomes more sensitive to racial issues, many people will resist expressing prejudicial attitudes. In fact, some may go so far as to behave in a manner that implies that they are more tolerant than they really are. This process is known as reverse discrimination (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 354).

How do people develop prejudicial attitudes?

Prejudice is a universal human experience because it has so many sources – psychological, social, economic and cultural:

- Psychological
 - *Social cognition:* When we follow heuristics or mental shortcuts, we sometimes make errors of judgement. These mental shortcuts also play a role in the development of prejudice. Two fallacies that promote the formation of prejudicial stereotypes are the illusory correlation - an apparent correlation between two distinctive elements that does not actually exist - and outgroup homogeneity - a belief that members of a group to which one does not belong are very

similar to one another (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 502).

- Prejudices about individuals or groups are usually developed on the basis of *perceived differences* of one or more characteristics or traits. These differences may be physical, sexual, racial, national or religious, or may pertain to such particulars as language, accent, social status or age. Once persons have identified themselves as belonging to one group (the in-group) and others as belonging to another group (the out-group), regardless of the original reasons for this social categorization, they will expect to find intergroup differences and will go so far as to create them if necessary (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 368).
- *Scapegoat:* The tendency for individuals, when frustrated or unhappy, to displace aggression onto groups that are disliked, visible and relatively powerless (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 523).
- *Attribution errors:* One reason stereotypes are so insidious and persistent is the human tendency to make dispositional attributions - that is, to leap to the conclusion that a person's behaviour is due to some aspect of his or her personality rather than due to some aspect of the situation. This is known as the fundamental attribution error (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 515).
- *Self-esteem:* The tendency to perceive one's own group as superior and that of others as inferior may be based on a need to enhance one's own self-esteem. Thus, people who belong to groups that preach racial hatred tend to be those whose own social status is rather low (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 501).
- *Frustration/aggression:* According to Dollard's (1939) frustration-aggression hypothesis, frustration always gives rise to aggression and aggression is always caused by frustration. Frustration (being blocked from achieving a desirable goal) has many sources (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 544).
- *Self-fulfilling prophecies:* A self-fulfilling prophecy is a stereotype that induces a person to act in a manner consistent with that stereotype. Such a tendency is especially insidious because the behaviour of the person who is the target of the stereotype then tends to confirm the stereotype (Adler et al., 2001, p. 56).
- Social
 - *Affiliation:* Apparently, affiliation and prejudice are two sides of the same coin.

- That is, along with the tendency to identify with and feel close to members of our own group or clan goes the tendency to be suspicious of others (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 501).
- *Groupthink:* The tendency for group members, especially elite groups, to assume that the group invariably has the right answer. It occurs when a group seeks a solution to a problem without fully considering all the possible alternatives (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 369).
 - Media
 - Attitudes can be influenced by the media through selective or biased reporting in newspapers or by the repetition of stereotypes in television shows. Visible minorities are underrepresented in television commercials or magazine advertising in Canada (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 369).
 - Social norms: Social norms are rules that regulate human life, including social conventions, explicit laws and implicit cultural standards (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 264).
 - Social learning
 - *Role of the parents:* Parents have a powerful influence, not only because they play a role in what the child learns from day to day, but because this learning forms the foundation for all subsequent experience. For prejudicial attitudes to be acquired, children must first become "racially aware". In the early years ethnic attitudes are based on emotions and needs. The child then moves on to a second stage in which perception is dominant. The third, cognitive, stage is reached by the age of seven or eight. It is at this point that the child learns that members of an ethnic group have psychological as well as physical and behavioural characteristics (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 365).
 - *Operant conditioning:* Most of the reinforcements associated with acquisition of prejudice are likely to be verbal or nonverbal indications of approval, such as the comment "those people are dirty" followed by a smile and a nod which the child then makes it a part of his or her belief system (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 366).
 - *Modeling:* Not all learning involves the active intervention of a rewarding or punishing agent. Children often copy behaviour they have observed. Models, usually individuals with whom the child identifies, such as parents or teachers, have been shown to be highly effective in teaching attitudes and prejudice (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 367).
 - *The prejudiced personality:* Parents who have authoritarian traits teach their children that status is very important. In this case, prejudice is incorporated into a belief and value system that forms a personality in which the world is perceived in categorical black/white, superior/inferior, us/them terms (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 367).
 - *Peer groups:* Like parents, the members of peer groups are effective in influencing attitudes and behaviour because they offer information, reward conformity and punish nonconformity (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 370).
 - Social categorization: Several studies have found that people favour their own group over others. According to social categorization theory, this is because people tend to divide the social world into two categories, 'us' (the ingroup) and 'them' (the outgroup). This division is both necessary and sufficient for discrimination (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 465).
 - Social Identity: Social identity theory sees group membership as providing individuals with a positive self-image, consisting of personal identity and social identity. The more positive the image of a group to which one belongs, the more positive is one's social identity and hence self-image. The more favourable social comparisons are with other groups, the higher members' self-esteem will be. This results in social competition, since every group is similarly trying to enhance self-esteem (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 466).
 - Conformity: Conformity is a frequent part of social life, whether we conform to gain information, or to fit in and be accepted. Again, a relatively innocuous social behaviour, conformity, becomes particularly dangerous and debilitating when we enter the realm of prejudice. Many people hold prejudiced attitudes and engage in discriminatory behaviours in order to conform to, or fit in with, the prevailing majority view of their culture (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 245).
 - Competition: Most social psychologists believe that competition is an important factor in the development of prejudice. The competition need not be for tangible goods, it can be motivated by a desire for social superiority (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 501).

- Economic
 - *Resources*: When times are tough and resources are scarce, members of the ingroup will feel more threatened by members of the outgroup, and will therefore show more of an inclination toward prejudice, discrimination and violence toward the latter (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 521).
 - *Relative deprivation*: According to relative deprivation theory, the discrepancy between our expectations (the things we feel entitled to) and actual attainments produces frustration. When attainments fall short of rising expectations, relative deprivation is relatively acute and results in collective unrest and prejudicial attitudes (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 464).
 - *Realistic conflict*: Sherif's (1966) realistic conflict theory proposes that intergroup conflict arises when interests conflict. When two distinct groups want to achieve the same goal but only one can, increased prejudice and discrimination is produced between them (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 464).
- Cultural
 - *Nationalism*: In modern history, a movement in which the nation-state is regarded as paramount for the realization of social, economic, and cultural aspirations of a people. Nationalism is characterized principally by a feeling of community among a people, based on common descent, language, and religion.
 - *Ethnocentrism*: The belief that one's own ethnic group, nation or religion is superior to all others (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 501).

How do we reduce prejudice?

Berry (1986) states that in plural societies there are two important intergroup issues: the strength of the desire to maintain one's cultural distinctiveness, and the strength of the propensity for interethnic contact. There are four possible outcomes:

- Assimilation occurs when a group surrenders its cultural identity and is absorbed into the larger society (the "melting pot" concept).
- Integration is the result when the group maintains its culture but also interacts with other groups.
- In those cases where intergroup contact is unwelcome and cultural integrity is maintained,

the outcome will either be segregation or separation.

- The final possibility, marginalization, results when the traditional culture is lost and there is little contact with the larger society (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 375).

Sociocultural researchers emphasize the importance of changing people's circumstances, rather than waiting around for individuals to undergo a moral or psychological conversion. They have identified four conditions that must be met before conflict and prejudice between groups can be overcome:

- Both sides must have equal legal status, economic opportunities and power.
- The larger culture - authorities and community institutions - must endorse egalitarian norms and thereby provide moral support and legitimacy for both sides.
- Both sides must have opportunities to work and socialize together, formally and informally.
- Both sides must cooperate, working together for a common goal (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 297).

Why does enhanced contact reduce prejudice and discrimination?

By enhancing or increasing contact between separated or segregated groups, prejudice and discrimination may be reduced for at least four reasons:

- Increased contact might be effective because it leads people to realize that their attitudes are actually more similar than they assumed. The recognition of similarity between people leads to increased liking and attraction.
- Increased contact may have benefits through the mere exposure effect, according to which, the more we come into contact with certain stimuli, the more familiar and liked they become.
- Favourable contact between two groups may lead to an opportunity to disconfirm the negative stereotypes held about them.
- Increased contact may lead to a reduction in outgroup homogeneity, because the outgroup members lose their strangeness and become more differentiated. As a result, they are seen

as a collection of unique individuals rather than interchangeable 'units' (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 471).

What is racism?

Racism is based upon two main ideas. Ethnic allegiance implies that those who belong to a particular ethnic group share common histories, traits and aspirations, and that all those of other ethnic groups are outsiders to be seen as different and possibly dangerous. Social Darwinism implies that those enjoying status and influence owe their position partly to their biological superiority and that it is necessary to protect and enhance their power for the overall good of society (Boyko, 1998, p. 10).

Racism may be broken down into several key components: ethnocentrism, prejudice, stereotypes, social distance and forms of discrimination.

Ethnocentrism refers to the tendency to evaluate and rank all outsiders in terms of one's own particular cultural standards and values. Perceived physical differences are only one potential source for ethnic labelling. Many cultural and behavioural traits, such as style of dress, food habits, language, religion, and even certain occupations may be predominantly associated with a particular ethnic group, by outsiders.

In contrast to ethnocentrism, which focuses on the in-group, prejudice focuses on and is directed toward a specific out-group. Because prejudice, for the most part, is learned through the examples, exhortations and actions of persons whom the growing child trusts and respects, the unsubstantiated racist assumptions behind the prejudice remain unquestioned and untested.

Stereotypes are overgeneralized, rigid, cognitive maps or pictures in our heads based on unsubstantiated and usually sloganized beliefs about members of a given social category.

Among the key components in the definition of racism is the notion of social distance. This concept refers to the quantity and quality of social interaction among individuals and groups. When social distance is reduced and members of different ethnic groups interact more frequently and more informally, social relationships tend to become more intimate and more individualized (Kallen, 1995, p. 41-50).

How is racism related to prejudice?

Prejudice does not necessarily or invariably lead to discrimination. The distinction between prejudice and discrimination lies in the difference between what one thinks, feels and behaves as against what

one does. From a human rights point of view, a critical distinction between prejudice and discrimination is that prejudice, in and of itself, does not violate human rights; discrimination invariably violates human rights (Kallen, 1995, p. 50).

The manner in which racism evolved in Canada can be best understood by seeing racism as a ladder.

The racist ladder's first rung is stereotypes, which are characteristics attributed to a particular group. They are often created and perpetuated by popular culture: newspapers, magazines, cartoons, and later movies, television and other media exploit them as cultural shorthand. Racist jokes also play an important role.

The racist's next step is prejudice, which is the belief that stereotypes are true and that, consequently, all members of a group possess the same characteristics attributed to it.

The ladder's next rung is discrimination, which is an action based on prejudice (Boyko, 1998, p. 11).

Quips and Quotes

Trust men and they will be true to you; treat them gently and they will show themselves great.

Ralph Waldo Emerson

3.3 Social Perception: Overview

This lesson addresses social perception, or the ways in which we infer other people's motives and intentions from observing their behaviour and deciding whether the causes of the behaviour are internal or situational.

Lesson Objectives

- What is social perception?
- How are social perceptions formed and changed?
- How do we select information about others?
- How do we organize the information received in social situations?
- What processes do we use to interpret social information?
- What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?
- What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?
- Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Self-esteem and social comparison
 - To whom do you compare yourself? Why? What qualities or attributes of other people do you find admirable? What do you do when you compare yourself to others and want to be like them?
 - How important is social comparison in the formation and maintenance of self-esteem? Can social comparison ever be avoided or minimized? Should it be?
- Discussion: Social perception
 - Read the poem, *Six Men of Indostan*, and discuss how our perceptions are affected by our sensory systems, as well as our schema and previous experiences.
 - We're not primarily put on this earth to see through one another but to see one another through (Peter DeVries).
- Discussion: Perceptual schema
 - Present a list of people to the students, and for each person, brainstorm the physical, role, interaction, psychological and membership constructs that we form.
 - A list of people might include engineer, doctor, sales person, housewife and accountant.

Making Connections

- Read the autobiography of Helen Keller.
- Research: Sign Language
 - Research the two major types of sign language, and express a poem or song lyrics using sign language.
- Research one of the following social rights activists listed in the Teacher Information section.
- School Code of Conduct
 - Develop a classroom or school code of conduct, in which the basic principles of conduct are described, and guidelines established for how students want to treat and interact with each other.

Resources

- *Interactions: Social Perception: Answering the "Why" question*
- Poetry: *Six Men of Indostan*

Lesson 3.3: Teacher Information

What is social perception?

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

How are social perceptions formed and changed?

Research has shown that people form impressions of each other in two ways. Sometimes people make quick and effortless judgements based on others' physical appearance, facial expressions, or body language. Studies have shown, for example, that people who are physically attractive are perceived to be happy, warm, friendly, successful, confident, and well-adjusted. At other times, however, people form impressions based on a careful observation of a person's behaviour. According to this latter view, people act like amateur scientists, gathering and analyzing behavioural evidence before evaluating others. The explanations for behaviour that people come up with are called attributions, and the theory that describes the process is called *attribution theory* (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 181).

How do we select information about others?

Because we are exposed to more input than we could possibly manage, the first step in perception is the selection of which data we will attend to. There are several factors that cause us to notice some messages and ignore others:

- Stimuli that are intense often attract our attention.
 - Repetitious stimuli also attract our attention. Just as a quiet but steadily dripping faucet can come to dominate our awareness, people to whom we are frequently exposed become noticeable.
 - Attention is also frequently related to contrast or change in stimulation. Put differently, unchanging people or things become less noticeable.
 - Motives determine not only what information we select from our environment but also how we perceive people. For example, someone looking for a romantic adventure

will be especially aware of attractive potential partners (Adler et al., 2001, p. 90).

How do we organize the information received in social situations?

Each of us uses a particular organizing scheme to make sense of the information about others. We do this by using perceptual schema - cognitive frameworks that allow us to organize the raw data we have selected. Five types of schema help us to classify ourselves and others:

- physical constructs
- role constructs
- interaction constructs
- psychological constructs
- membership constructs (Adler et al., 2001, p. 91).

What are some problems and issues in forming impressions of people and situations?

Over the years, research into attribution has shown that when we explain the behaviour of others, we tend to overestimate the role of personal factors and underestimate the influence of situations. This bias is so universal that it has been called the *fundamental attribution error*. In one demonstration of the fundamental attribution error, experimenters randomly assigned subjects to participate in a quiz show in the role of either questioner or contestant. Then in front of the contestant and an observer, the experimenters told the questioner to devise a set of difficult questions to ask the contestant. Not surprisingly, many of the questions—created from the questioner's own store of esoteric knowledge—stumped the contestant. Yet when asked to rate the general knowledge of both participants, observers consistently saw the questioners as more knowledgeable than the contestants. The observers failed to take the situational roles into account and attributed the behaviour they witnessed to each person's level of knowledge.

In forming impressions of others, people are subject to other biases as well. For example, a great deal of research shows that people are often slow to revise their first impressions of others even when those views are not supported by the evidence. Part of the problem is that once we form an impression of someone, we tend to interpret that person's later behaviour in ways that seem to fit our impression. Another problem is that our first impression of someone may shape the way we treat that person—which, in turn, may influence his or her actual behaviour. This process is known as a *self-fulfilling prophecy*. In a classic illustration of this phenomenon, in 1968 American psychologists Robert Rosenthal and Lenore Jacobson told a group

of elementary school teachers that certain students were on the verge of an intellectual growth spurt (in fact, these students were randomly chosen from their classes). By the end of the school year, these designated students—who had received more positive attention from the teachers—actually had higher average test scores than their peers (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 210).

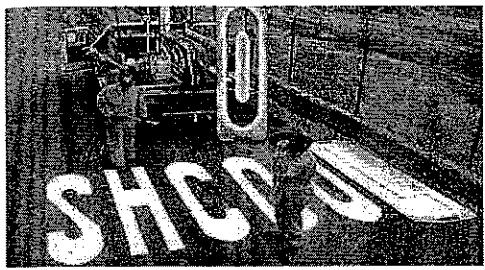
What is the relationship between attribution, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination?

Prejudice is a negative evaluation (attitude) of an entire group of people that is typically based on unfavourable (and often incorrect) ideas or stereotypes about the group. It is usually based on a small sample of experience with an individual from the group being evaluated, or even on no direct experience. Stereotypes are fixed, overly simple, often incorrect, and often negative ideas about traits, attitudes and behaviours attributed to groups of people. When prejudice is translated into behaviour, it is called discrimination (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 464).

Who are some prominent social rights activists, and what did they achieve?

- Rosa Parks
- Rev. Martin Luther King Jr.
- Mahatma Gandhi
- Mother Theresa
- Nelson Mandela

Quips and Quotes



3.3.1 Communication

People often hear the statement that communication is the “key” in social situations and relationships. This lesson investigates the principles, purposes, processes and characteristics of effective communication.

Lesson Objectives

- What is communication?
- What are the purposes of communication?
- What are the different means of communication?
- What are some communication misconceptions?
- What are the characteristics of effective communicators?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Drama: Charades
 - Using any of the modalities (e.g., facial expressions, gestures, body position and movement, touch), ask one student at a time to express one of the following: surprise, shame, love, fear, horror, friendliness, shock, concern or empathy.
- Drama: Marcel Marceaux Charades
 - Assign a situation to a small group of students, have them act it without speaking. Then have the rest of the students guess what the situation involved (e.g., breaking curfew, deciding on a movie, watching a horror show, or meeting someone at the airport).
 - For each situation acted, note what specific clues the students used in determining what happens in the scene.
- Activity: Who's on first?
 - Have two students read aloud Abbot and Costello's hilarious dialogue!
- Media Studies: Watch a television program without the sound, and try to interpret the situation based entirely on the nonverbal cues.
- Research: Proxemics
 - Design and conduct an observational study investigating proxemics and gender, or proxemics and groups (e.g., family, peers, strangers, people in authority).
- Movement: Dance as a medium of communication
 - Ask students to communicate different moods, feelings and emotions.
- Discussion: Communication Bloopers!
 - Enjoy these examples of humorous miscommunication.

Making Connections

- Research propaganda: Communication and brain washing.
- Advertising: How, and what, do we communicate through advertising?
- How to be an effective listener.
- Research: Sign Language
 - Research the two major types of sign language, and express a poem or song lyrics using sign language.

Resources

- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, “Tongue-tied in Tisdale”
- Curriculum Support Materials: Communication Bloopers!

Lesson 3.3.1: Teacher Information

What is communication?

Communication is a continuous, transactional process involving participants who occupy different but overlapping environments and create relationships through the exchange of messages, many of which are affected by external, physiological and psychological noise (Adler et al., 2001, p. 13).

What are the purposes of communication?

Communication allows us to fulfill our physical, identity and social needs, as well as to attain practical goals.

- Physical
 - A lack of social relationships jeopardizes coronary health to a degree that rivals risk factors including cigarette smoking, high blood pressure, blood lipids and lack of physical activity.
 - Socially isolated people are four times more susceptible to the common cold than those who have active social networks.
 - Social isolates are two to three times more likely to die prematurely than are those with strong social ties. The type of relationship does not seem to matter: Marriage, friendship, religious and community ties all seem to increase longevity.
 - Divorced men (before age 70) die from heart disease, cancer and strokes at double the rate of married men. Three times as many die from hypertension; five times as many commit suicide; seven times as many die from cirrhosis of the liver; and ten times as many die from tuberculosis.
 - The rate of cancer is as much as five times higher for divorced men and women, compared with their married counterparts.
 - The likelihood of death increases when a close relative dies. In one Welsh village, citizens who had lost a close relative died within one year at a rate more than five times greater than those who had not suffered from a relative's death.
- Identity Needs
 - Communication is the *only* way we learn who we are. We gain an idea of who we are from the way others define us. People with relatively high self-esteem seek out others who confirm their value and as much as possible avoid those who treat them poorly. Conversely, people who consider themselves as unworthy may look for

relationships in which others treat them badly.

- Social Needs
 - Some social scientists have argued that communication is the principal way relationships are created. Researchers have identified a whole range of social needs we satisfy by communicating: pleasure, affection, inclusion, escape, relaxation and control.
- Practical Goals
 - Communication is the most widely used approach to satisfying what communication scholars call instrumental goals: getting others to behave in ways we want (Adler et al., 2001, p. 4)

What are the different means of communication?

There is a rich source of information about people other than their words: the ways they communicate nonverbally. Nonverbal communication refers to the ways in which people communicate, intentionally or unintentionally, without words;

- body orientation (facing people), posture, gestures
- face and eyes
- voice, touch, physical attractiveness
- clothing
- proxemics (the way people use space)
 - intimate distance
 - personal distance
 - social distance
 - territoriality, a geographical space such as a bedroom
- physical environment
- time management and structure (Adler et al., 2001, p. 244).

In the linear model, communication is like giving an injection. A sender encodes ideas and feelings into some sort of message and then conveys them by means of a channel (speech, writing) into a receiver, who decodes the message.

- Three types of "noise" can disrupt communication - external, physiological and psychological.
- Communicators often occupy different environments (physical, personal experiences and cultural background).

The transactional model suggests that we usually encode, send, receive and decode messages simultaneously, not in a back and forth manner

suggested by the linear model (Adler et al., 2001, p. 8).

What are some communication misconceptions?

- Meanings are not in words.
- More communication is not always better.
- No single person or event causes another's reaction.
- Communication will not solve all problems.
- Communication is not a natural ability.
- There is no "ideal" way to communicate.
- Competence is situational.
- Competence is relational (Adler et al., 2001, p. 16).

What are the characteristics of effective communicators?

- Ability to choose their communication styles from a wide range of behaviours.
- Ability to choose the most effective behaviours in a particular situation.
- Skilled at performing those behaviours.
- Cognitive complexity, or the ability to construct a variety of different frameworks for viewing an issue.
- Self-monitoring, or the process of paying close attention to one's behaviour and using these observations to shape the way one behaves.
- Commitment (Adler et al., 2001, p. 31).

3.3.2 Influences on perceptions

Quips and Quotes

What a different world this would be if people would magnify their blessings the way they magnify their troubles.

Anonymous

This lesson addresses four significant influences on our perceptions: biology, culture, gender and self-esteem.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the physiological influences on our perceptions?
- In what ways does culture influence the accuracy of our perceptions?
- What influence does self-esteem have on our social perceptions?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Coping and resiliency
 - What do you do when things are really going wrong? What coping skills have you developed? What about your family's coping skills and resiliency? Are there people you know who seem to be able to cope well with stress, pressure and difficult situations? What do they do?
- Discussion: Masculinity and femininity
 - What does it mean to be feminine? What qualities do you admire in females? What does it mean to be masculine? What qualities do you admire in males? Do you consider yourself to be more masculine, feminine or androgynous? Why? What have been the most powerful influences on your gender identity?
- Discussion: Gender and perception
 - Ask the students to list adjectives that correspond to their understanding of the terms masculine and feminine.
 - Based on those descriptors (schema), discuss the stereotypes involved.
 - What are the influences of the media on people's images of masculinity and femininity?
 - Discuss the term, androgyny, and how it might relate to student's concepts of what it means to be "masculine" or "feminine".
- Activity: Gender
 - Refer to the Curriculum Support Materials for gender traits. Duplicate one copy for each student. Distribute a blue and a pink sheet of paper to each student. Direct the students to cut out the attributes and glue "masculine traits" onto the blue sheet and "feminine traits" onto the pink sheet. Discuss the results with the class.
 - Distribute a purple sheet. Direct the students to remove those traits from either the blue or pink sheet that would apply to both genders, and glue them onto the purple sheet. Discuss the results with the class.
- Discussion: Self-esteem and social comparison
 - To whom do the students compare themselves? Why? What qualities or attributes of other people do the students find admirable? What do the students do when they compare themselves to others and want to be like them?
 - How important is social comparison in the formation and maintenance of self-esteem? Can social comparison ever be avoided or minimized? Should it be?
- Research: Groups, gangs and membership
 - What are the processes by which groups become gangs?
 - Why and how do gangs form?
 - What techniques do groups or gangs use to maintain a sense of identity?
- *Interactions:* Self-concept
- *Interactions:* Dear Pat, "Positive in Prince Albert"

Making Connections

Resources

Lesson 3.3.2: Teacher Information

What are the physiological influences on our perceptions?

There are several physiological influences on social perceptions:

- The senses: For example, the loudness of your stereo, whether it is too hot or too cold in the house, smells and tastes of food.
- Age: Older people often view the world differently from younger people because they have a greater scope and number of experiences. There are also developmental differences that shape perceptions, for example, Piaget's stages of cognitive development.
- Health: recall the last time you came down with a cold, flu or some other ailment. Do you remember how different you felt?
- Fatigue: Just as being ill can affect your relationships, so can being overly tired. Again, it is important to recognize the fact that you or someone else may behave differently when fatigued.
- Hunger: People often get grumpy when they have not eaten. A number of important physiological changes occur as we eat and become hungry again.
- Biological cycles: Each of us is in a daily cycle in which all sorts of changes constantly occur, including body temperature, sexual drive, alertness, tolerance to stress, and mood. Most of these changes are due to hormonal cycles. For instance, adrenal hormones, which affect feelings of stress, are secreted at higher rates during some hours (Adler et al., 2001, p. 97).

In what ways does culture influence the accuracy of our perceptions?

Collectivist societies, which include most traditional pre-industrial societies and, to a large extent, the predominantly Catholic countries of Southern Europe and Latin America, as well as most Asian and African cultures, are characterized by an emphasis on family and community-based relations and values. The members of one's primary "in-group" - that is, one's kin, one's immediate neighbourhood community, and in the case of modern industrial societies, one's work group - are the primary sources of demands and rewards, and the primary arbiters of what is desirable, what is permissible and what is unthinkable. In short, in

collectivist societies it is in-group norms and role relations that provide both the motivating force that drives the individual and the compass from which the person takes direction.

Individualistic cultures, which, not coincidentally, predominate in the nations of Western Europe that gave rise to the Protestant Reformation, as well as North America, show opposite orientations. They are characterized by an emphasis on personal goals, interests, and preferences. Social relationships are dictated by commonality of interests and aspirations and are therefore subject to change as those interests and aspirations shift over time. In such societies the individual's choices, whether of dress, diet, friends, occupation, or spouse, are relatively free of the dictates of family, neighbours or others to whom one might be linked in traditional role relations (Nisbett and Ross, 1991, p. 181).

What influence does self-esteem have on our social perceptions?

Self-esteem is the extent to which our self-evaluations are favourable or not. Many factors play a role, including early experiences with family members, with friends, and at school. One major factor seems to involve social comparison - a process in which we compare ourselves with others. Research findings indicate that self-esteem is extremely important to our well-being. In fact, self-esteem may actually be beneficial to our physical as well as our emotional health. Persons high in self-esteem appear to be more resistant to disease than persons low in self-esteem. That is, their immune systems seem to operate more effectively (Baron et al., 1998, p. 515).

Quips and Quotes

Society is built upon trust and trust upon confidence in one another's integrity.

Robert South

3.3.3 Attributions: Asking the Why? Question

Why do people act that way in certain situations? Why do I act that way in certain situations? This lesson addresses those questions by examining the processes by which people infer the motivations for behaviour.

Lesson Objectives

- What processes do we use in trying to understand why a person acted in a particular way?
- What processes do we use in trying to understand our own feelings and behaviours?
- What are some biases in our causal explanations of the behaviour of others?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Self-esteem and social comparison
 - To whom do students compare themselves? Why? What qualities or attributes of other people do students find admirable? What do students do when they compare themselves to others and want to be "like them"?
 - How important is social comparison in the formation and maintenance of self-esteem? Can social comparison ever be avoided or minimized? Should it be?
- Think-Pair-Share: Cultural influences, social perception and behaviour
 - Based on the table provided, reflect on the differences between a collectivist and individualistic society's perspective and approach towards the following:
 - education
 - health care
 - senior citizens or Elders
 - social supports such as welfare and unemployment assistance
 - the role of women in society
 - employment equity
 - marriage
 - sports
 - competition
 - business and commerce.
- Discussion: Consider both the dispositional and situational aspects to the following questions:
 - Why does road rage happen?
 - Why do people gamble?
 - Why do people smoke?
 - Why do people join gangs?
 - Why do people get married?
 - Why do people take dares?
 - Why do people participate in "extreme" sports?
 - Why are some people prejudiced and bigoted?
 - Why do people volunteer?
 - Why do some people persevere, and others give up?
 - Why are people aggressive?

Resources

- *Interactions:* Dear Pat, "Confused in Coronach"

Lesson 3.3.3: Teacher Information

What processes do we use in trying to understand why a person acted in a particular way?

In seeking to understand people's behaviour, we use two general categories of causes, situational and dispositional, and within each general category, employ several techniques to infer causal explanations for behaviour:

- **Situational causes** are those that explain actions in terms of a social setting or environment. Smoking, for example, can be explained as the custom of smoking with coffee, a social norm of behaviour.
- **Dispositional attributions** are those that rest on the characteristics of the person, for example, smoking as an inability to resist temptation or control impulses (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 42).

What processes do we use in trying to understand our own feelings and behaviours?

People figure out the causes of their behaviour using the same type of theories and evidence that they would use in making judgements about other people. People are no more accurate in reporting the factors that influence their own behaviour than they are in predicting what factors cause other people's behaviours. This lack of awareness of our own cognitive processes blinds us to the possibility that someone else, differently situated, might construe the same objects in a different way. When we find that someone else has attributed the cause of behaviour differently from us, we leap to conclusions about unusual dispositions or strong motives on the part of the other person (Nisbett and Ross, 1991, p. 44).

What are some biases in our causal explanations of the behaviour of others?

Biases can have a profound effect on the process of attribution:

- **Fundamental attribution bias:** the tendency to exaggerate the importance of dispositional or personal factors and to underestimate the influence of other people and other aspects of the situation (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 48).
- **Actor/Observer bias:** People are more likely to attribute the actions of others to stable trait dispositions, but their own behaviour to situational factors. Why the difference? One

reason is that they have different perspectives from which to view the same event. Also, actors and observers have access to different information (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 49).

- **Self-serving bias:** Protecting our ego and self-esteem as well as presenting a positive image to others are important to people, thus, people tend to attribute their own success to internal factors and their failure to external factors. These attributions refer to our tendency to take credit for our successes but to blame others (or the situation) for our failures. Self-serving attributions can result from either of two processes: (a) the lack of, or difference of, information available to them, and thus reach different conclusions about why the behaviour occurred or (b) the need to bolster self-esteem (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 50).
- **Defensive attributions:** Explanations that defend us from feelings of vulnerability and mortality. Some defensive attributions include unrealistic optimism about the future, believing that bad things only happen to bad people or the assumption that people get what they deserve, and by "blaming the victim" as being responsible for their own bad fortune (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 51).
- **The illusion of control:** Much of what happens in life is beyond our control. Perhaps in response, people cling to an illusion of control, an exaggerated belief in their own capacity to determine what happens to them in life (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 51).
- **Self-blame:** Miller and Porter (1983) present the following, rather unexpected findings: (1) Victims often exaggerate their own responsibility for the event and its consequences; and (2) the degree of self-blame is often positively related to how successfully the person will cope. Self-blame may enable the person to maintain the illusion of control in life, which can be channelled into constructive coping strategies. In addition, self-blame is one way to impose meaning on an otherwise incomprehensible event (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 52).
- **Cultural bias:** Western culture teaches us to prefer dispositional explanations. People in Western cultures appear to be more like personality psychologists, viewing behaviour in dispositional terms, whereas people in Eastern cultures seem to be more like social psychologists, viewing behaviour in situational terms (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 53).

Quips and Quotes

The challenge is to be yourself in a world that is trying to make you like everybody else.

Anonymous

3.4 Self-understanding: How do you develop a sense of yourself in the world?

This section continues the process of guiding students to a better understanding of themselves as active participants in the social world.

Lesson Objectives

- What is self-concept?
- How do we develop a self-concept?
- How do we change a self-concept?
- What are the cultural influences on self-concept?
- How does gender influence self-concept?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Self-concept
 - Using the information provided in Teacher Information, discuss with the students the four aspects that together constitute our self-concept.
 - Invite each student to complete his/her own version of the template, identifying from a personal point of view his/her self-image, level of self-esteem, ideal self and degree of self-efficacy.
- Discussion: Assessing self-image
 - One way of assessing self-image is to ask people to answer the question Who am I? 20 times. This typically produces two main categories of answers relating to social roles and personality traits.
 - Based on the student's answers, discuss both the social roles and personality traits that the students listed.
- Discussion: Internal and external factors in self-concept
 - List and describe those internal and external factors that together have profoundly influenced student's lives.
 - Which of those factors could be changed to some degree, and which are relatively stable?
 - What factors do individuals control?
- Debate: Theoretical perspectives and self-concept
 - Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group of students. Direct each group to prepare a series of arguments in support of its theoretical perspective on how people develop a self-concept.
 - Pair the groups off and conduct an informal debate.

Making Connections

- Research: Gender development
 - How do the six major theories of psychology explain or describe the process of gender development?
- Interview: Changing role of women
 - How has the role and definition of what it means to be "female" changed since the time of student's grandmother or mother? Interview a family member or friend to get his/her perspective on the changing role of women in our society.

Resources

- *Interactions: Self-concept*
- *Interactions: Dear Pat, "Supportive in Saskatoon"*

Lesson 3.4: Teacher Information

What is self-concept?

The self-concept has four components: self-image, self-esteem (or self-regard), ideal-self and self-efficacy.

- Self-image is the sort of person we think we are. One way of assessing self-image is to ask people to answer the question Who Am I? 20 times. This typically produces two main categories of answers relating to social roles and personality traits. Self-image also includes body image (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 402).
- While self-image is essentially descriptive, self-esteem is essentially evaluative. Self-esteem is the extent to which we like or approve of ourselves, and how worthwhile we think we are (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 402).
- The ideal-self is the kind of person you would like to be. In general, the greater the gap between self-image and ideal-self, the lower the self-esteem (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 403).
- According to Bandura (1977), self-efficacy, or one's expectations of success in a given situation, is an important determinant of whether one will attempt to make changes in one's environment. Each day, we make many decisions based on our perceptions of the extent to which our actions will produce reinforcement. Our actions are based on our evaluations of our competency. Moreover, self-efficacy not only determines whether we will engage in a particular behaviour, it also determines the extent to which we will maintain that behaviour in the face of adversity (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 461).

Research findings indicate that while each person's self-concept is unique, almost everyone's self-concept contains information relating to the following categories:

- Interpersonal attributes (I'm a student, I'm a brother, I play football).
- Existential aspects (I'm a unique person, I'm attractive).
- Internalized beliefs (I'm pro-choice, I'm an environmentalist).
- Self-awareness (I'm a good person, my beliefs fit well together).

- Social differentiation: (I'm middle class, I'm male, I'm from the Prairies).
- Self-determination: (I can reach my goals, I am religious).
- Interests and activities: (I enjoy music, I like to cook).
- Ascribed characteristics: (I'm a man, I'm 18 years old, I am Canadian) (Baron et al., 1998, p. 502).

How do we develop a self-concept?

Aspects of the self-concept develop by degrees, rather than clearly defined stages. Whilst young children may know their own names and understand the limits of their own bodies, they may not yet be able to think about themselves as coherent entities. Self-awareness or self-consciousness, develops very gradually (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 404).

How do we change a self-concept?

Four ways children's self-esteem can be improved are through

- (1) identifying the causes of low self-esteem and the domains of competence important to the self, people have the highest self-esteem when they perform competently in domains important to the self.
- (2) emotional support and social approval, including both adult and peer approval.
- (3) achievement, which has much in common with Bandura's cognitive social learning concept of self-efficacy, which refers to individuals' beliefs that they can master a situation and produce positive outcomes, and
- (4) coping with a problem rather than avoiding it. If coping rather than avoidance prevails, people often face problems realistically, honestly and nondefensively. This produces favourable self-evaluative thoughts, which lead to the self-generated approval that raises self-esteem (Santrock, 1999, p. 314).

What are the cultural influences on self-concept?

Individualistic cultures	Collectivist cultures
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Self is separate, unique individual; should be independent, self-sufficient• Individual should take care of him/her self and immediate family• Many flexible group memberships; friends based on shared interests and activities• Reward for individual achievement and initiative; individual decisions encouraged; individual credit and blame assigned• High value on autonomy, change, youth, individual security, equality	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• People belong to extended families or in-groups; "we" or group orientation• Person should take care of extended family before Self• Emphasis on belonging to a very few permanent in-groups that have a strong influence over the person• Reward for contribution to group goals and well-being; co-operation with in-group members; group decisions valued; credit and blame shared• High value on duty, order, tradition, age, group security, status and hierarchy

Source: Adler et al., 2001, p. 61

How does gender influence self-concept?

In the 1970s, as both males and females became dissatisfied with the burdens imposed by their stereotypical roles, alternatives to masculinity and femininity were proposed. Instead of describing masculinity and femininity as a continuum in which more of one means less of the other, it was proposed that individuals could have both masculine and feminine traits. This thinking led to the development of androgyny, which refers to the presence of desirable masculine and feminine characteristics in the same person. The androgynous male might be assertive (masculine) and nurturant (feminine). The androgynous female might be powerful (masculine) and sensitive to the feelings of others (feminine) (Santrock, 1999, p. 318).

<p>Quips and Quotes</p> <p>Self-esteem comes from doing esteemable acts.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Anonymous</p>	<h3>3.4.1 Development of self-concept</h3> <p>You cannot offer yourself to someone else in a relationship until you know what you are offering. This lesson addresses one of the foundational objectives of the curriculum guide, self-understanding.</p>
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<p>Lesson Objectives</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is a self-concept? • How does the self-concept develop? • What influences the development of a self-concept? • How important is your self-concept? • What do we do when our self-concept is threatened? • What are the cultural influences on self-concept and identity? 	<p>Suggested Instructional Strategies</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct • Independent • Interactive • Indirect • Experiential <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discussion: “Feel Like A Number” <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Using the lyrics from the song, discuss instances in which people have depersonalized others in our classroom, school and community. Have students ever felt depersonalized? Have them describe the situations. • Role Play: Defense mechanisms <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Based on the 10 types of defense mechanisms described in the Teacher Information section, have small groups of students role play various defense mechanisms. • Reflection and Review: Self-concept <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Refer back to the Who I am template that the students completed at the end of Unit Two: Who am I? ◦ In what ways do the entries listed reinforce students’ self-concepts? Are some more important than others? Do some aspects of students’ self-concepts change in relative importance over time, or in different situations? • Discussion: Significant others <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Who are the significant others in students’ lives? In what ways have they influenced students’ lives? Are students significant others for someone else? What qualities do they possess such that they could be a significant other? • Discussion: To be who we are is an accomplishment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Discuss with the students the four aspects of self-identity and concept: change, coordination, trust and respect. ◦ How are these aspects being met in students’ lives? How are students responding to these needs in others through their relationships? • Discussion/Research: Cultural industries and self-concept <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ What role do the fashion industries of beauty, fashion and music have on the development of self-concept? • Research: Your identity development from infancy to adolescence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◦ Were there stages to each student’s identity development? How did he/she develop a self-concept?
<p>Resources</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Interactions</i>: Dear Pat, “Doubtful in Davidson” • Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model • Media: “Feel Like A Number,” by Bob Seger, from the album <i>Stranger In Town</i>. • <u>Music lyrics website</u> 	

Lesson 3.4.1: Teacher Information

What is a self-concept?

The self-concept is defined as the sum of feelings, beliefs and impressions that individuals have of themselves - the self perceiving the self (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 68).

According to Carl Rogers (1980), the self is the part of experience that a person identifies with "I" or "me". Those who accurately experience the self - with all the preferences, abilities, fantasies, shortcomings and desires - are on the road to self-actualization (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 424).

How does the self-concept develop?

Identity formation is the central task of adolescents according to Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. According to Erikson (1963) issues in late adolescence - graduating from high school, going to college and forging relationships - challenge the adolescent's self-concept, precipitating an identity crisis. In this crisis, the adolescent must develop an integrated self-image as a unique person by pulling together self-knowledge acquired during childhood. If infancy and childhood brought trust, autonomy and initiative, according to Erikson, the adolescent will resolve the identity crisis positively, feeling self-confident and competent. If, however, infancy and childhood resulted in feelings of mistrust, shame, guilt and inferiority, the adolescent will be confused about his or her identity and goals (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 362).

Cooley (1902) argued that we construct our self-concepts from how we appear to others, which is then reflected back to us - what he called the looking-glass self. There are several processes by which "reflection" enables us to construct our ideas and impressions of ourselves:

- Social Identity refers to those aspects of a person's self-image that depend upon the social categories and groups to which he or she belongs. Turner (1982) describes social identification as a three-part process. First, there is social categorization: individuals perceive themselves and others in terms of membership in distinct categories or groups. Second, the typical norms, attitudes and behaviours that distinguish the groups determine behaviour to a large degree. Third, individuals conform to the stereotypes associated with the group (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 70).

- Perhaps most central to your social identity is your gender - male or female. What does "masculinity" and "femininity" mean? What is called masculinity has been described as instrumentality or agency, a concern with achieving goals and being active in the world, while femininity is described as expressiveness or communion, being other-centered and concerned with interpersonal relationships.
- Self-perception theory suggests that people become aware of their own attitudes, feelings, values, dispositions and other internal characteristics in the same way that they form impressions of the characteristics of others - through observation of their own behaviour. The notion of self-knowledge through self-perception implies that, rather than thinking about what we really believe in, and then acting on those beliefs, we first act and then discover our beliefs and values from our own actions.
- Social comparison is based on three premises:
 - Humans have a drive to evaluate their own opinions, feelings and abilities, and want to feel confident that they are accurate.
 - In the absence of objective or nonsocial bases of assessment, individuals will evaluate themselves in comparison with others.
 - People tend to compare themselves with someone similar to themselves in opinion, background or ability. In general, people compare themselves to someone equal when the goal is self-assessment, to someone better when the goal is self-improvement, and to someone inferior when the goal is self-enhancement (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 70-72).

What influences the development of a self-concept?

The society in which we live, or the ethnic group to which we belong, shapes many of our beliefs, values and behaviours - and these play important roles in shaping the character of the personality. Dion and Dion (1993) argue that members of collectivist and individualistic cultures think differently about love and marriage. Their thesis is that romantic conceptualizations of love flourish only in individualistic cultures. Why? Because romantic notions of love and marriage focus narrowly on the specific needs of the individual. Romantic love is "selfish" in the dictionary sense of "seeking or concentrating on one's own welfare or advantage." Each individual has an idealized notion of a relationship with another that will bring him or her great gratification. Members of individualistic

societies assume they have the right to enter into such self-satisfying relationships and tend to display only marginal concern about the possible reactions of others.

In a collectivist society, on the other hand, the individual has a deep interactive dependency with his or her family and reference group, and a more extended self-concept. In such societies, the individual must carefully consider the degree to which a prospective partner will fit into this relationship. In short, the self-concept that characterizes collectivist societies does not allow love and marriage to be considered exclusively in terms of the narrow interests of the individual (Baron et al., 1998, p. 519).

The Ashanti people of West Africa name children according to the day of the week on which they are born because they believe they have different personalities. Police records indicated that a very high proportion of juvenile delinquents were born on a Wednesday (the day of the "naturally aggressive" personality), whilst a very low proportion were born on a Monday (the day of the "quiet and calm" personality). If Ashanti boys were treated in a way consistent with their names, they may consequently become what their names indicate they are really like (a self-fulfilling prophecy) (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 405).

In Maori culture, a person is invested with a certain kind of power (mana), given by the gods in accordance with family status and birth circumstances. This enables a person to be effective, whether in battle or everyday dealings with others. However, this power is not a stable resource but can be increased or decreased by the person's day-to-day conduct. A person who forgot a ritual observance or committed some misdemeanor would have his or her power decreased. A person's social standing, successes and failures, and so on are seen as dependent on external sources rather than internal states (such as personality or motivation). Indeed, mana is only one of the external forces which inhabit a person. Instead of representing themselves as the centre and origin of their actions (which is crucial to the Western concept of the self), the individual Maori do not own experiences such as fear, anger, love and grief. Rather, these experiences are visitations governed by the unseen world of powers and forces (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 407).

How important is your self-concept?

Persons with high self-esteem

Are likely to think well of others.
Expect to be accepted by others.
Evaluate their own performance more favourably than people with low self-esteem.
Perform well when being watched: not afraid of the reaction of others.
Work harder for people who demand high standards of performance.
Are inclined to feel comfortable with others they view as superior in some way.
Are able to defend themselves against negative comments of others.

Persons with low self-esteem

Are likely to disapprove of others.
Expect to be rejected by others.
Evaluate their own performance less favourably than people with high self-esteem.
Perform poorly when being watched: are sensitive to possible negative reaction.
Work harder for undemanding, less critical people.
Feel threatened by people they view as superior in some way.
Have difficulty defending themselves against other people's negative comments; more easily influenced.

Source: Hamachek, D. (1982). *Encounters with the Self* (2nd Edition). New York NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

What do we do when our self-concept is threatened?

When threatened, we all do our best to keep some kind of balance. We protect our inner selves from too much attack by using defense mechanisms:

- When we use repression we do not allow ourselves to remain aware of painful material; we push it out of consciousness. Repression is usually unhealthy.
- When we engage in denial, we refuse to admit that anything bad has happened. In some ways, denial is similar to repression. With repression, though, we are at least partly aware of the problem, and then we push it out of consciousness. With denial, we do not let the problem into consciousness in the first place.

-
- Sometimes we have trouble directly expressing what we feel because of the threat (real or imagined) that something terrible will happen as a result. So we vent our feelings elsewhere or on someone else, engaging in displacement.
 - In reaction formation, what we express is the opposite of what we really feel. Reaction formation is sometimes a little hard to see in operation, since we can not read people's minds.
 - When the emotions we feel are too overwhelming, we may try to eliminate them altogether. Talking coolly and rationally about a tragedy as if it were simply an event that we had observed is called intellectualization. We have taken all of the feelings out of our description.
 - Identification with the aggressor occurs when we are mistreated for a long time by someone much more powerful than we are, and begin to take on that person's characteristics. We begin to identify with him or her, or try to gain favour.
 - With regression we defend ourselves by "moving backward" and behaving like children. This defense is an extreme reaction to the frustration of having to be an adult and take responsibility. We regress to a time when we were helpless children and someone had to take care of us.
 - With rationalization we explain what we do in such a way that we avoid any responsibility for a bad outcome.
 - Projection refers to the process of mentally giving to someone else our own thoughts or feelings. A continued pattern of such behaviour is self-destructive, since it does not help us face up to how we might be causing the problem.
 - Sublimation occurs when we channel our emotional energy into a constructive or creative activity. It is the only defense mechanism that is truly healthy and adaptive (McMahon and Romano, 2000, p. 476-480).

Quips and Quotes

Your greatest contribution to the sum total of things is yourself.

Anonymous

3.4.2 Culture and the Self

The predominant culture, or indeed subculture, has a profound influence on the development and maintenance of the self-concept. This lesson addresses the nature of being Western or Eastern in cultural background.

Lesson Objectives

- What does culture mean?
- What influence does culture have on self-concept?
- Does your cultural background influence your general health and outlook on life?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Individualist/collectivist cultures
 - Compare and contrast the various aspects of individualist versus collectivist cultures. Does this necessarily mean one culture is “right” or “better”?
- Reflection: My medicine wheel
 - In what ways has your culture influenced your development in the four aspects of your being: physical, mental, emotional and spiritual?
- Discussion: The Chinese Zodiac
 - Does the Chinese Zodiac describe student’s basic personalities?
- Think/Pair/Share: Cultural heritage
 - Have students describe their culture. Include in the description the cultural heritage that they inherited, as well as the family culture, community culture, provincial culture and national culture.
 - How is your culture represented or described in the following:
 - education
 - roles of men, women, seniors and children
 - social supports and services
 - career choices
 - parenting and child rearing
 - role, expectations and rights of adolescents?
- Discussion: Cultural norms
 - What is considered to be abnormal behaviour in our culture?
 - What are the cultural norms for the following:
 - dress, clothing or fashion
 - manners
 - individual rights versus the rights of society
 - social behaviour
 - peer relationships
 - gender behaviour
 - career choices?

Making Connections

- Discussion: Different kinds of culture
 - What are the different kinds of cultures (e.g., school, family, community, peers, classroom, religious) that exist in the student’s community?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Chinese Zodiac
- Website that discusses culture

Lesson 3.4.2: Teacher Information

What does culture mean?

Culture has been defined as the accumulation of values, rules of behaviour, forms of expression, religious beliefs, occupational choices, and the like for a group of people who share a common language and environment. As such, culture is an organizing and stabilizing influence. It encourages or discourages particular behaviours and mental processes. It also allows people to understand others and anticipate their behaviour. It is a kind of group adaptation passed by tradition and example rather than by genes, from one generation to the next. Culture determines, for example, whether children's education is concerned with hunting or reading, how close people stand when they talk to each other, and whether or not they form lines in public places (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 17).

What influence does culture have on self-concept?

Individualistic cultures

- Self is separate, unique individual; should be independent, self-sufficient.
- Individuals should take care of themselves and immediate family.
- Many flexible group memberships; friends based on shared interests and activities.
- Reward for individual achievement and initiative; individual decisions encouraged; individual credit and blame assigned.
- High value on autonomy, change, youth, individual security, equality.

Collectivist cultures

- People belong to extended families or in-groups; "we" or group orientation.
- Person should take care of extended family before Self.
- Emphasis on belonging to a very few permanent in-groups which have a strong influence over the person.
- Reward for contribution to group goals and well-being; co-operation with in-group members; group decisions valued; credit and blame shared.
- High value on duty, order, tradition, age, group security, status and hierarchy

Does your cultural background influence your general health and outlook on life?

Cultures differ in their degree of fatalism and in their beliefs about whether it is possible to take control over their health. For example, in Germany, which has a highly structured social welfare system, people feel they have more psychological control over their health and work than Americans do. Might these cultural attitudes be related to mortality rates? The answer, remarkably, seems to be yes. In traditional Chinese astrology, certain birth years are considered unlucky, and people born in those years often fatalistically expect bad fortune. This expectation can become a self-fulfilling prophecy. In a study of many thousands of people matched by age and cause of death, Chinese-Americans who had been born in a year traditionally considered to be ill-fated died significantly earlier - one to five years earlier! - than whites who had been born in the same year and who had the same disease. The more strongly traditional the Chinese were, the more years of life they lost. These results held for nearly all causes of death studied, even when the researchers controlled for how well the patients took care of themselves and which treatments they were given (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 558).

Quips and Quotes

Be your best. The worst disappointment you can experience is disappointment in yourself.

Anonymous

3.4.3 Gender and the Self

What does it mean to be masculine or feminine? What influence does gender bring to bear on our self-understanding? This lesson address the key questions and concepts in terms of gender identity and roles.

Lesson Objectives

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

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The Ecological Model
 - Based on the ecological model, discuss how the various systems influence the development of a gender role and concept.
- Discussion: Gender differences
 - Read the Curriculum Support Material, Gender Differences. Are Gray's descriptions accurate?
 - What, if any, stereotypes or biases are there in Gray's description?
 - How might Gray describe androgynous people?
 - What are the implications of Gray's theory in terms of the implications and strategies to enhance and promote communication, intimacy, relationships, conflict, parenting, career choices, leadership roles, role of media, role of cultural industries, education and self-concept?
- Independent: Develop your own theory of gender development
 - Direct the students to create their own theories of personality development. Students should be prepared to support their theories with examples from real-life situations.
- Jigsaw: Theories of gender development
 - Divide the class in to six groups. Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Have each group write a role play based on its theoretical perspective that illustrates student's interpretation or explanation of gender development.
- Research: Gender
 - Design and conduct an investigation based on the following question: If you could swap genders, would you? Why?
- Research: Gender differences
 - Divide the class into six groups. Assign one of each of the gender differences listed in Teacher Information to each group.
 - Design and conduct a research project investigating the type of gender difference assigned.

Making Connections

- Research the statistics on gender and gang membership.
- What stereotypes exist for women? What stereotypes exist for men?
- Research the topic of gender equity.
- Historical research: Women's suffrage in Canada.

Resources

- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Viewing in Viscount"
- Curriculum Support Materials: Gender differences
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 3.4.3: Teacher Information

What does gender mean?

Gender identity is our classification of ourselves (and others) as male or female, boy or girl, and so on. Gender role refers to the behaviours, attitudes, beliefs and so on which a particular society either expects from, or considers appropriate to, males and females on the basis of their biological sex. To be masculine or feminine, therefore, requires males and females to conform to their respective gender roles (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 393).

How does a gender identity develop?

- *Biological:* Supporters of a biological approach to gender development argue that males and females are biologically programmed for certain kinds of activities compatible with male and female roles.
- *Humanistic theory:* Rogers assumes that each person responds as an organized whole to reality as he or she perceives it. Rogers emphasized self-actualization, which he described as an innate tendency towards growth that motivates all human behaviour. To Rogers, personality is the expression of each individual's self-actualizing tendency as it unfolds in that individual's unique, perceived reality. Central to Rogers' theory is the self, the part of experience that a person identifies as "I" or "Me".
- *Sociobiological theory:* Sociobiologists (evolutionary theorists) argue that gender has gradually evolved over the course of human development as part of our broader adaptation to the environment. The relatively greater physical strength and lung capacity of males make them better suited to hunting and defending territory and family. The child-bearing and milk-producing capacities of females, however, make them ideally suited to childcare and other nurturant roles.
- *Psychoanalytic theory:* Freud's theory is related to his explanation of moral development. Up until the resolution of the Oedipus complex, gender identity is assumed to be flexible. Resolution of the Oedipus complex occurs through identification with the same-sex parent, and results in the acquisition of both a superego and gender identity. As well as a weaker conscience, Freud also saw the development of gender identity as being weaker in girls than boys.
- *Social learning theory:* According to social learning theory, one reason girls and boys learn to behave differently is that they are *treated differently* by their parents. Social learning theory emphasizes the roles of observational learning and reinforcement. By observing others behaving in particular ways and then imitating that behaviour, children receive reinforcement from significant others for behaviours considered to be sex-appropriate.
- *Cognitive-developmental:* The cognitive-developmental approach emphasizes the child's participation in developing both an understanding of gender and gender-appropriate behaviour. Children's discovery of the fact that they are male or female causes them to identify with members of the same sex (not the other way around as psychoanalytic and social learning theories suggest). According to cognitive-developmental psychologists, young children acquire an understanding of the concepts male and female in three stages:
 - Gender labelling or basic gender identity: This occurs somewhere around age three and refers to the child's recognition that it is male or female.
 - Gender stability: By age four or five, most children recognize that people retain their gender for a lifetime. However, there are limitations, in that children rely on superficial signs such as the hair length to determine the gender.
 - Gender constancy: At around age six or seven, children realize that gender is immutable. Gender constancy represents a kind of conservation and, significantly, appears shortly after the child has mastered conservation of quantity (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 396-400).

What are the differences between the genders?

Santrock (1999) states that genuine behavioural differences do exist between the sexes and people's stereotypes are not entirely inaccurate. But the differences are fewer in number, smaller in size and far more complex than stereotypes suggest.

- *Physical/Biological:* From conception on, females are less likely to die than males. Females also are less likely than males to develop physical or mental disorders. Estrogen strengthens the immune system, making females more resistant to infection. Males have twice the risk of coronary disease as females. On average, males grow to be about 10 percent taller than females.

- **Cognitive abilities:** In the cognitive domain, it appears that there are three genuine gender differences. First, on the average, females tend to exhibit slightly better verbal skills than males. Second, starting in high school, males show a slight advantage on tests of mathematical ability. Third, starting in the grade school years, males tend to score higher than females on various measures of visual-spatial ability.
- **Social behaviour and personality:** First, studies indicate that males tend to be more aggressive than females, both verbally and physically. This disparity shows up in early childhood. Second, there are gender differences in nonverbal communication. The evidence indicates that females are more sensitive than males to subtle nonverbal cues. Females also smile and gaze at others more than males. Third, females appear to be slightly more susceptible to persuasion and conforming to group pressure than males are. Fourth, males are more sexually active than females are, and they have more permissive attitudes about causal, premarital and extramarital sex. Finally, males score higher on assertiveness scales, whereas females score higher on measures of anxiety, trust, empathy and nurturance. Sixth, females are more relationship-oriented than males, and that this relationship-orientation should be prized as a more important skill in our culture than it is currently held to be.
- **Communication:** Sociologist Deborah Tannen (1990) distinguishes between rapport talk and report talk. Rapport talk is the language of conversation and a way of establishing connections and negotiating relationships. Report talk is talk that gives information. Males hold centre stage through report talk, while females prefer private, rapport talk and conversation that is relationship-oriented.
- **Aggression:** One of the most consistent gender differences is that boys are more aggressive than girls. Another is that boys are more active than girls. The aggression difference is especially pronounced when children are provoked. These differences occur across cultures and appear very early in children's development. Biological factors include heredity and hormones. Environmental factors include cultural expectations, adult and peer models, and social agents who reward aggression in males and punish aggression in females.
- **Emotional control:** An important skill is to be able to regulate and control your emotions and behaviour. Males usually show less self-regulation than females, and this low self-control

can translate into behavioural problems. In one study, children's low self-regulation was linked with greater aggression, teasing others, overreaction to frustration, low cooperation and inability to delay gratification (Santrock, 1999, p. 316-318).

Males value power, competency, efficiency and achievement. They are always doing things to prove themselves and develop their power and skills. Their sense of self is defined through their ability to achieve results. Males are solution-oriented. They experience fulfilment primarily through success and accomplishment. Males are more concerned with outdoor activities, like hunting, fishing and racing cars. They are interested in the news, weather and sports and couldn't care less about romance novels and self-help books. Males are more interested in "objects" and "things" rather than people and feelings. While women fantasize about romance, men fantasize about powerful cars, faster computers, gadgets, gizmos, and new more powerful technology. Men are preoccupied with the "things" that can help them express power by creating results and achieving their goals. Achieving their goals is very important to a male because it is a way for him to prove his competence and thus feel good about himself. For males to feel good about themselves, they must achieve these goals by themselves. Males pride themselves in doing things all by themselves. Autonomy is a symbol of efficiency, power and competence.

Females value love, communication, beauty and relationships. They spend a lot of time supporting, helping and nurturing one another. Their sense of self is defined through their feelings and the quality of their relationships. They experience fulfilment through sharing and relating. Rather than building highways and tall buildings, females are more concerned with living together in harmony, community and loving cooperation. Relationships are more important than work and technology. Personal expression, especially of feelings, is very important. Communication is of primary importance. To share their personal feelings is much more important than achieving goals and success. Talking and relating to one another is a source of tremendous fulfilment.

Instead of being goal oriented, women are relationship oriented; they are more concerned with expressing their goodness, love and caring. Females are very involved in personal growth, spirituality, and everything that can nurture life, healing and growth. Females are very intuitive. They have developed this ability through centuries of anticipating the needs of others. They pride themselves in being considerate of the needs and feelings of others (Gray, 1992, p. 16-20).

What are the sociocultural influences on gender development?

Although parents do encourage sex-appropriate play, there is evidence that biological factors may play an initial role in children's preferences.

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

Once children begin to play with other children outside the home, peers have a significant influence on the development of their gender roles. In fact, Stern and Karraker (1989) found that the behaviour of two- to six-year-old children was even more influenced by the knowledge of a baby's gender than was the behaviour of adults. By the time children are three years old, they reinforce gender-typed play by praising, imitating or joining in the behaviour. In contrast, they criticize gender-inappropriate behaviour (Langlois and Downs, 1980). Parents indirectly encourage gender-stereotyped play by seeking out children of the same sex as playmates for their own children (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 399).

Quips and Quotes

To thine own self be true.

William Shakespeare

3.4.4 Self-schema and Identity

Self-schema, or self-identity, the terms are synonymous, are those cognitive models which we form that represent ourselves. This lesson looks at self-identity in preparation for the lesson on identity management, or the ways in which we present ourselves both privately and publicly.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we represent knowledge about ourselves?
- How does self-identity develop?
- What influences does the family have on identity?
- How does gender influence identity development?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Parenting styles and identity development
 - Refer to Teacher Information, Topic 4.2, Family, for information on parenting styles.
 - Discuss how parenting styles can influence self-schema.
- Reflection and Review: Self-identity
 - Refer to the Who Am I template that the students completed at the end of Unit Two: Who am I?
 - In what ways do the entries listed reinforce students' self-identity? Are some more important than others? Do some aspects of students' self-identity change in relative importance over time, or in different situations?
- Discussion: Identity development
 - Based on Marcia's four identity status model, discuss with the students at which of the four stages they consider themselves to be.
- Reflection: Similarities and differences
 - In what ways do students believe they are similar to others?
 - In what ways are students unique?
 - What are the most unique qualities that students would use to describe their individuality?
- Research: Identity crises
 - Design and conduct an investigation into Erikson's theory of intimacy versus isolation as primary developmental crises in early and middle adulthood.
 - What is intimacy? Are there gender differences in intimacy? Are there age differences in intimacy? What percentage of people have developed an intimate relationship with another person?
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Make your life a mission – not an intermission (Glasgow).
 - Don't compromise yourself. You're all you've got (Janis Joplin).
 - Reflect on your present blessings, of which every man has many, not on your past misfortunes, of which all men have some (Charles Dickens).

Making Connections

- Self-identity and groups:
 - What is the nature of the relationship between self-identity and groups to which students belong?
 - How do people maintain a sense of "self" in group situations?
 - What are the dangers of losing a self-identity in favour of a group identity?

Resources

- *Interactions: Who I Am*

Lesson 3.4.4: Teacher Information

How do we represent knowledge about ourselves?

We not only represent and store information about other people, but also about ourselves, although in a more complex and varied way. Most people have a complex self-concept with many self-schema. These include an array of “possible selves”, or future-oriented schema of what we would like to be (our ideal-self). Visions of future possible selves may influence some of the decisions we make, such as career choices (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 403).

We learn about ourselves through introspection and observations of our behaviour, and then organize this information into self-schema. We also interpret our past using schema and theories about how our attitudes and behaviours are likely to change. As important as these sources of self-knowledge are, though, there is still something missing. These views portray people as solitary seekers of self-knowledge, with no consultation with or comparison to other people. The two ways in which gain self-knowledge that are entirely social, in that we rely on other people to learn about who we are, are the “looking glass self” and social comparison theory (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 228).

How does self-identity develop?

Contemporary views of identity development suggest several important considerations.

- First, identity development is a lengthy process. Identity formation begins with the appearance of attachment, the development of a sense of self, and the emergence of independence in infancy, and reaches its final phase with a life review and integration in old age.
- Second, identity development is extraordinarily complex. At the bare minimum, it involves commitment to a vocational direction, an ideological stance, and a sexual orientation. Canadian psychologist James Marcia (1980) analyzed Erikson's theory of identity development and concluded that four identity statuses, or modes of resolution, appear in the theory: identity diffusion, identity foreclosure, identity moratorium and identity achievement.
 - Identity diffusion is Marcia's term for the status of adolescents who have not yet experienced a crisis (that is, they have not

yet explored meaningful alternatives) or made any commitments.

- Identity foreclosure is Marcia's term for adolescents who have made a commitment but have not experienced a crisis.
- Identity moratorium is Marcia's term for the status of adolescents who are in the midst of a crisis, but their commitments are either absent or only vaguely defined.
- Identity achievement is Marcia's term for the status of adolescents who have undergone a crisis and have made a commitment (Santrock, 1999, p. 373).

What is the process of identity development?

As they try to sort through their possible (and multiple) selves, adolescents frequently take on a false self, acting in ways that they know are contrary to the core of their being - even if they are not sure what that core being is. According to one group of researchers (Harter, Marold, Whitesell and Cobbs, 1996), adolescents display three distinct types of false selves:

- *The acceptable false self.* This false self arises from the adolescent's perception that the real self is rejected by parents and peers - a perception often coloured by the adolescent's own self-hate. Adolescents who adopt a false self in order to be accepted tend to feel worthless, depressed, and hopeless; they engage in self-betrayal to hide their true nature. They also report low levels of real self-understanding.
- *The pleasing false self.* This second type of false self arises from a wish to impress or please others. It is quite common among adolescents. Those who adopt it appear to be less debilitated psychologically, and to have a greater self-understanding, than those whose false selves arise from a sense of rejection.
- *The experimental false self.* This type of false self is one that adolescents try out “just to see how it feels”. Compared with adolescents who engage in the first two types of false behaviour, these adolescents report the highest levels of self-esteem and self-knowledge, partly because although they acknowledge that their experimentation is not their usual, expected behaviour, they do not feel it is false (Berger, 2000, p. 502).

What influences does the family have on identity?

Parents are important figures in the adolescent's development of identity. In studies that relate identity development to parenting styles, democratic parents, who encourage adolescents to participate in family decision making, foster identity achievement. Authoritarian parents, who control the adolescent's behaviour without giving the adolescent an opportunity to express opinions, encourage identity foreclosure. Permissive parents, who provide little guidance to adolescents and allow them to make their own decisions, promote identity diffusion.

In addition to studies on parenting styles, researchers have also examined the role of individuality and connectedness in the development of identity. The presence of a family atmosphere that promotes both individuality and connectedness is important in the adolescent's identity development. Individuality consists of two dimensions: self-assertion, the ability to have and communicate a point of view; and separateness, the use of communication patterns to express how one is different from others. Connectedness also consists of two dimensions: mutuality, sensitivity to and respect for others' views; and permeability, openness to others' views (Santrock, 1999, p. 373).

What are the sociocultural influences on identity development?

The surrounding culture can aid identity formation in two major ways: by providing values that have stood the test of time and continue to serve their function, and by providing social structures and customs that ease the transition from childhood to adulthood. Whether a given culture actually provides these values and social structures depends primarily on how much the members of the culture agree regarding basic principles and on how stable life circumstances are from one generation to the next.

In a culture where virtually everyone holds the same moral, political, religious and sexual values, and where social change is slow, identity is easy to achieve. Most young people in such traditional cultures simply accept the roles and values they grew up with. In modern industrial and post-industrial societies, by contrast, cultural consensus is rare and continuity is rarer still. Everything is open to question by almost everyone. When anything is possible, nothing is easy (Berger, 1998, p. 507).

How does gender influence identity development?

Erikson described two primary developmental crises in early and middle adulthood. The first is the establishment of intimacy, which is a criterion of having attained the psychosocial state of adulthood. By intimacy, Erikson means the ability to form close, meaningful relationships with others without the fear of losing oneself in the process' (Elkind, 1970). Erikson believed that a prerequisite for intimacy was the attainment of identity, or the reconciliation of all our various roles into one enduring and stable personality. Identity is necessary because we cannot know what it means to love someone and seek to share our life with them until we know who we are and what we want to do with our lives. Thus, genuine intimacy requires us to give up some of our sense of separateness, and we must each have a firm identity to do this. Intimacy does not involve sexuality. Since intimacy refers to the essential ability to relate our deepest hopes and fears to another person, and in turn accept another's need for intimacy, it describes the relationship between friends just as much as that between sexual partners (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 413).

Some researchers believe that the order of stages proposed by Erikson are different for females and males. One view is that for males identity formation precedes the stage of intimacy, while for females intimacy precedes identity. These ideas are consistent with the belief that relationships and emotional attachments are more important concerns of females, while autonomy and achievement are more important concerns of males (Santrock, 1999, p. 375).

Quips and Quotes

Be who you are, where you're at,
when you're there.

Anonymous

3.4.5 Identity Management

How does our behaviour change according to the situation? What techniques or process do we employ in order to maintain, or possibly change, our identity? We have two sides to our identities, public and private. This lesson addresses the management of our uniqueness.

Lesson Objectives

- How does our behaviour change in social situations?
- In what ways does our behaviour change in social situations?
- What processes of identity management do we use in social situations?
- How do we act differently in private versus public situations?
- How, and why, do we disclose private and personal information about ourselves to others?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Identity management as theatre
 - Compare Shakespeare's quote, "All the world's a stage, and we merely the players," with Goffman's concept of identity management (refer to Teacher Information) as "a kind of process theatre."
- Discussion: Identity management
 - Using the information supplied in the Teacher Information section, discuss with the students the various aspects of each of self-presentation, self-monitoring and impression management.
 - Are there differences in the way people manage their identities in private as opposed to in public?
 - Have students record the adjectives they would use to describe their public and private selves, and then reflect on the differences.
 - What, or who, are the most important influences on these differences?
- Role Play: Self-presentation
 - Based on Jones and Pittman's theory about self-presentation techniques (see Teacher Information), have students in small groups conceive of a role play that demonstrates how these techniques are used in social situations.
- Drama Study: Hamlet
 - In what ways did Hamlet manage his identity? For what purposes did he manage his identity? How did Hamlet present both private as well as public identities?
 - Discuss Hamlet's self-disclosures. To whom did Hamlet disclose his real intentions? What were Hamlet's intentions?
- Discussion: Self-disclosure
 - To whom do students self-disclose? Why? Has that changed over time? What is the relationship between self-disclosure and intimacy?

Making Connections

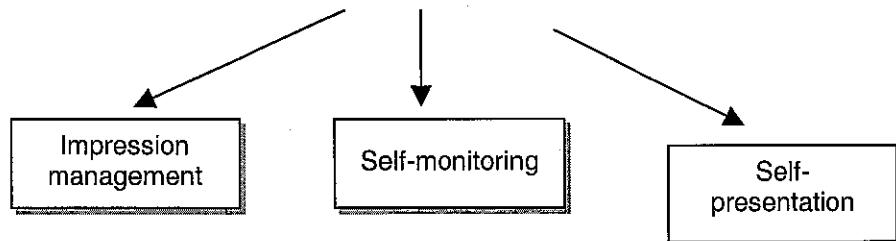
- Research peer pressure and identity management. Have students consider how peers influence their behaviour?
- Dysfunctional Behaviour: Multiple personality disorder

Resources

- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Social in Strasbourg"
- Play: *Hamlet*

Lesson 3.4.5: Teacher Information

How does our behaviour change in social situations?



Impression management can take one of three forms: manner, appearance and setting. Manner consists of a person's words and nonverbal actions. The second dimension of identity management is appearance - the personal items people use to shape an image. Along with clothing, other aspects of appearance such as jewellery, tanned or light skin, hairstyle and colour, all play a major role in identity management. A final way to manage identities is through the choice of setting - physical items we use to influence how others view us. In modern Western society the automobile is a major part of identity management (Adler et al., 2001, p. 79).

People high in self-monitoring are social chameleons - they can skilfully alter their behaviour to match the current situation. They adjust what they say and what they do to the current situation in order to make a positive impression on others. In contrast, low self-monitors, tend to show a higher degree of consistency. They act much the same across a wide range of situations on the basis of their particular beliefs and attitudes.

Self-monitoring involves more than differences in consistency, however. Persons high in self-monitoring are generally better than low self-monitors at both reading others' emotional reactions and managing their own nonverbal cues. Thus they are generally more successful at making a good first impression. As a result, high self-monitors tend to be more successful in their careers than low self-monitors. High self-monitors approach new situations by asking themselves: "How can I best please the people I have to deal with?" In contrast, low self-monitors ask themselves: "How can I best be me in this situation?" (Baron et al., 1998, p. 516).

Jones and Pittman (1982) have described several strategic self-presentational techniques that people use in everyday life:

- First is *ingratiation*, where you flatter, praise and generally make yourself likeable to another, often higher-status person.

- Second is *self-promotion* - actively "blowing your own horn" by describing your talents, exhibiting your knowledge and generally setting out to impress people.
- The flip side of self-promotion is *basking in reflected glory*. You cannot be good at everything, and so you cannot self-promote successfully in all areas - but you can become close to talented or successful people and bask in their glory and fame. In other words, you can appear impressive to others because you know or associate with impressive people.
- A final self-presentational strategy, and the one that has attracted the most research attention, is *self-handicapping*. Using this strategy, you set up reasons, before the fact, for your failure. That is, before you even engage in a task, you can make sure that you have a ready-made excuse to explain your (potentially) poor performance. There are two major ways people self-handicap:
 - In its most extreme form, people create obstacles that reduce the likelihood they will succeed on a task, so that if they do fail, they can blame it on those obstacles rather than on their lack of ability. The obstacles people have been found to use include drugs, alcohol, reduced effort on the task and failure to practice.
 - The second kind of self-handicapping is less extreme. People do not create obstacles to success, but do devise ready-made excuses in case they do fail (Aronson et al., 1995, p. 237).

How, and why, do we disclose private and personal information about ourselves to others?

There are several characteristics of self-disclosure:

- Usually happens in dyads.
- Occurs incrementally.

-
- Occurs in relatively few relationships.
 - Is relatively scarce.
 - Usually occurs in the context of positive relationships.
 - There are reasons for self-disclosure.
 - Improves and expands interpersonal relationships.
 - Acts as catharsis, getting it “off your chest”.
 - Self-clarification of your beliefs, opinions, attitudes and feelings by “talking it out”.
 - Self-validation by seeking confirmation of important parts of your self-concept.
 - Reciprocity, or disclosing information about yourself to encourage another person to do so also.
 - Identity management or revealing personal information to make ourselves more attractive.
 - Relationship maintenance and enhancement.
 - Impression formation.
 - Social control.
 - Manipulation calculated to achieve a desired result (Adler et al., 2000, p. 358).

Quips and Quotes

Technology is a way of organizing the universe so that man doesn't have to experience it.

Max Frisch

3.4.6 Mass Media

This lesson addresses the pervasive and profound influence that television, movies, newspapers, radio and magazines have on all aspects of our lives, both personal and social.

Lesson Objectives

- What defines the mass media?
- What influence does the media have on our thoughts, feelings and behaviours?
- What influence does the media have on developing aggression and violence, especially in children?
- What influence does the Internet have on social relations and behaviour?
- What influence does the media have on society and our culture?
- What is the relationship between cultural values, the media and censorship?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Influence of the media
 - Design and conduct a research study into television and Internet usage among different age groups.
 - How do the findings compare to those described by Rupert Taylor? Refer to Teacher Information for additional information.
- Drama: Typical event play-by-play
 - Assign the roles of play-by-play announcer and colour commentator to pairs of students. Have them write the script for a typical daily event. Such events may include doing dishes, making the bed, washing the car, cutting the lawn and chores around the home.
- Construction: Create your own magazine
 - Create a magazine on any topic of interest in social psychology. Students can use the *Interactions* journal as an organizing format, or create a new format, and include articles and advertising.
- Discussion: Media and body image
 - How does the media, in their portrayal of fashions and using models, communicate the concept of "ideal body image"?
- Discussion: "Movies for guys who like movies" and "Chick-flick"
 - What are the stereotypes inherent in these two phrases?
 - What are the gender differences in television and movie interests?
 - Why are there such gender differences?
- Research: Media usage
 - Design and conduct an investigation into television usage and watching patterns, Internet usage or violence on television programs.

Making Connections

- Research careers in the "Information Age".
- Are we creating a "Technological Elite"?
- Reality Television: Why is it so popular?

Resources

- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Helpful in Humboldt"
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan

Lesson 3.4.6: Teacher Information

What defines the mass media?

Mass media is a means of mass communication, such as newspapers, magazines, the Internet, radio, or television.

What influence does the media have on our thoughts, feelings and behaviours?

Newspaper readership in Canada has been dropping steadily since the 1970s, particularly among people in the 21 to 35 age group. The answer to that is simple; they are getting their news fix from television, right? No. Television news shows are also losing viewers. Must be the Internet, then. No again. Studies show that most people use the Internet to get additional information on stories they've heard about from other media. Some experts say the decline is because people no longer believe what the media tell them. The watchwords of journalists used to be "Get the story right and get it first." Today, a higher emphasis is placed on getting it first. The rush to beat the competition with a story leads to shortcuts. So, facts are not checked, information is not verified with another source, and rumours get reported as the straight goods. An attitude has developed that, "If we get it wrong today we'll fix it by running an apology tomorrow." (Taylor, 2001, p. 10).

Television's coverage of violence also influences our perception of just how much violence exists in our lives. Researchers have found a close correlation, not between the actual crime rate and people's perceptions, but between the media's coverage of violent crime and people's perceptions. Although violent crime has been dropping since 1992, a 1998 Environics showed that 75 percent of Canadians think crime is getting worse: at the same time that the murder rate in Canada was on the decline television coverage of murders went up. As *national networks decreased their crime reporting, Canadians started to feel safer*. Statistics Canada reported that in 1999, 91 percent of Canadians were either very or somewhat satisfied with their personal safety, compared with 86 percent six years earlier (Taylor, 2001, p. 17).

What influence does the media have on developing aggression and violence, especially in children?

There are four scenes of violence portrayed on network television to every one scene expressing affection. On average, American children see more than 100 000 violent episodes and some 20 000

murders on television before reaching adolescence (Meyers, 1996). Other surveys indicate that news coverage of violence against women and children was not used to educate the public but rather to fascinate and entertain. Television violence, in particular, has a significant effect on the frequency and type of aggressive behaviour expressed by adults and children. Aggressive children watch more media violence, identify more with violent characters, and believe more that the violence they observe reflects real life than non-aggressive children (Bartol, 1999, p. 194).

What influence does the Internet have on social relations and behaviour?

As much as many of us like TV, recent research shows that Canadians are spending more time at their computers than in front of the television. TV viewing it seems is at its lowest levels in two decades: on average each person watched 21.6 hours of television a week in 1999, down from a high of 23.5 hours in 1988, according to Statistics Canada. At the same time, the number of households with an Internet user grew to 42 percent in 1999 from 36 percent a year earlier. But the teens like to multi-task: a survey of 1 000 teenaged Internet users showed 34 percent watch TV while using the Internet. By December 2000, Canadians spent a monthly average of 753 minutes on-line, up from 554 minutes the previous December. The drop in television viewing among young people in the U.S. has been described as alarming. Since 1985, the average number of hours of TV watched by Americans under 18 has fallen by more than 20 percent, partly in favour of surfing the Internet (Taylor, 2001, p. 20).

Quips and Quotes

How can we understand human relations and social influence? By studying the way people feel and the way people think - in short, by studying the heart and the mind.

Elliott Aronson et al.

3.5 Action Research in Social Psychology

This summary lesson integrates all of the concepts covered in the third unit, by actively engaging students in designing and conducting research in social psychology.

Lesson Objectives

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

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experiments
- Case Study
- Topical

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

Resources

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

Lesson 3.5: Research Methods and Suggested Topics

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
Survey <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conducting research using a survey involves asking questions about the phenomenon of interest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stereotypical attitudes towards Should cosmetic surgery be free? How would you define beauty? Media: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> How many hours of television do you watch in a week? How many times do you go to the movies in a month? How many videos do you rent in a month? Do you think television values are replacing family values? Are the movie and television rating systems appropriate? Effective? How many hours do you use the Internet? Do you believe in love at first sight?
Naturalistic Observation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What happens during sleep? What are the different types of non-verbal communication? A day in the life of Proxemics: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Intimate distance Personal space Social distance Television violence Gender differences Television usage Internet usage
Case studies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case-study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Martin Luther King Rosa Parks Mhatma Ghandi Terry Fox Mother Theresa Nelson Mandela Helen Keller
Interview <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Autobiographical memory Schema Prejudice and discrimination Dreams and dream interpretation Changing role of women in society Business woman

<p>Experimental research</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions and seek to control other influences that could affect their research. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpreting emotional expressions • Social cognition • Gender differences
<p>Topical Research</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study involves both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Circadian rhythms • Sleep • Dreams • Sexism • Sign language • Advertising techniques • Women's suffrage • Gender differences

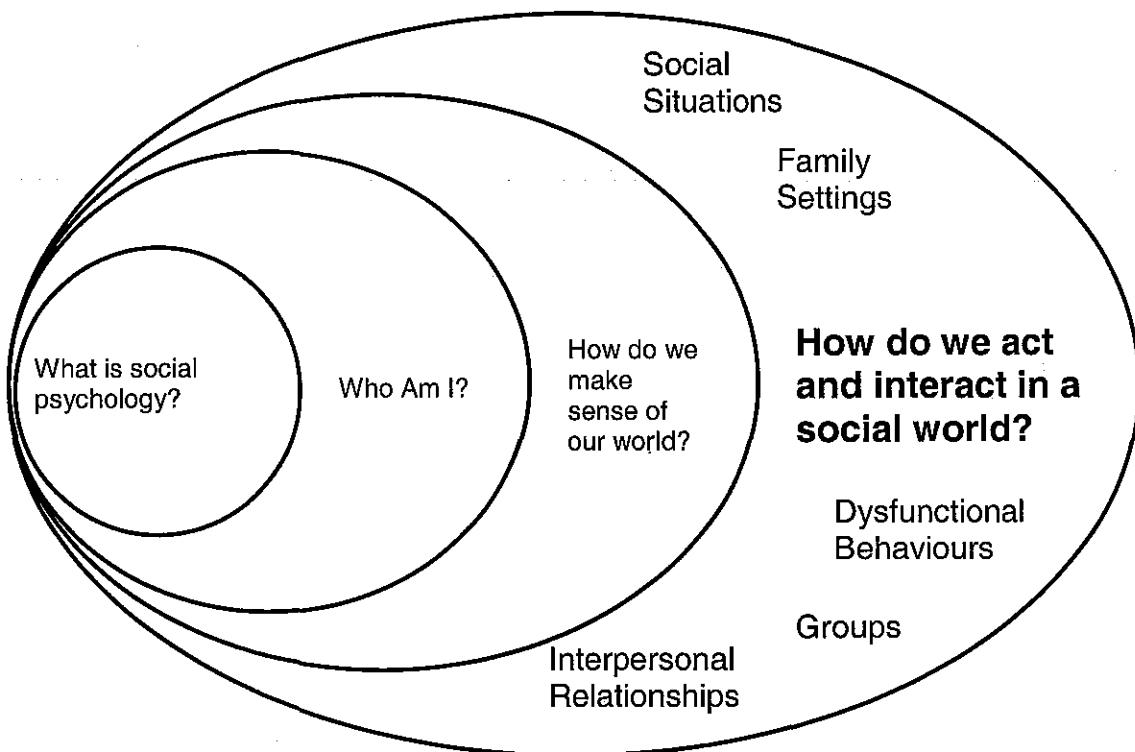
Unit Four: How do we act and interact in social situations?

Unit Overview

This unit deals with our thoughts, feelings and behaviours in a social context. In this unit, students consider the profound influence that the family has on social development. This unit also addresses the nature of interpersonal relationships ranging from personal friendships to long term relationships and

marriage. In addition, the actions and influences of a wide variety group behaviours such as crowds, teams, cults and political parties are investigated. The unit concludes with an examination of a wide variety of social situations and how people's thoughts, feelings and behaviours are influenced by these situations.

Concept Web



Time Frame: 15 – 35 hours

Learning Objectives

Knowledge

- To understand how the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of people are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.
- To understand the influence that family has on personal and social development.
- To understand the nature of interpersonal relationships.
- To understand the influences of groups on behaviour, and how people influence group situations.

- To understand how people act and interact in social situations.
- To understand the nature of physical, emotional and mental dysfunctionality.

Skills

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

- To conduct research into topics and issues related to social psychology.
- To compare and contrast methods of data collection, synthesis, organization and presentation.
- To conduct research into issues of social psychology.

Values

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

Lessons and Lesson Objectives

- 4.1 How do we act and interact in social situations?
- How do families influence us?
 - How do we act and interact in interpersonal relationships?
 - How do groups influence our social actions and interactions?
 - How do we act and interact in social situations?
 - How do people develop dysfunctional thoughts, feelings and behaviours?
 - How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to social actions and interactions?
- 4.2 What influence does the family have on our social development?
- How do we define a family?
 - What are the functions of families?
 - What are the characteristics of strong and healthy families?
 - What are the different parenting styles?
 - What is the national census data on Canadian families and children's living arrangements?
 - What are the effects of maltreatment by families of children?
 - Are mistreated children likely to be become mistreating parents?
 - How vulnerable are families to crisis and mistreatment of children?
 - What is the influence of culture on families?
- 4.3 How, and why do we act and interact in interpersonal relationships?
- How do we define interpersonal relationships?

- Why do we establish interpersonal relationships?
- How do we establish and maintain relationships?
- Why do people remain in unsatisfying relationships?
- What influence does culture have on social relationships and interactions?

4.3.1 Attraction and Intimacy

- Why are we attracted to people?
- What is intimacy in a relationship?
- What is the relationship between gender and intimacy?
- What influence does culture have on intimacy?

4.3.2 Love

- What is love?
- What are the different types of love?
- How is liking someone different than loving someone?
- Can passionate love be a misattribution?
- What influence does culture have on our notions of love?
- What makes a good marriage?

4.3.3 Honesty and Dishonesty

- How important is honesty in relationships?
- How important is honesty in terms of basic human values?
- In what ways are people dishonest?
- Why do people lie?

4.4

How do groups act and interact?

- What are collective behaviours?
- What are some examples of collective behaviours?
- What are the theoretical approaches to collective behaviour?
- What is "groupthink", and how does it influence group behaviours?
- How does culture influence group behaviours?

4.4.1 Crowds and mobs

- What is the difference between a crowd and a mob?
- Why do groups of people become crowds?
- Why do crowds become mobs?

4.4.2 Gangs

- What is the definition of a gang?
- Why do people join gangs?

- What is the relationship between risk-taking behaviours and gang involvement?
 - Are there gender differences in terms of gangs and gang activity?
- 4.4.3 Cults
- What is a cult?
 - How are cults different from sects and denominations?
 - What are the warning signs of cult activity?
 - Why do people join cults?
- 4.4.4 Social movements
- What are social movements?
 - What are the various types of social movements?
 - What is the life of a social movement?
 - Why do social movements develop?
 - What are some examples of social movements?
- 4.4.5 Political parties
- Why do we have political systems and parties?
 - What are the contemporary Canadian political ideologies?
- 4.5 How do we act and interact in social situations?
- What are the various social influences on our behaviour?
 - How do we explain our social behaviour?
- 4.5.1 Cooperation versus Competition
- How do we promote cooperation?
 - Is there a difference in our willingness to cooperate between individual and group situations?
- 4.5.2 Humour and Laughter
- Why do people laugh?
 - Are there gender differences in humour and laughter?
 - Is laughter a factor in meeting, matching and mating?
 - Is laughter contagious?
 - Are there health benefits to humour and laughter?
- 4.5.3 Pro-social behaviours
- What does it mean, to act in a prosocial manner?
 - What are the bases for prosocial behaviours?
 - What influence does culture have on prosocial behaviour?
- How does gender influence prosocial behaviour?
 - What influence does religious belief have on prosocial behaviour?
 - How do we define heroism?
 - What are the general characteristics of heroic people?
- 4.5.4 Leadership
- How do people assume leadership roles?
 - What are the different leadership styles?
 - How do leaders rise to positions of power and influence?
- 4.5.5 Conflict and conflict resolution
- What does it mean to be in conflict?
 - What are the different models of conflict?
 - What are the different types of conflict?
 - What are some personal conflict styles?
 - How can partners in a relationship manage conflict?
 - How does gender influence conflict styles?
 - How does culture influence conflict styles?
 - What are some methods of conflict resolution?
- 4.5.6 Aggression and Violence
- How do social psychologists define aggression?
 - What are the various perspectives on aggression and violent behaviour?
 - What influence does gender have on aggression?
 - What are the contemporary theories of aggression?
 - What are the cultural influences on aggression?
 - Is aggression in the genes?
 - What influence do hormones have on aggression?
 - How do we reduce violent behaviour?
 - What are the characteristics of peaceful societies?
- 4.5.7 Social Inaction
- To help or not to help, is that the question?
 - What is the "Bystander Phenomenon"?

- What are some situational and individual differences in bystander behaviour?
 - What is the relationship between impulsive helping and prosocial behaviours?
 - Does the bystander phenomenon mean that we are essentially selfish?
- 4.5.8 Problem Solving/Decision Making**
- What are the steps involved in problem solving?
 - What are some methods for problem solving?
 - What are the problem-solving approaches to resolving conflicts?
 - How do groups make decisions?
- 4.5.9 Power**
- What is power?
 - What are the three conditions of power?
 - What are the various sources, or types of power?
- 4.5.10 Games**
- What is a game?
 - What are the different types of games?
 - Can human action and interaction be described in terms of a game?
- 4.5.11 Compliance, Conformity and Obedience**
- What is the difference between compliance, conformity and obedience?
 - Why do people comply with the wishes of others?
 - How do we gain compliance from others?
 - Why do people conform?
 - Why do people obey?
 - Why do people obey when it is not in their interests, or when obedience requires them to ignore their own values or even commit a crime?
- 4.5.12 Stress, Coping Skills and Resiliency**
- What is stress?
 - How does stress develop?
 - What can we do to minimize the effects of stress?
 - What are some successful ways of dealing with stress?
- What are the factors that increase the risk of illness from stress?
 - What is resiliency?
 - How do you promote resiliency?
- 4.5.13 Social Justice**
- What does the term social justice mean?
 - What social issues and concerns are monitored by social justice activists?
 - What influence does culture have on the concept of justice?
 - When do people experience a sense of unfairness or injustice?
- 4.6 Dysfunctional Behaviour**
- What do we mean by abnormality?
 - How common is abnormal behaviour?
 - What are the models, or theories, of abnormality?
 - What are the types of abnormal behaviours?
- 4.6.1 Mood Disorders**
- What are the types of mood disorders?
 - What is depression?
 - How can you tell if you or a friend might be depressed?
 - Why do people get depressed?
 - What can you do if you are depressed?
 - What is the relationship between depression and suicide?
- 4.6.2 Anxiety, Somatoform and Dissociative Disorders**
- What does it mean to be anxious?
 - What are the types of anxiety disorders?
 - What are somatoform disorders?
 - What are dissociative disorders?
- 4.6.3 Eating Disorders**
- What are the two main types of eating disorders?
 - What roles do genetics and the environment play in eating disorders?
- 4.6.4 Schizophrenia**
- What is schizophrenia?
 - How are people with schizophrenia diagnosed?
 - What are the types of schizophrenia?

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- How does schizophrenia develop?
 - How do current psychological theories explain schizophrenia?
 - What is the relationship between nature, nurture and schizophrenia?
- 4.6.5 Criminal Behaviour
- What do we mean by criminal behaviour?
 - What are the different perspectives in criminology?
 - What are the origins of criminal behaviour?
 - What is juvenile delinquency?
 - What are the factors in the development of delinquency?
- 4.6.6 Addiction
- How do we define substance abuse and addiction?
 - What are the defining characteristics of a substance abuser?
 - Are some people more likely than others to become alcoholics?
 - Why do people become addicted?
 - Under what conditions are people likely to become addicted?
 - Why is alcoholism a disease?
 - What are the myths and models of alcoholism?
 - What are some risks for prolonged alcohol abuse?
 - How prevalent is the problem of alcohol abuse in Canada?
 - Why do people smoke?
 - What happens, physically, when smokers quit?
- 4.7 Action Research in Social Psychology
- How would you define a family? What are the characteristics of healthy and strong families? Is any family better than no family at all? What are the greatest challenges and issues facing families today?
 - What rights do children have? Should parental rights supercede children's rights?
 - What do you consider to be the most important qualities in a friend? Spouse? Parent? Leader?
 - What is the most important reason why we establish friendships?
 - What does intimacy mean to you?
- Why are we attracted to people?
 - How would you define beauty?
 - What are the characteristics of beautiful males/females?
 - What does it mean to love someone?
 - How is liking someone different from loving someone?
 - What makes a good marriage?
 - Do you need to love someone to have a successful marriage?
 - Is honesty always the best policy?
 - In what situations is lying acceptable?
 - Are the Olympic games worth the financial investment?
 - Should we hold people legally responsible for their actions even though they were "just following orders"?
 - Do we have the right to pursue political, military and terrorist leaders for their actions regardless of the country of their location?
 - How would you define "normal" behaviour?
 - Eating patterns and habits
 - Attitudes towards various aspects of criminal behaviour and the justice system
 - Beliefs in smoking
 - Television moms and dads: Compare the various images of parents on television. How have these images changed over the past five decades?
 - What are some examples of confirming behaviours in friendships?
 - How is love portrayed in the media?
 - Examples of collective behaviours (panic, fad, fashion, craze, propaganda, public opinion, social movement, revolution)
 - Similarities and differences in crowd behaviours at sporting events, social events and political events.
 - Gang behaviours
 - Influences on social behaviour (social norms, imitation, social facilitation, social loafing, reciprocity, commitment, attractiveness, authority)
 - Gender differences in social interactions
 - Competition/cooperation and gender differences
 - Playground behaviours of children
 - Laughter in social situations
 - Gender differences in humour and laughter

- Aggression in social behaviours
- Divorce and its effects on family members
- The relationship between beauty and
- Influence of the cultural industries on body image
- Machiavellian political philosophy
- Social policies of the federal and provincial political parties
- UNESCO
- Greenpeace
- Social justice
- Biker gangs
- Sexism and sports
- Relative importance of humour in relationships
- Heroes
- The United Nations
- Wars of the 20th century
- Aggression
- International terrorism
- Sexual harassment
- Learned helplessness
- Social justice
- Powerful historical figures
- The Nuremberg Trials
- Learned helplessness
- Phobias
- Gender differences in eating disorders
- Neurotransmitters
- Young Criminal's Justice Act
- Gambling addiction
- Myths of alcoholism
- Olympic athletes
- Politician
- Leaders
- Powerful historical leaders
- War criminals
- Interview a senior citizen: What have you learned in life? What is most important lesson in life? How have social behaviours changed since you were a teenager? What social situations do you remember where there were clear expectations of certain kinds of behaviour?
- Interview your grandparents: Family history
- Interview your parents: what are the greatest challenges and issues facing families today? What rules do you have for different types of relationships?

- What makes a good marriage? Do you need to love someone to have a successful marriage?
- Leadership skills and attributes
- What are the stressors in your life? What resiliency skills have you developed?
- Viral infections

Resources and Resource-Based Learning

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

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

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

Print Resources

Addiction
Alcoholism
Anorexia
Antisocial & Violent Youth
Bodily Rhythms and States of Awareness
Breaking Free from Partner Abuse: Voices of Battered Women Caught in the Cycle of Domestic Violence
Can You Relate?: Real-World Advice for Teens on Guys, Girls, Growing Up, and Getting Along
Canadian Families: Diversity, Conflict & Change
Canadian Family in Crisis
Canadian Profile: Alcohol, Tobacco and Other Drugs
Chasing Lightning: Gambling in Canada
Child Abuse
Coping with Stress
Domestic Violence
Euthanasia
Facing Fears: The Sourcebook for Phobias, Fears, and Anxieties
Family Ties That Bind: A Self-Help Guide to Change Through Family of Origin Therapy
Family Violence
Girls Are Equal Too: How to Survive for Teenage Girls
Helping Your Teen Overcome Depression: A Guide for Parents
Mental Health
Mental Illness
Propaganda and Persuasion
Psychopathology
Sex, Power & the Violent School Girl
Social Influence
Straight Talk About Teenage Pregnancy
Straight Talk About Today's Families
Struggle to Be Strong: True Stories by Teens About Overcoming Tough Times
Teen Eating Disorders
Teen Pregnancy
Teen Suicide
Therapeutic Approaches to Abnormal Behaviour
Understanding Bulimia Nervosa
Understanding Negative Body Image
Understanding Recovery From Eating Disorders
Violence in the Media

Non-Print Resources

Binge Drinking: The Facts
Celebration of Differences
Expressing Anger: Healthy vs. Unhealthy
Human Sexuality Series
Love that Kills
One Survivor's Message: Don't Kill Yourself
Other Side of Blue: The Truth About Teenage Depression

Real People: Violence Prevention: Don't Be a Victim

Real People: What Is Hate All About?

Schizophrenia: Reaching Out (The Importance of Early Treatment)

Through a Blue Lens

When Women Kill

Internet Sites

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

Canadian Mental Health Association, Saskatchewan - <http://www.cmhask.com>

Cults and Psychological Manipulation - <http://www.csj.org>

Mental Health Disorders - <http://www.mentalhealth.com/fr20.html>

Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan <http://www.arts.usask.ca/takingthepulse>

Quips and Quotes

We are all fragile creatures entwined in a web of social constraints.

Stanley Milgram

4.1 Unit Overview: How do we act and interact in social situations?

In this introductory lesson to the unit, the influences of family, interpersonal relationships, social situations and groups are discussed. In addition, behavioural, cognitive and emotional dysfunctionality are described.

Lesson Objectives

- How do families influence us?
- How do we act and interact in interpersonal relationships?
- How do groups influence our social actions and interactions?
- How do we act and interact in social situations?
- How do people develop dysfunctional thoughts, feelings and behaviours?
- How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to social actions and interactions?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Life's lessons
 - Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, Life's Lessons, discuss the basic philosophy of social action and interaction.
- Construction: Create your own life's lessons.
 - What are the basic principles and beliefs that students hold?
 - What values do students think are the most important in life?
 - What lessons have students learned about themselves, friends, other people, relationships, family, the opposite gender, or parents?
- Research: Interview a senior citizen
 - What have you learned?
 - How have social behaviours changed since you were an adolescent?
 - What social situations (e.g., dances, weddings, clubs, school, meetings) do you remember where there were clear expectations of certain kinds of behaviour?
 - What lessons would you like to offer to adolescents of today?
- Activity/Discussion: Personal relationships
 - Based on the information contained in Teacher Information regarding the number of personal relationships, calculate how many relationships are in your "clan". The formula is $((N) * (N-1))/2$ where N = Number of people. Include family members, close friends, and classmates. How many relationships are there? Why is this important?
 - What other aspects of relationships and social interactions might be influenced by our social inheritance? Provide examples.
- Jigsaw/Activity: Issues in making sense of our world
 - Assign one of the four issues in developmental psychology to a small group of students. Have each group brainstorm examples of how its issue is demonstrated in terms of making sense of our world across the life span.
 - Based on its examples, have each group create a role play in which students describe the issue and its applicability to making sense of our world.
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Accept the things to which fate binds you, and love the people with whom fate brings you together, but do so with all your heart (Marcus Aurelius).
 - You cannot acquire experience by making experiments. You cannot create experience. You must undergo it (Albert Camus).

Resources

Lesson 4.1: Teacher Information

How do families influence us?

As the Vanier Institute of the Family definition indicates, families perform vital functions for society and for their members. Society as we know it would be simply unimaginable without them. Researcher Shirley Zimmerman (1988) has listed six basic functions of families that demonstrate how important and far-reaching these functions are:

- Physical maintenance and care of family members. Within healthy families, children, adults and seniors all receive the care and support they need: food, shelter, clothing, protection and so on. Where families are not available or are unable to provide these services, family members suffer and substitutes, usually inadequate ones, must be found.
- Addition of new members through procreation or adoption and their relinquishment when mature. Society renews itself through families. For this function, there is, literally, no substitute.
- Socialization of children for adult roles. Families prepare their children for life. Most do a fairly good job of it, teaching skills, values and attitudes that equip them to learn, work, form friendships and contribute to society.
- Social control of members...the maintenance of order within the family and groups external to it. Within families, individuals learn positive values and behaviour and receive criticism for negative ones.
- Maintenance of family morale and motivation to ensure task performance both within family and in other groups. In this regard, families provide the glue that holds society together and keeps it functioning. Beyond providing mere social control, families, through love and spiritual leadership, inspire their members and others to keep trying.
- Production and consumption of goods and services. Families provide for their own by producing goods and services like food, home maintenance and health care. As they strive to fulfil the needs of their members, they play a vital role in the national economy (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 3).

How do we act and interact in interpersonal relationships?

Communication climate, or the emotional tone of a relationship, is the key to positive relationships. A climate doesn't involve specific activities as much as the way people feel about each other as they carry out those activities. The tone of a relationship is shaped by the degree to which people believe themselves to be valued by one another. Social scientists use the term confirming to describe messages that convey valuing. Valuing and confirming happens on three levels:

- Recognition - The most fundamental act of confirmation is to recognize the physical presence of the other person.
- Acknowledgement - Acknowledging the ideas and feelings of another person is a stronger form of confirmation.
- Endorsement - Whereas acknowledging means you are interested in another's ideas and feelings, endorsement means that you agree with them (Adler et al., 2001, p. 378).

How do groups influence our social actions and interactions?

According to Brown (1954) there are standards of behaviour that emerge from groups, defined as thresholds for participation, including:

- The lawless: These are impulsive people who need little provocation before they try to retaliate. The lawless have little understanding of or concern for the consequences of their actions.
- The suggestible: These are people who are easily influenced by an impulsive leader, although it is unlikely that they would initiate action on their own.
- The cautious: These are people with strong interests in the kinds of actions initiated by others, but who would not act because of a fear of the law. If this constraint is lifted, they take action in pursuit of their own interests.
- The yielders: These are people who are easily persuaded that everybody is engaged in a particular activity. Yielders act when a sufficient number of people are acting because they do not want to be left out, and see an action is right because others are engaged in it.

- The supportive: Whilst the supportive cannot be ‘stampeded’ into action, they do not actively oppose it. They may watch or shout encouragement. They are not violent, but they do not stand out against violence in others.
- The resisters: These are people whose values make them opposed to mob action, and who will not support it, even passively. Because of this, they are in danger of their lives if they speak up at the wrong time (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 530).

How do we act and interact in social situations?

There are several societal influences on our thoughts, feelings and behaviour:

- Social norms: Rules that regulate human life, including social conventions, explicit laws and implicit cultural standards.
- Imitation: Probably the most powerful social influence on our behaviour and attitudes is the behaviour of other people.
- Social facilitation: Increased activity resulting from the presence of another person.
- Social loafing: Decreased activity resulting from the presence of another person.
- Reciprocity: Another strong social influence is reciprocity, the tendency to pay back favours others have done for us. Reciprocity does not require that the “favour” be initially requested or even wanted. The debt of obligation can be so strong that reciprocity can be exploited by those who want us to comply with their requests when we would otherwise not do so.
- Commitment: Once people commit themselves by making a decision and acting on it, they are reluctant to renounce their commitment. Commitment increases people’s compliance even when the reason for the original commitment is removed.
- Attractive people: One of the reasons people tend to comply with the requests of attractive people is that they want to be liked by attractive people; in their minds, being liked by attractive people makes them more desirable, too. People tend to emphasize their associations with attractive and important people.

- Authority: People tend to comply with the requests of people in authority and to be swayed by their persuasive arguments, and such obedience is generally approved by society (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 504-513).

How do people develop dysfunctional thoughts, feelings and behaviours?

No one definition of abnormality on its own is adequate:

- Abnormality could mean “deviating from the norm or average”. Perhaps the most obvious way to define abnormality is in terms of statistically infrequent characteristics or behaviours.
- A second approach is to identify the characteristics and abilities that people should possess in order to be considered “normal”. Abnormality is then defined as deviating from these characteristics either by not possessing them or by possessing characteristics that should not be possessed.
- Abnormality as a “failure to function adequately”. According to this definition, every human being should achieve some sense of personal well-being and make some contribution to a larger social group. Any individual who fails to function adequately in this respect is seen as being “abnormal”. Some common causes for inadequate functioning include:
 - Personal distress
 - Others' distress
 - Maladaptiveness
 - Unexpected behaviour
 - Bizarreness
- Abnormality as a deviation from social norms. All societies have standards or norms for appropriate behaviours and beliefs (expectations about how people should behave as well as what they should think) (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 568).

How do the key issues and questions in developmental psychology relate to social actions and interactions?

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

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- *Continuous change versus discontinuous change:* In continuous change, developmental change is gradual, with achievements at one level building on those of previous levels. In contrast, discontinuous change occurs in distinct stages or steps. Each stage brings about behaviour that is assumed to be qualitatively different from behaviour at earlier stages.
 - A *critical period* is a specific time during development when a particular event has its greatest consequences. Critical periods occur when the presence of certain kinds of environmental stimuli are necessary for development to proceed normally.
 - *Life span approaches* versus a focus on a particular period: Developmentalists now believe the entire life span is important, for several reasons. One is the discovery that developmental growth and change continue during every part of life. Furthermore, to understand fully the social influences on people of a given age, we need to understand the people who are in large measure providing those influences. For instance, to understand development in infants, we need to unravel the effects of their parents' ages on the social environment.
 - *Nature versus Nurture:* One of the enduring questions of development involves how much of people's behaviour is due to their genetically determined nature and how much is due to nurture, the physical and social environment in which a child is raised. In this context, nature refers to traits, abilities, and capacities that are inherited from one's parents. It encompasses any factor that is produced by the predetermined unfolding of genetic information, a process known as maturation. These genetic inherited influences are at work as we move from the one cell organism that is created at the moment of conception to the billions of cells that make up a fully formed human being. In contrast nurture refers to the environmental influences that shape behaviour. Some of these influences may be biological, such as the impact of a pregnant mother's substance abuse on the fetus, or the amount and kind of food available to children. Other environmental influences are more social, such as the ways parent's discipline their children and the effects of peer pressure on adolescents (Feldman, 2000, p. 10).

Quips and Quotes

I met a rosy maid, a rosy burden bearing,
"Is he not heavy?" I said, as past me she
was hurrying.
She looked at me with grave, sweet eyes,
this fragile little mother,
And answered in swift surprise: "Oh no Sir.
He's my brother."

Anonymous

4.2 What influence does the family have on social development?

This lesson, which may take several class periods to teach, addresses the profound and critical influence that our families of origin have on every aspect of our lives, for the duration of our lives.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we define a family?
- What are the functions of families?
- What are the characteristics of strong and healthy families?
- What are the different parenting styles?
- What is the national census data on Canadian families and children's living arrangements?
- How vulnerable are families to crisis and mistreatment of children?
- What is the influence of culture on families?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Research: The family
 - How would students define a family?
 - What are the variations in families in Canada today?
 - Is any family better than no family at all?
 - Based on the Portraits of Families in Canada: 1996 Census summary, discuss the implications of the substantial rise in common-law and single parent families and the increasing number of stepfamilies.
 - What are the characteristics of healthy and well-functioning families?
 - What are the issues, challenges, advantages and drawbacks of one parent, step- and same-sex parent families?
- Research: Family history
 - Interview your grandparents (or great-grandparents) for their recollections about your family history.
- Discussion: Culture and parenting, raising a family
 - Based on the *Interactions* article, Parenting and Child-rearing From a Cross-cultural Perspective, discuss how culture influences family arrangements, economics, roles and processes.
- Discussion: Where do children live in Saskatchewan?
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss the implications for child care and healthy development based on the census data from 1996.
- Media Studies: Television Moms and Dads
 - Compare and contrast the various images and presentations of parents on television.
 - How have these images changed over the past two or three decades?

Making Connections

Resources

- Website to find meanings of first names
- On-line genealogy index
- *Interactions*: Strengths in Families, accentuating the positive
- *Interactions*: Parenting and Child-rearing from a Cross-cultural Perspective
- Curriculum Support Materials: Family Types in Canada
- Curriculum Support Materials: Where do children live in Saskatchewan?
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan

Lesson 4.2: Teacher Information

How do we define a family?

Family is defined as any combination of two or more persons who are bound together over time by ties of mutual consent, birth and/or adoption/placement and who, together, assume responsibilities for variant combinations of some of the following:

- physical maintenance and care of group members
- addition of new members through procreation or adoption
- socialization of children
- social control of children
- production, consumption and distribution of goods and services
- affective nurturance – love (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 3).

What are the functions of families?

As the Vanier Institute of the Family definition indicates, families perform vital functions for society and for their members. Society as we know it would be simply unimaginable without them. Researcher Shirley Zimmerman (1988) has listed six basic functions of families that demonstrate how important and far-reaching these functions are:

- Physical maintenance and care of family members. Within healthy families, children, adults and seniors all receive the care and support they need: food, shelter, clothing, protection and so on. Where families are not available or are unable to provide these services, family members suffer and substitutes, usually inadequate ones, must be found.
- Addition of new members through procreation or adoption and their relinquishment when mature. Society renews itself through families. For this function, there is, literally, no substitute.
- Socialization of children for adult roles. Families prepare their children for life. Most do a fairly good job of it, teaching skills, values and attitudes that equip them to learn, work, form friendships and contribute to society.
- Social control of members...the maintenance of order within the family and groups external to it.

Within families, individuals learn positive values and behaviour and receive criticism for negative ones.

- Maintenance of family morale and motivation to ensure task performance both within family and in other groups. In this regard, families provide the glue that holds society together and keeps it functioning. Beyond providing mere social control, families, through love and spiritual leadership, inspire their members and others to keep trying.
- Production and consumption of goods and services. Families provide for their own by producing goods and services like food, home maintenance and health care. As they strive to fulfil the needs of their members, they play a vital role in the national economy (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 3).

What are the characteristics of strong and healthy families?

The characteristics of strong families include:

- work for the well-being or defend the unity and continuity of their families
- support each other in their families
- respect each family member for his/her uniqueness and difference
- spend time together to build family cohesion
- delegate responsibility
- allow children to make mistakes and face the consequences
- the family contributes to the well-being of their neighbourhood, city, country or world
- have a spiritual orientation or a spiritual dimension (which may not be the same as religiosity) (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 10).

What are the different parenting styles?

Diana Baumrind (1971) emphasizes three styles of parenting that are associated with different aspects of the child's socioemotional development:

- Authoritarian parenting is a restrictive, punitive style in which the parents exhort the child to follow their directions and to respect work and effort. The authoritarian parent places firm limits

and controls on the child and allows little verbal exchange. Authoritarian parenting is associated with children's social incompetence.

- Authoritative parenting encourages children to be independent but still places limits and controls on their actions. Extensive verbal give-and-take is allowed, and parents are warm and nurturant toward the child. Authoritative parenting is associated with children's social competence.
- Neglectful parenting is a style in which the parent is unininvolved in the child's life. It is associated with children's social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control.
- Indulgent parenting is a style of parenting in which the parents are highly involved with their children but place few demands or controls on them. Indulgent parenting is associated with children's social incompetence, especially a lack of self-control (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 347)

What is the national census data on Canadian families and children's living arrangements?

There were 7.8 million families in Canada, according to the Statistics Canada definition of a census family. At the time of the 1996 census, 45 out of every 100 families were married couples with children. This represented a decline from 1991, when the number was 52 out of every hundred. Couples without children accounted for 35 percent of all families. This group, which remained a steady proportion over the last decade of the twentieth century, included both the parents of children who have grown up and left home, as well as couples who have not had children.

Looking at the different kinds of families over time in terms of each group's proportion of all families, families with children living at home made up 65 percent of all families. This was a reduction of five percent over the last quarter of a century. The proportion of those families with children with two parents decreased from 87 percent to 78 percent. At the same time, the proportion of lone parent families increased from 14 percent of all families raising children to 22 percent. Common-law couples with children accounted for an increasing proportion of all families, rising to six percent in 1996.

Looking at Canada's 7.8 million census families again, without reference to whether the adults were married, common-law or lone parents, 5.1 million families or 65 percent had never-married children

living at home. Significantly, this percentage has not changed since 1991.

The proportion of people living in families declined somewhat over the 90s. Partly, this was because people chose to wait longer before living together or getting married. There was also a larger proportion of separated, divorced or widowed people no longer living as part of a census family.

At the last census of the century, 9.7 million Canadian children and young people under the age of 25 lived in families. Of the nearly 10 million Canadians under the age of 25, 8.6 million were children who lived in a two-parent or lone-parent family. More than seven out of ten lived in families with two legally married parents, about one in ten lived with a common-law couple, and almost two out of ten lived with one parent, usually the mother.

The remaining 1.1 million young Canadians lived in other situations that are difficult to count. Approximately 491 000 of the older ones were themselves married or living common-law, and some were lone parents. Some were divorced, and had moved back in to their parental home. Another 297 000 were living with non-relatives at the time of the 1996 census. About 121 000 were young adults living on their own.

The picture of the family circumstances of children and young people is a snapshot at century end. Over the last thirty years, Canada has seen increased rates of separation and divorce, the declining popularity of marriage, a growing number of common-law unions, an increasing recognition of same-sex couples, and more blended families. These changes have resulted in more complex lives for many children who will grow up in a number of different family environments during their childhood and adolescence. The variety within families means that young people are growing up among peers whose family lives often differ markedly from their own.

Source: The Vanier Institute of the Family

How vulnerable are families to crisis and mistreatment of children?

Vulnerable-to-crisis families are generally adequate-caregiving families that are pushed over the edge by immediate stressful problems. The loss of a job, for example, or the birth of a handicapped infant can severely strain most parents' ability to cope with the normal demands and frustrations of child rearing. About one-fourth of all families are vulnerable-to-crisis. Usually, they realize they have a problem,

and this makes them receptive to services such as crisis counseling and parent training. Once the parents learn to cope with their specific problem more effectively they are again able to provide adequate child rearing.

Restorable families make up about half of all families. The caregivers in restorable families have the potential to provide adequate care, and perhaps have done so in the past, but a number of problems - caused not only by their immediate situations but also by their past histories and their temperaments - impair their parenting abilities. A single mother, for example, might have untreated medical problems, inadequate housing, and poor job skills, all of which fray her quick temper and cause her to explode just as her father did when she was a disobedient child. Treatment for restorable families requires a caseworker who has the time and commitment to become a family advocate, mediating and coordinating various services. The goal is not just child protection but family support, emotional as well as material. With such intense help, restorable families eventually become successful ones.

Supportable families make up about one-fifth of all maltreating families. They probably will never function adequately and independently, but with continual support they might meet their children's basic needs for physical, educational and emotional care. The support might be as simple as daily home visits by a nurse or housekeeper or as involved as moving the entire family to a special residence that provides on-going medical attention, day care, recreation, social work and group therapy.

Inadequate families constitute nearly 10 percent of maltreating families. They are so impaired by deep emotional problems or serious cognitive deficiencies that the parents or other caregivers will never be able to meet the needs of their children. For children born into these families, long-term adoption, beginning with foster care in infancy, is the best solution (Berger, 2000, p. 261).

What influence does culture have on families?

There have been very few studies of successful families from various ethnic groups. One of the best was done by Douglas Abbott and William Meredith (1988), who compared Caucasian, African American, Mexican American, Hmong, and Native American families. The researchers asked these families to rank various family traits that were derived from earlier studies of successful families. The most agreement across ethnic groups was among the Caucasian, African American, and Mexican American families. The Hmong differed the most from all the other families; their greatest difference was with the Caucasian families. Native

American families were somewhat similar to African American and Mexican American families but different from Hmong families. Nevertheless, they were surprised to find generally more agreement than disagreement across the various ethnic groups, although they also identified some important differences (Schlesinger, 1998, p. 27).

Quips and Quotes

The best relationship is one in which your love for each other exceeds your need for each other.

Anonymous

4.3 How and why do we act and interact in interpersonal relationships?

This lesson addresses the complexities of interpersonal relationships ranging from acquaintances to friendships and long-term committed relationships.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we define interpersonal relationships?
- Why do we establish interpersonal relationships?
- How do we establish and maintain relationships?
- Why do people remain in unsatisfying relationships?
- What influence does culture have on social relationships and interactions?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion/Research: Personal qualities
 - What do students consider to be the basic qualities of a friend?
 - What qualities in a spouse do students consider to be the most important?
 - Design and conduct a survey research project investigating what people consider to be the most important qualities in a friend or spouse.
- Jigsaw/Role Play: Models of relationship establishment
 - Assign one of the six models of relationship establishment and maintenance (process, attachment and stage) to a small group. Have each group create a role play based on the principles of each model.
- Jigsaw/Presentation/Role Play: Models of relationship dissolution
 - Assign one of the three models of relationship dissolution (D-E-N-R-T, Phase-Threshold model, Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect model) to a small group. Each group will create a presentation or role play based on the principles of each model.
- Discussion: Valuing and confirming
 - In what ways do people demonstrate confirming and valuing behaviours to their friends?
 - Using the concept of the Medicine Wheel, discuss confirming and valuing behaviours and attitudes for each of our physical, mental, emotional and spiritual aspects.
- Discussion: Rules in relationships
 - What rules do students have for these different types of relationships: friendship, intimate, family, business, athletic or social?
- Consensus Decision Making: Relationships
 - Why do people establish relationships?
 - Is intimacy, rewards or equity the most important reason why people establish relationships?

Making Connections

- Discussion: Intimacy
 - Research intimacy, bonding and teams/groups/clubs.
 - How can intimacy be achieved through technology? Can Internet relationships survive? How do chat lines promote or hinder intimacy?
- What are the effects of relationship breakdowns? How does divorce impact on fathers, mothers and children?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Medicine Wheel
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Curious in Coronach"

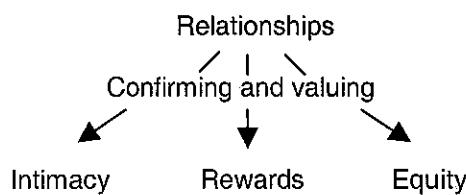
Lesson 4.3: Teacher Information

How do we define interpersonal relationships?

Long term relationships can be described in one of two ways:

- *Exchange relationships* are governed by the need for equity or an equal ratio of rewards and costs. In these types of relationships,
 - We like to be repaid immediately for our favours.
 - We feel exploited when our favours are not returned.
 - We keep track of who is contributing what to the relationship.
 - Being able to help the other person has no effect on our mood.
- *Communal relationships* are those in which the people's primary concern is being responsive to the other person's needs. In these types of relationships,
 - We do not like to be repaid immediately for our favours.
 - We do not feel exploited when our favours are not repaid.
 - We do not keep track of who is contributing what to the relationship.
 - Being able to help the person puts us in a good mood (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 404).

Why do we establish relationships?



Intimacy

Dimensions of intimacy:

- Physical intimacy begins with attachment during infancy and is demonstrated by hugs, kisses, and physical closeness.
- Intellectual intimacy involves the exchange of important ideas, values and beliefs.
- Emotional intimacy involves the exchange of important feelings.
- Shared activities can include everything from working side-by-side at a job to meeting

regularly for exercise workouts (Adler et al., 2001, p. 325)

Rewards

Intimacy can be satisfying, but it is not the only payoff that drives us to seek out and stay in relationships. Some social scientists have argued that all relationships - both personal and impersonal - are based on a semi-economic model called social exchange theory. This approach suggests that we often seek out people who can give us rewards - either tangible or emotional - that are greater than or equal to the costs we encounter in dealing with them. Social exchange theorists define rewards as any outcomes we desire. A simple formula captures the social exchange theory for why we form and maintain relationships:

$$\text{Rewards} - \text{Costs} = \text{Outcome}$$

According to social exchange theory, we use two standards in arriving at a judgement or decision: Comparison level are standards of what behaviours are acceptable; and comparison level of alternatives refers to a comparison between the rewards received in the present situation versus other rewards that could be expected to receive in others. Foa (1971) proposes that in a social exchange model of relationships, there are six interpersonal resources that can be exchanged: love, status, information, money, goods and services (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 218).

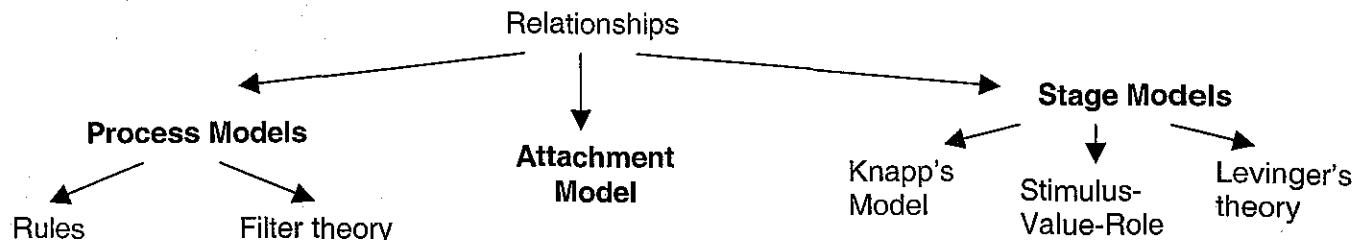
Equity theory

Some researchers have criticized social exchange theory for ignoring an essential variable in relationships: the notion of fairness, or equity. Equity theorists argue that people are not just out to get the most rewards for the least cost; they are also concerned about equity in their relationships, wherein the rewards and costs they experience and the contributions they make to the relationship are roughly equal to the rewards, costs and contributions of the other person (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 395).

Confirming and Valuing

Communication climate, or the emotional tone of a relationship, is the key to positive relationships. A climate doesn't involve specific activities as much as the way people feel about each other as they carry out those activities. The tone of a relationship is shaped by the degree to which people believe themselves to be valued by one another. Social scientists use the term confirming to describe messages that convey valuing (Adler et al., 2001, p. 389).

How do we establish and maintain relationships?



Process Models

Rules

Argyle and Henderson (1984) have conducted many studies looking at the rules people use in different types of relationships. By rules, they mean shared opinions or beliefs about what should or should not be done. According to Argyle and Henderson the two major functions of rules are to regulate behaviour in order to minimize potential sources of conflict, and to check on the exchange of rewards that motivate people to stay in relationships. Their research has uncovered rules that are thought to apply to all or most types of relationships, such as respecting other people's privacy, not discussing what has been said in confidence and being emotionally supportive. Additional rules apply in particular types of relationships. Argyle and Henderson's research indicates that relationships fall into clusters, with similar rules applying within a particular cluster. One such cluster includes spouse, sibling and close friends, whilst another includes doctor, teacher and boss. Deception is probably the most important rule that should not be broken. However, what counts as deception will depend on the nature of the relationship: if we cannot trust a friend or a partner, then the relationship is almost certainly doomed (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 480).

Filter Theory

According to Kerckhoff and Davis (1962), relationships pass through a series of filters. They base this claim on a comparison between short-term couples (less than 18 months) and long term couples. Initially, similarity of sociological (or demographic) variables (such as ethnic, racial, religious and social class groups) determines the likelihood of people meeting in the first place. To some extent, our choice of friends and partners is made for us because the field of availables (the range of people who are realistically, as opposed to theoretically, available for us to meet) is reduced by social circumstances. The next filter involves people's psychological characteristics and,

specifically, agreement on basic values. Kerckhoff and Davis found this was the best predictor of a relationship becoming more stable and permanent. Thus, those who had been together for less than 18 months tended to have stronger relationships when the partners' values coincided. With couples of longer standing, though, similarity was not the most important factor. In fact, complementarity of emotional needs was the best predictor of a longer term commitment, and this constitutes the third filter (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 486).

Attachment Models

Ainsworth (1978) discovered that infants form one of three basic attachments to the caregiver. The crucial feature determining the quality of attachment is the caregiver's sensitivity, or the quality of response to the baby's needs. The sensitive caregiver sees things from the baby's perspective, correctly interprets its signals, responds to its needs, and is accepting, cooperative and accessible. By contrast, the insensitive caregiver interacts almost exclusively in terms of their own wishes, moods and activities. Ainsworth's research indicated that sensitive caregivers have babies that are securely attached, whereas insensitive caregivers have insecurely attached babies. The insecurely attached babies were either anxious-avoidant or anxious-resistant (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 329).

See chart that follows.

Category	Sample (%)
Anxious-avoidant Typical behaviour: Baby largely ignores caregiver. Play is little affected by whether caregiver is present or absent. No or few signs of distress when caregiver leaves, and actively ignores or avoids caregiver on return. Distress is caused by being alone, rather than being left by the caregiver. Can be as easily comforted by a stranger as by the caregiver. In fact, both adults are treated in a very similar way.	15
Securely attached Typical behaviour: Baby plays happily while the caregiver is present, whether the stranger is present or not. Caregiver is largely 'ignored' because the baby trusts that care will be provided if needed. Clearly distressed when caregiver leaves and play is considerably reduced. Seeks immediate contact with caregiver on return, is quickly calmed down and resumes play. The distress is caused by the caregiver's absence, not being alone. Although the stranger can provide some comfort, stranger and caregiver are treated very differently.	70
Anxious-resistant Typical behaviour: Baby is fussy and wary while the caregiver is present. Cries a lot more and explores much less than other two types and has difficulty in using caregiver as a safe base. Very distressed when caregiver leaves, seeks contact on return, but simultaneously shows anger and resists contact (may approach caregiver, and reach out to be picked up, but then struggles to get down again). This demonstrates the baby's ambivalence towards the caregiver. Does not return readily to play. Actively resists stranger's efforts to make contact.	15

Stage Models

Knapp's Model

One of the best known models of relational stages was developed by Mark Knapp (1992), who broke down the rise and fall of relationships into 10 stages, contained in the broad phases of "coming together" and "coming apart". The following stages are especially descriptive of intimate, romantic relationships and close friendships.

- Initiating - Expressing interest in making contact and showing that you are the kind of person worth getting to know.
- Experimenting - This stage involves uncertainty reduction, or the process of getting to know others by gaining more information about them.
- Intensifying - Interpersonal relationships now begin to emerge. Feelings about the other person are now openly expressed, forms of address become more familiar, commitment is now openly expressed, and the parties begin to see themselves as "we" instead of separate individuals.
- Integrating - Identification as a social unit. Social circles merge. Partners develop unique, ritualistic ways of behaving. Obligation to the other person increases. Some personal characteristics are replaced and we become different people.
- Bonding - The parties make symbolic public gestures to show society that their relationship exists (rings, tokens, marriage).

- Differentiating - The need to re-establish separate identities begins to emerge. The key to successful differentiation is maintaining a commitment to the relationship while creating the space for autonomy and individuality.
- Circumscribing - Communication between the partners decreases in quantity and quality. It involves a certain amount of shrinking of interest and commitment.
- Stagnating - No growth occurs. Partners behave toward each other in old, familiar ways without much feeling.
- Avoiding - The creation of physical, mental and emotional distance between the partners.
- Termination - In romantic relationships the best predictor of whether the parties will become friends is whether they were friends before their emotional involvement (Adler et al., 2001, p. 335).

Stimulus-Value-Role Theory

Murstein (1987) sees relationships proceeding from a stimulus stage, in which attraction is based on external attributes (such as physical appearance), to a value stage in which similarity of values and beliefs becomes more important. This comes a role stage, which involves a commitment based on successful performance of relationship roles such as husband and wife. Although all these factors have some influence throughout a relationship, each one assumes its greatest significance during one particular stage (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 486).

Levinger's Theory

For Levinger (1988) relationships pass through five stages rather than the three proposed by Murstein. These are: acquaintance or initial attraction, building up the relationship, consolidation or continuation, deterioration and decline, and ending. At each stage, there are positive factors that promote the relationship's development and corresponding negative factors that prevent its development or cause its failure (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 486).

What are the levels of relationship maturity?

A desirable goal is to develop a mature identity and have positive, close relationships with others. Kathleen White (1987) has developed a model of relationship maturity that includes this goal as its highest level. Individuals are described as moving through three levels of relationship maturity: self-focused, role-focused, and individuated-connected.

- The self-focused level is the first level of relationship maturity, at which one's perspective on another person or a relationship is concerned only with how it affects oneself. The individual's own wishes and plans overshadows those of others, and the individual shows little concern for others.
- The role-focused level is the second or intermediate level of relationship maturity, when one begins to perceive others as individuals in their own right. However, at this level the perspective is stereotypical and emphasizes social acceptability. Individuals at this level know that acknowledging and respecting another is part of being a good friend or a romantic partner.
- The individuated-connected level is the highest level of relationship maturity, when one begins to understand oneself, as well as to have consideration for others' motivations and to anticipate their needs. Concern and caring involve emotional support and individualized expressions of interest (Santrock, 1999, p. 425).

Why do people remain in unsatisfying relationships?

Akert (1992) found that the role people played in the decision to end the relationship was the single most powerful predictor of their breakup experiences. Not surprisingly, those people who did not initiate the breakup were the most miserable, they reported high levels of loneliness, depression, unhappiness and anger, and virtually all reported experiencing

physical disorders in the weeks after the breakup as well. Those who indicated responsibility for the breakup of the relationship found the end of the relationship the least upsetting, the least painful and the least stressful. Although they did report feeling guilty and unhappy, they had the fewest negative symptoms such as headaches, eating and sleeping irregularities (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 412).

What influence does culture have on interpersonal relationships?

One of the main dimensions on which cultures differ is individualism-collectivism. Individualism places greater emphasis on personal achievement and self-reliance. Collectivism, by contrast, places priority on the welfare and unity of the group. In cultures where arranged marriages occur, the relationship between love and marriage is the other way around, and marriage is seen as the basis on which to explore a loving relationship. As Bellur (1995) notes, the cultural background in which people have learned about love is important in shaping their concept of it (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 485).

How do relationships dissolve?

Lee's model of relationship dissolution

Lee (1984) has proposed that there are five stages in premarital romantic breakups. First of all, dissatisfaction is discovered. This dissatisfaction is then exposed. Some sort of negotiation about the dissatisfaction occurs, and attempts are made to resolve the problem. Finally, the relationship is terminated. In his research, Lee found that exposure and negotiation tended to be experienced as the most intense, dramatic, exhausting and negative aspects of the whole experience. Lee also found that in those cases where the passage from dissatisfaction to termination was particularly prolonged, people reported feeling more attracted to their ex-partners and experienced the greatest loneliness and fear during the breakup (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 496).

Duck's Model (Phase-Threshold Model)

Duck's model of relationship dissolution (1992) consists of four phases, each of which is initiated when a threshold is broken. The first, intrapsychic phase, begins when one partner sees him- or herself as being unable to stand the relationship any more. This initiates a focus on the other's behaviour, and an assessment of how adequate the partner's role performance is. Also, the individual begins to assess the negative aspects of being in the relationship, considers the costs of withdrawal, and assesses the positive aspects of being in another

relationship. Duck uses the term intrapsychic because the processes are occurring only in the individual's mind and have not yet shown themselves in actual behaviour. The next threshold is when the individual considers himself or herself as being justified in withdrawing from the relationship. This leads to the dyadic phase, and involves the other partner. Here, the dissatisfied individual must decide whether to confront or avoid the partner. When this decision is made, negotiations occur about, for example, whether the relationship can be repaired and the joint costs of withdrawal or reduced intimacy. If the negotiations in this phase are unsuccessful, the next threshold is when the dissatisfied partner decides that he or she means the relationship to end. This leads to the social phase, so-called because it involves consideration of the social implications of the relationship's dissolution. This state of the relationship is made public at least within the individual's own social network, and publicly negotiable face-saving/blame-placing stories and accounts of the relationship's breakdown may be given. Intervention teams such as family or very close friends may be called in to try to bring a reconciliation. Unless the intervention teams are successful, the next threshold is when the relationship's dissolution becomes inevitable. This leads to the final grave-dressing phase. In this, the partners attempt to get over the relationship's dissolution and engage in their own post-mortem about why the relationship dissolved, a version of events which is then given to family and friends. Each partner needs to emerge from the relationship with an intact reputation for future "relationship reliability" purposes (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 496).

Rusbult's Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect Model

According to Rusbult's (1987) exit-voice-neglect-loyalty model, there are four basic responses to relationship dissatisfaction. These are exit (leaving the relationship), neglect (ignoring the relationship), voice (articulating concerns) and loyalty (staying in the relationship and accepting the other's behaviour). The two active strategies in the face of dissatisfaction are exit and voice, whilst the two passive strategies are neglect and loyalty. Exit and neglect are destructive whilst voice and loyalty are constructive (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 497).

Quips and Quotes

Intimacy "into me you see".

Anonymous

4.3.1 Attraction and Intimacy

Attraction and intimacy form two ends of a continuum of relationship closeness. This lesson considers all aspects of what attracts us to others, what others find attractive in us, and leads into a consideration of how that attraction deepens into intimacy.

Lesson Objectives

- Why are we attracted to people?
- What is intimacy in a relationship?
- What is the relationship between gender and intimacy?
- What influence does culture have on intimacy?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Attraction and relationships
 - Why do you like some people more than others?
 - What attracts you to members of the same gender?
 - What attracts you to members of the opposite gender?
 - What qualities do you most admire in an intimate relationship?
- Research/Discussion: Beauty
 - Is society biased towards beauty? Cite evidence to support this position?
 - What are the cultural differences in what is considered to be beautiful? Find examples from a variety of cultures to illustrate what various cultures consider to be beautiful. What are the features of attractive/beautiful people in various cultures?
 - Gender differences and beauty: What are the characteristics of beautiful males and females? Is there common consensus as to what it means to be beautiful?
 - Design and conduct a research project investigating people's interpretations of beauty. Do our definitions of beauty change as we get older?
 - What is the relationship between beauty and:
 - leadership
 - self-esteem
 - careers/jobs
 - popularity
 - body image
 - psychological disorders such as eating disorders, social phobias and anxiety disorders?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on attraction
 - Divide the class in to six groups and assign one of the theoretical perspectives to each group.
 - Have each group create a role play, or skit, that illustrates how its theoretical perspective explains attraction.

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 4.3.2, Love, for more information on attraction.

Resources

- *Interactions*, Unit 3: How do we make sense of our world, "Beauty"
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Wondering in Wishart"

Lesson 4.3.1: Teacher Information

Why are we attracted to people?

Why are we attracted to people? There are several reasons:

- *Similarity* - We like people who are similar to us in terms of interests, attitudes or experiences. Differences strengthen a relationship when they are complementary, that is, when each partner's characteristics satisfy the other's needs.
Research over the past 20 years into successful and unsuccessful couples demonstrates that partners in successful marriages were similar enough to satisfy each other mentally and physically, but were different enough to meet each other's needs and keep the relationship interesting. Why is similarity so important in attraction? There are at least two possibilities. First, people who are similar provide us with important social validation for our characteristics and beliefs - that is, they provide us with the feeling that we are right. Second, it is likely that we make certain negative inferences about the character of someone who disagrees with us on important issues - not necessarily out of the need to be validated, but because we suspect the individual's opinion is indicative of the kind of person we have found in the past to be unpleasant, immoral, weak or thoughtless. The research evidence for complementarity is mixed at best, and based on only a few studies (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 386).
- *Reciprocal attraction* - We like people who like us, usually. The power of reciprocal attraction is especially strong in the early stages of a relationship. People who approve of us bolster our self-esteem.
- *Gain-loss effect* is the finding that we like people the most if we feel we have gained in their estimation of us (e.g., if they initially disliked us but now like us), and that we dislike people the most if we feel we have lost their favour (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 391).
- *Competence* - We like to be around talented people, probably because we hope that their skills and abilities will rub off on us.
- *Disclosure* - Revealing important information about yourself can help build liking. When people share private and personal information with you, it suggests they trust and respect you.
- One of the simplest determinants of interpersonal attraction is *proximity*. The people

who, by chance, are the ones you see and interact with the most often are the most likely to become your friends and lovers. Even in a choice as important as a marriage partner, proximity plays a major role. Researchers have found that most people marry someone who sits nearby in the same classroom, lives in the same neighbourhood, or works in the same office or factory. The proximity effect works because of familiarity, or the mere exposure we have to individuals who are nearby (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 373).

- *Physical attraction* - One of the most striking things about the physical attraction phenomenon is that most people assume physical attraction is highly correlated with other desirable traits. Men and women believe that attractive people are more successful, more intelligent, better adjusted, more socially skilled, more interesting, more poised, more exciting, more independent and more sexual than their less attractive counterparts. Beauty constitutes a powerful stereotype (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 377).
- The *reinforcement-affect model* predicts that people will be attracted to someone whom they associate with good feelings, even if the person was not the cause (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 213).

What is intimacy in a relationship?

Burgess and Huston (1979) suggest the following outline as a consensus of opinion on the subject of intimacy:

- The two people interact more often for a longer time and in more situations than do less intimate friends or acquaintances.
- When apart, they attempt to restore proximity.
- They "open up to each other", revealing secrets, feelings, praise and criticism.
- They develop their own ways of communicating.
- Each develops the ability to anticipate how the other will behave and feel.
- Their behaviours and goals become synchronized - not identical, but they do not get in each other's way.
- Each becomes increasingly invested in the relationship.
- Increasingly, the self-interest of each depends on the well-being of the relationship.

- They see the relationship as virtually irreplaceable and unique.
- They tend to relate to others as a pair, or couple.
- They like, love and trust each other (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 219).

How can we describe an intimate relationship?

Erikson believed that a prerequisite for intimacy was the attainment of identity (the reconciliation of all of our various roles into one enduring and stable personality). Identity is necessary because we cannot know what it means to love someone and seek to share our life with them until we know who we are and what we want to do with our lives. Thus, genuine intimacy requires us to give up some of our sense of separateness, and we must each have a firm identity to do this (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 419).

What are the different styles of intimate interaction?

Young adults show different styles of intimate attraction. Psychologist Jacob Orlofsky (1976) developed a classification of five styles of intimate relationships:

- In the *intimate* style, the individual forms and maintains one or more deep and long-lasting love relationships.
- In the *preintimate* style, the individual shows mixed emotions about commitment, an ambivalence that is reflected in the strategy of offering love without obligations or long-lasting bonds.
- In the *stereotyped* style, the individual has superficial relationships that tend to be dominated by friendship ties with same-sex rather than opposite-sex individuals.
- In the *pseudointimate* style, the individual maintains a long-lasting sexual attachment with little or no depth or closeness.
- In the *isolated* style, the individual withdraws from social encounters and has little or no social contact with same- or opposite-sex individuals (Santrock, 1999, p. 425).

What is the relationship between gender and intimacy?

Most research does show that women (taken as a group) are more willing than men to share their thoughts and feelings. In terms of the amount and depth of information shared, female-female relationships are at the top of the disclosure list. Male-female relationships come in second while relationships between men involve less disclosure than any other type. At every age, women disclose more than men and the information they reveal is more personal and more likely to include negative information, men are more likely to share positive feelings. Unlike women who prefer personal talk, men grow close to one another by doing things. Men regard practical help as a measure of caring (Adler et al., 2001, p. 328).

What influence does culture have on intimacy?

The greatest differences between Asian and European cultures focuses on the rules for dealing with intimacy: showing emotions, expressing affection in public, engaging in sexual activity and respecting privacy. Disclosure is especially high in North American society. In fact, people from the United States are more disclosing than members of any culture studied. They are likely to disclose more about themselves to acquaintances, and even strangers. By contrast, Germans and Japanese tend to disclose little about themselves except in personal relationships with a select few (Adler et al., 2001, p. 330).

Quips and Quotes

A heart is not judged by how much you love, but by how much you are loved by others.

The Wizard of Oz

4.3.2 Love

"Love is what makes the world go round." This lesson addresses what is likely the most important and powerful, albeit misunderstood and undefinable, of all human emotions, love.

Lesson Objectives

- What is love?
- What are the different types of love?
- How is liking someone different than loving someone?
- What influence does culture have on our notions of love?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research study: Gender differences and love
 - How do males and females define love? Are there different types of love? How do you know if you are in love? Is there any validity to the saying, "Love at first sight"? Does the meaning and type of love differ with age? Is love universal?
- Research/Construction: How is love represented in literature, poetry, art, sculpture and music?
 - Create an anthology, or portfolio of different portrayals of love.
 - Create a poster, three-panel display, or computer-based presentation on love.
- Discussion: What does love mean?
 - Based on the passage from Corinthians (refer to Teacher Information) discuss what it means to love someone.
 - Create an anthology of definitions or quotes that define love.
- Creative dance/music: Love
 - Create a dance to music that portrays the theme of love.
- Research/Discussion: Love and the mass media
 - How are love, intimacy and romance depicted or portrayed in the media?
 - What value messages are being communicated?
- Discussion: Love and marriage
 - Do you need to love someone to have a successful, longterm marriage?
- Discussion/Construction: Sternberg's model of love
 - Using Sternberg's triangular model of love (intimacy, commitment, passion), discuss how this model may account for all the varieties of love (liking, romantic, infatuation and companionate).
 - Are there any aspects to Sternberg's model that are inaccurate or incomplete?
 - Construct your own "Model of Love".
- Research: Making marriages last
 - On the basis of Schlesinger's list of the ten most important criteria for a lasting marriage (See *Interactions*, Strengths in Families), interview or survey married couples to compare their comments and feedback.
- Discussion: Quotations
 - The way to love anything is to realize that it might be lost (G. K. Chesterton).
 - Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time; for that's the stuff life is made of (Benjamin Franklin).

Resources

- *Interactions*: Strengths in Families: Accentuating the Positives
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Lovestruck in Lucky Lake"

Lesson 4.3.2: Teacher Information

What does it mean, to be in love?

Love can assume many forms and varieties, such as the love of one's mate, brother or sister, child, parent or grandparent, friend, or country. Further, love can evolve or change over time, such as when the passionate love of the honeymoon becomes companionate love. How can we conceptualize love as a state? Sternberg (1986) has proposed a triangular model of love representing the varieties of love. All love experiences consist of three components, represented as points on a triangle. These components are:

- (1) intimacy, the closeness or bond between the two people, including communication, self-disclosure, and a desire to care for the loved one
- (2) passion, the emotional arousal and physical drives in the love relationship. While physical attraction and sexuality may be prominent, especially in the early phases of the relationship, other intense feelings such as need for self-esteem, nurturance and dominance may also contribute to the experience of passion
- (3) decision/commitment, which represents not only the decision to love someone, but also the commitment to maintain that loving relationship (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 221).

What are the different types of love?

Varieties of love experiences can be described in terms of the relative importance of the three components of intimacy, passion and decision/commitment:

- *Liking* involves intimacy in the absence of passion or decision/commitment; in this sense, liking does not include feelings towards casual acquaintances, but refers to friendships in which one feels closeness, bondedness and warmth toward the other.
- *Infatuation* consists of passion without intimacy or decision/commitment.
- *Romantic* love derives from a combination of intimacy and passion without commitment; or liking with the addition of physical arousal and attraction.
- *Companionate* love involves intimacy and decision/commitment in which the passion, at

least in the physical sense, has subsided (Adler et al., 2001, p. 222).

How is liking someone different than loving someone?

What seems clear is that loving is not simply an extreme form of liking. In reviewing the research, Berscheid (1985) suggests several ways in which liking and loving differ:

- Liking is relatively stable over time, whereas romantic love tends to be more fragile and volatile.
- Liking is strongly influenced by the actual exchange of rewards, whereas romantic love is influenced more by what we anticipate in the future.
- Liking is influenced in a logical way by rewards (we like people more who reward us more), whereas romantic love is often unrelated or even intensified by frustration or rejection (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 223).

What influence does culture have on our notions of love?

One of the main dimensions on which cultures differ is individualism-collectivism. Individualism places greater emphasis on personal achievement and self-reliance. Collectivism, by contrast, places priority on the welfare and unity of the group. Goodwin (1995) argues that love, at least in its passionate stomach churning Hollywood manifestation, is largely a Western and individualistic phenomenon and that in Western cultures, marriage is seen as the culmination of a loving relationship. In cultures where arranged marriages occur, the relationship between love and marriage is the other way around, and marriage is seen as the basis on which to explore a loving relationship. The cultural background in which people have learned about love is important in shaping their concept of it (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 485).

Quips and Quotes

The truth is incontrovertible. Malice may attack it. Ignorance may deride it. But in the end, there it is.

Winston Churchill

4.3.3 Honesty and Dishonesty

Honesty is one of the cornerstones of our society, a key aspect of our moral and ethical behaviour. Yet everyone, at some point in his/her life, has been dishonest. This lesson addresses both aspects.

Lesson Objectives

- How important is honesty in relationships?
- How important is honesty in terms of basic human values?
- In what ways are people dishonest?
- Why do people lie?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Honesty/dishonesty
 - Is honesty always the best policy?
 - Why do people lie? Refer to the Teacher Information section for at least five reasons. Brainstorm as many reasons as the students can offer. Can these reasons for lying be prioritized? Are there any of the reasons that are more “excusable” than others?
 - How do students know if somebody is telling the truth? Do these factors change depending on the situation? Why? Do these factors change depending on the person? Why?
 - In what situations have students lied? What were their reasons for doing so? Were their motives for lying internally or externally motivated?
 - Is exaggeration dishonesty?
 - “Never forget that a half truth is a whole lie” (Anonymous).
- Discussion: Values and honesty
 - Where would students place honesty in terms of the basic human values? Refer to Curriculum Support Materials, Human Values, for a list of human values. Note that honesty is not one of the 18 values listed. Where would you place honesty?
 - Does honesty, as an important basic human value, depend on the situation and context? Is honesty more important between friends and spouses than between acquaintances, and in interpersonal relationships than social situations?
- Research: Lying
 - Survey people’s opinions and attitudes towards lying, white lies and situations where it is okay to lie.
- Activity: World’s greatest expert
 - Have students create (either beforehand or using improvisation) a presentation in which they are the world’s greatest expert on _____.
 - The students in the class may question the “expert”.
 - What is the difference between this activity, exaggeration and lying?

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 2.5.2, Values for additional information.
- Research honesty, lying and the law.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Human Values
- *Interactions: Dear Pat, “Honest in Hanley.”*

Lesson 4.3.3: Teacher Information

How important is honesty in relationships?

Argyle and Henderson (1984) have conducted many studies looking at the rules people use in different types of relationships. By rules, they mean shared opinions or beliefs about what should or should not be done. According to Argyle and Henderson the two major functions of rules are to regulate behaviour in order to minimise potential sources of conflict, and to check on the exchange of rewards that motivate people to stay in relationships. Their research has uncovered rules that are thought to apply to all or most types of relationships, such as "respecting other people's privacy", "not discussing what has been said in confidence" and "being emotionally supportive". Additional rules apply in particular types of relationships. Argyle and Henderson's research indicates that relationships fall into clusters, with similar rules applying within a particular cluster. One such cluster includes spouse, sibling and close friends, whilst another includes doctor, teacher and boss. Deception is probably the most important rule that should not be broken. However, what counts as deception will depend on the nature of the relationship: if we cannot trust a friend or a partner, then the relationship is almost certainly doomed (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 494).

In what ways are people dishonest?

Three common alternatives to honest communication include lying, hinting and equivocation:

- *Lying* is a deliberate statement of untruth aimed at misleading or concealing.
- *Hints* are more direct than equivocal statements. Whereas an equivocal message is not necessarily aimed at changing another person's behaviour, a hint seeks to get a desired response from the other person. The success of a hint depends on the other person's ability to pick up the unexpressed message.
- *Equivocation* is neither a false message nor a clear truth, but rather an alternative used precisely when both of these are to be avoided. Besides saving face for the recipient, however, honest equivocation can be less stressful for the sender than either telling the truth bluntly or lying. Because equivocation is often easier to take than the cold, harsh truth, it spares the teller from feeling guilty. It's less taxing on the conscience to say, "I've never tasted anything

like this" than to say, "This food tastes terrible," even though the latter comment is more precise. Few people want to lie, and equivocation provides an alternative to deceit (Adler et al., 2001, p. 366).

Why do people lie?

Why do people lie? Five major reasons emerge:

- To save face
- To avoid embarrassment
- To avoid tension or conflict
- To expand or reduce relationships
- To gain power (Adler et al., 2001, p. 366).

Quips and Quotes

Isolated, a man may be a cultured individual; in a crowd he is a barbarian.

Simon Lebon

4.4 How do groups act and interact?

This overview lesson introduces the concept of collective behaviours in a variety of forms ranging from clubs and teams to gangs, cults and mobs.

Lesson Objectives

- What are collective behaviours?
- What are some examples of collective behaviours?
- What are the theoretical approaches to collective behaviour?
- What is groupthink, and how does it influence group behaviours?
- How does culture influence group behaviours?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Group problem solving activity: Tallest free-standing structure
 - Divide the class into groups of four or five. To each group distribute 50 drinking straws, and a roll of masking tape. The object of the exercise is to build the tallest, free-standing structure using the drinking straws and tape. The construction must not be attached to anything, and the straws can be taped together, but not inserted into the ends of the straws.
 - After the activity has concluded, discuss with the students the various group processes and dynamics involved, for example, leaders and followers, group decision making, leadership and compliance.
- Jigsaw/Presentation/Role Play: Examples of collective behaviours
 - Assign one of the eight types of collective behaviours to a small group, and direct each group to find examples of its type of collective behaviour in the media (magazines, television, video), or to create a role play that illustrates that type of behaviour.
- Mime: Contagion theories
 - A small group will create a mime that illustrates one of the four examples of contagion theory (suggestibility, social contagion, impersonality, anonymity).
- Research: Collective behaviours
 - Using an observational research style, have students observe various collective behaviours in such contexts as sports events, coffee shops, cafeteria, hallways, and the classroom.
- Discussion: Prosocial and antisocial groups
 - Brainstorm examples of prosocial and antisocial groups. From the lists generated, discuss the differences. What makes groups pro- or antisocial? What is the role of leadership? Are there gender differences in pro- or antisocial behaviours?
- Role Play: Groupthink
 - Have a small group of students create a role play to illustrate the concept of groupthink.
 - Discuss examples of this kind of behaviour that occur in the classroom, school, community and province.
- Consensus decision making: Collective behaviours
 - Conduct a consensus decision-making process that addresses the question: Should individuals involved in group behaviour (e.g., riots, gangs) be punished as individuals, or treated as a group?

Resources

- Materials: Masking tape, drinking straws

Lesson 4.4: Teacher Information

What are collective behaviours?

Milgram and Toch (1969) define collective behaviour as behaviour which originates spontaneously, is relatively unorganized, fairly unpredictable and planless in its course of development, and which depends upon inter-stimulation among participants (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 524).

What are some examples of collective behaviours?

Some examples of collective behaviour include:

- *Panic* is a form of action in which a crowd, excited by a belief in some imminent threat, may engage in uncontrolled, and therefore dangerous, collective flight. The action of the whole panicked crowd is not entirely irrational. Each individual acts to escape a perceived threat. However, the uncontrolled and uncoordinated action, and the response based on emotional contagion, give panic an irrational character.
- A *fad* is a trivial, short lived variation in speech, decoration or behaviour. One example of a fad was that of 'streaking', which first emerged in the mid-1970s during the summer months.
- *Fashion* is similar to a fad, but is less trivial and changes less rapidly. Long hair in men has been in and out of fashion several times, as have different lengths of women's dresses.
- Whereas a panic is a rush away from a perceived threat, a *craze* is a rush towards some satisfaction. Crazes differ from fads in that they become obsessions for their followers.
- *Propaganda* includes all efforts to persuade people to a point of view on an issue. The distinction between education and propaganda is that the former cultivates the ability to make discriminating judgements, whereas the latter seeks to persuade people to the undiscriminating acceptance of ready-made judgements.
- *Public opinion* can be defined as (1) an opinion held by a substantial number of people, or (2) the dominant opinion among a population. The first use allows for many public opinions, whereas the second refers to public consensus on some issue.

- A *social movement* is some collectivity acting with some continuity to promote or resist a change in the society or group of which it is a part.

- A *revolution* is a sudden, usually violent, and relatively complete change in a social system (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 524).

What are the theoretical approaches to collective behaviour?

Contagion Theories

LeBon (1879) identified several situational determinants of behaviour which come into operation when a crowd is assembled, these being:

- Whilst some believe that the role played by suggestibility has been over-emphasized, heightened suggestibility does make *rumour* an important part of collective behaviour.
- *Social contagion*, or interactional amplification, is the process whereby members of a crowd stimulate and respond to one another and thereby increase their emotional intensity and responsiveness. When so aroused, a crowd needs emotional release, and it may act on the first suggested action, which accords with its impulses.
- In the cases of mobs and riots, the *impersonality* of crowd behaviour is illustrated by treating one member of the 'enemy' as being as bad as another, which explains why innocent passersby are often the victims of a riot.
- LeBon believed that the more anonymous the crowd, the greater was its potential for extreme action, because *anonymity* removes the sense of individuality from members. When a person does not feel that he or she is being singled out as an individual, and when attention is not paid to others as individuals, restraints on behaviour are removed and a person is 'free' to indulge in behaviour that ordinarily would be controlled. The reason for this is that moral responsibility for behaviour has been shifted from the individual person to the group of which he or she is a member.
- Festinger (1952) proposed the concept of *deindividuation*, defining it as a state of affairs in a group where members do not pay attention to other individuals as individuals and, correspondingly, the members do not feel they are being singled out by others. According to

Festinger, membership in a group not only provides us with a sense of identity and belongingness, but also allows us to merge with the group, forego our individualities, and become anonymous. This may lead to a reduction of inner constraints and inhibitions.

Convergence Theories

Convergence theory argues that crowd behaviour arises from the gathering together of people who share the same needs, impulses, dislikes and purposes. Organized gatherings of many kinds provide settings that integrate crowd behaviour into the social structure.

Emergent Norm Theory

One weakness of contagion theory is that it does not explain why a crowd takes one course of action rather than another. According to emergent norm theorists, contagion theorists are guilty of exaggerating the irrational and purposeless components of crowd behaviour. According to Brown (1954) there are standards of behaviour that emerge from groups, defined as thresholds for participation, including:

- *The lawless*: These are impulsive people who need little provocation before they try to retaliate. The lawless have little understanding of or concern for the consequences of their actions.
- *The suggestible*: These are people who are easily influenced by an impulsive leader, although it is unlikely that they would initiate action on their own.
- *The cautious*: These are people with strong interests in the kinds of actions initiated by others, but who would not act because of a fear of the law. If this constraint is lifted, they take action in pursuit of their own interests.
- *The yielders*: These are people who are easily persuaded that everybody is engaged in a particular activity. Yielders act when a sufficient number of people are acting because they do not want to be left out, and see an action is right because others are engaged in it.
- *The supportive*: Whilst the supportive cannot be stampeded into action, they do not actively oppose it. They may watch or shout encouragement. They are not violent, but they do not stand out against violence in others.

- *The resisters*: These are people whose values make them opposed to mob action, and who will not support it, even passively. Because of this, they are in danger of their lives if they speak up at the wrong time (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 524-530).

What is groupthink, and how does it influence group behaviours?

Janis (1989) has coined the term groupthink for the tendency for group members, especially elite groups, to assume that the group invariably has the right answer. It occurs when a group seeks a solution to a problem without fully considering all the possible alternatives (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 164).

Close, friendly groups usually work well together. But they face the problem of getting the best ideas and efforts of their members while avoiding an extreme form of conformity called groupthink, the tendency to think alike and suppress dissent. According to Janis (1989) groupthink occurs when a group's need for total agreement overwhelms its need to make the wisest decision. The symptoms of groupthink include:

- An illusion of invulnerability. The group believes that it can do no wrong and is 100 percent correct in its decisions.
- Self-censorship. Dissenters decide to keep quiet rather than rock the boat, offend their friends, or risk being ridiculed.
- Direct pressure on dissenters to conform. The leader teases or humiliates dissenters or otherwise pressures them to go along.
- An illusion of unanimity. By discouraging dissent, leaders and group members create an illusion of consensus (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 281).

How does culture influence group behaviours?

In contrast to the independent self-system common in Western cultures, the more collectivist orientation promotes an interdependent self-system through which people see themselves as a fraction of the social whole; each person has little or no meaningful definition without reference to the group. These cultural differences may produce differences in how people view their personal accomplishments. In Japan, positive moods and feelings such as calmness or elation were associated strongly with positive interpersonal connections. For U.S. students, the results were opposite: Positive feelings were most associated with personal achievement (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 427).

Quips and Quotes

Isolated, a man may be a cultured individual; in a crowd he is a barbarian.

Simon Lebon

4.4.1 Crowds and Mobs

Was Simon Lebon correct? How, why and when does our behaviour in groups change or degenerate into crowd and mob behaviour?

Lesson Objectives

- What is the difference between a crowd and a mob?
- Why do crowds become mobs?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Jigsaw/Role Play: Crowd behaviours
 - Refer to the Teacher Information section for the various theories of crowd behaviours. Students will create a role play or mime that portrays the various theories of crowd development.
- Discussion: Types of crowds
 - What are the similarities and differences in crowd behaviours at various group functions and events?
 - Sporting events: Observe parent's behaviour at sporting events such as hockey games. Why do people react that way? Relate their observations to aggressive and violent behaviour. What are the influences that prompt such behaviour?
 - Social events: How do we behave in social situations such as dances? What are the social norms of behaviour that outline the "rules" for behaving in a variety of social situations?
 - Political events: Provide samples of political rallies. What motivates people in those situations? In what ways is our behaviour influenced by those around us?
- Media Study: Deindividuation
 - Listen to, or read the lyrics, to Bob Seger's "Feel Like A Number".
 - What is the relationship to this song and the concept of deindividuation?
- Discussion: Crowds, Mobs, Gangs and Terrorists
 - Define each of the four types of groups. Compare the definitions.
 - How do the skills and qualities of group members change for each of the types of groups?
- Discussion: Quotations
 - The only certainty about following the crowd is that you will all get there together (Mychal Wynn).
 - Great bodies of people are never responsible for what they do (Virginia Woolf).
 - The crowd gives the leader new strength (Euenius).
 - The man who follows the crowd will usually get no further than the crowd. The man who walks alone is likely to find himself in places no one has (Alan Ashley-Pitt).
 - What luck for rulers than men do not think (Adolf Hitler).

Making Connections

- Civil disobedience: Are there times and situations when disobeying authority is appropriate and acceptable?
- Refer to Criminal Behaviour, Topic 4.6.5 for further information.

Resources

- [Lyrics website](#)
- Media: "Feel like a number", by Bob Seger, from the album *Stranger In Town*.

Lesson 4.4.1: Teacher Information

What is the difference between a crowd and a mob?

A crowd can be defined as a collection of people gathered around a centre or point of common attention. Several types of crowd may be distinguished. A casual crowd is one whose members rarely know each other and whose forms of behaviour are mostly unstructured. In times of social unrest or tension, crowds may be transformed into acting crowds or mobs. A mob has been defined as a crowd bent upon an aggressive act such as lynching, looting or the destruction of property. The term refers to a crowd that is fairly unified and single-minded in its aggressive intent. Mob action is not usually randomly destructive but tends to be focused on a single target (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 531).

Why do crowds become mobs?

A key component of unrestrained behaviour such as mob violence is anonymity. Anonymity produces a lack of self-awareness and self-perception that leads to decreased concern with social evaluation. The view that no single individual can be held responsible for the behaviour of a group arises out of deindividuation - the process by which individuals lose their self-awareness and distinctive personalities in the context of a group and may engage in anti-normative behaviour (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 412).

Quips and Quotes

"Within the gang you're a somebody, people respect you; you've got a name."

Anonymous

4.4.2 Gangs

Gangs often represent the most aggressive, violent and antisocial form of group behaviour. This lesson addresses the "dark side" of collective behaviours.

Lesson Objectives

- What is the definition of a gang?
- Why do people join gangs?
- What is the relationship between risk-taking behaviours and gang involvement?
- Are there gender differences in terms of gangs and gang activity?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research/Discussion: Gang membership and belonging
 - Why do people join gangs?
 - How are gangs similar to, or different from, teams and other close knit groups?
 - Are there gender differences in gang membership and behaviours?
- Research: Gangs and trends in juvenile violence
 - Using the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention website listed below, research the National Survey data relating to gangs and youth.
- Discussion: Gangs
 - Are gangs an issue in our school/community? Why or why not?
 - What are the positive and negative influences of each of the systems of support (microsystem/exosystem/macrosystem) that either promote or help to prevent the development of gangs in your community?
 - Are gang behaviours related to age? Were you in a gang when you were younger?
- Literature Study: "On the sidewalk bleeding"
 - Read the short story, "On the sidewalk bleeding".
 - Based on the story, what attributes or symbols define a gang?
 - What stereotypical attitudes were demonstrated by the various people in the story?
 - What role and importance do gangs play? What examples can you find in the story to support your position?
 - Why did Andy join the Royals?

Making Connections

- Research biker gangs, violence and bombings in Quebec.

Resources

- Literature: "On the sidewalk, bleeding."
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Asking in Allan"
- Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency prevention, U.S. Department of Justice

Lesson 4.4.2: Teacher Information

What is the definition of a gang?

The California Council on Criminal Justice has defined a gang as "a group of people who interact at a high rate among themselves to the exclusion of other groups. A gang has a group name, claims a neighbourhood or other territory, and engages in criminal or other antisocial behaviour on a regular basis" (Barden, 1989, p. 9).

Why do people join gangs?

One reason is very clear to those who have worked with young people in gangs: security. In a time when, as many people believe, most of our culture's institutions – church, family, school – have crumbled, the gang remains a powerful force. "Within the gang you're a somebody," one gang counselor observes. "People respect you; you've got a name. Most of the kids I see are from one-parent or no-parent families. Nobody notices them, nobody really cares about them, and nobody has time for them. But the gang has time for them. It's as simple as that (Stewart, 1997, p. 11).

Boys and girls join gangs for many reasons. They may feel a need to belong to a peer group or a "substitute family." They may need protection from an abusive family, or from other gangs. They may want a feeling of pride in their culture, their language, or their neighbourhood. Some people join gangs because they want money and power. Others join because a gang is an outlet for hostility, where crime and fighting are praised. Still others join because they need someone to lead them. They have a weak sense of identity (Webb, 1990, p. 164).

Findings show that maltreatment increases the probability of gang involvement, independent of demographic factors. When youth are physically and sexually abused their odds of gang involvement are four times higher than those who do not experience maltreatment (Thompson and Braaten-Antrim, 1998, p. 328).

A major research study examined female delinquency and gang membership in 122 black female juveniles using data from the 1960s. The report concluded that racism, sexism, poverty, and limited opportunity are more important predictors of delinquency than personality and family relationships. Relationships with girl friends were more significant predictors than heterosexual relationships (Bowker, 1993, p. 750).

What is the relationship between risk-taking behaviours and gang involvement?

The Rochester (New York) Youth Development Study (RYDS) concerning the contributions of youth gang membership to delinquency started with a sample of 1 000 boys and girls in the 7th and 8th grades of the Rochester public schools. The sample included more youth from high-crime areas and fewer from low-crime areas. About 30 percent of the youth in the study reported being a member of a street gang at some point. Results clearly indicate that gang members were responsible for most of the delinquent acts reported. Although gang members were only one-third of the RYDS respondents, they were responsible for 86 percent of the serious delinquent acts, 69 percent of the violent acts, and 70 percent of the drug sales (Thornberry and Burch, 1997, p. 2).

Are there gender differences in terms of gangs and gang activity?

The number of girls in gangs has skyrocketed, not just in inner cities, but in suburban areas. They join gangs for the same reasons males do: friendship, a sense of belonging and security. And they run the very same, unglamorous risks: prison time, drug addiction, injury or death (Dunham, 1995, p. 52).

Quips and Quotes

Belonging is the heart of radical departures to join a cult.

Saul Levine

4.4.3 Cults

From Jim Jones and David Koresh to Doomsday cults prophesying the end of the world, cults are a social phenomenon that intrigue, frighten and in some instances, amuse society at large.

Lesson Objectives

- What is a cult?
- How are cults different from other groups?
- Who leads cults?
- Why do people join cults?
- What are the different kinds of cults?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Cults
 - Write the definition of a cult (refer to Teacher Information) on the board but do not indicate what type of group it refers to. Ask the students to identify the type of group (e.g., political, crowd, business, gang, sports, cult) the definition describes. What are the defining characteristics of cults that differentiate them from other groups?
 - Write the profile of who joins a cult (refer to Teacher Information) on the board. In what ways is the description of the "typical" cult member similar or consistent with other groups?
 - "Joiners look to belief in a cult as a way to avoid their personal dilemma. Feeling so little self-esteem, they can't shoulder the responsibility of perhaps making a wrong moral choice and thereby feeling even more worthless. They are looking for ideology that will bolster whatever is admirable in them and purge whatever is bad" (Levine, 1984, p. 23). Relate this statement from Levine to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. At what level of the hierarchy is this need being fulfilled? Based on this, what treatment or therapy might students recommend to reduce the attractiveness of cults?
 - Refer to Topic 4.5.11 Compliance, Conformity and Obedience. In what ways do cult leaders promote compliance, conformity and obedience in their members?
- Discussion: Leadership and cults
 - Compare the characteristics of cult leaders with other leaders of other groups (e.g., gangs, teams, political parties, business). What characteristics or personality traits do cult leaders possess? Should society hold cult leaders responsible for the actions of their cult members?
 - How do cult leaders differ from terrorist leaders?
- Research: Cults
 - Direct small groups of students to conduct research into one of the many cults operating in the world today.
 - Refer to Topic 3.4, Self-understanding from information on self-concept.
 - Personality traits and leadership
 - How is leadership defined and described differently for cults, social movements and political parties?

Making Connections

- An overview of cults from the last five decades
- "Growing Up With The Moonies", *Good Housekeeping*, December, 1999.
- "The Thriving Cult of Power and Greed", *Time*, May 6, 1991.

Lesson 4.4.3: Teacher Information

What is a cult?

Cults are groups that are led by an all-powerful leader or leaders who claim to have special powers or abilities (Zeinert, 1997, p. 13).

Cults are a group or movement exhibiting great or excessive devotion or dedication to some person, idea or thing, and employing unethical manipulative or coercive techniques of persuasion or control (e.g., isolation from former friends and family, debilitation, use of special methods to heighten suggestibility and subservience, powerful group pressures, information management, suspension of individuality or critical judgement, promotion of total dependency on the group and fear of leaving it), designed to advance the goals of the group's leaders, to the actual or possible detriment of members, their families or the community (Tobias and Lalich, 1994, p. 12).

How are cults different from other groups?

Three characteristics, which may be present to a greater or lesser degree, help to distinguish cults from other communities or groups. They are:

1. Members are expected to be excessively zealous and unquestioning in their commitment to the identity and leadership of the group. They must replace their own beliefs and values with those of the group.
2. Members are manipulated and exploited, and may give up their education, careers and families to work excessively long hours at group-directed tasks such as selling a quota of candy or books, fund-raising, recruiting and proselytizing.
3. Harm or the threat of harm may come to members, their families, and/or society due to inadequate medical care, poor nutrition, psychological and physical abuse, sleep deprivation, criminal activities, and so forth (Tobias and Lalich, 1994, p. 13).

Who leads cults?

In general, many of these leaders have had unusual lives that were filled with traumatic experiences and uncommon visions. Few have been able to fit into society even though they may be highly intelligent, extremely charming (when they want to be), and very ambitious people. In addition, they are charismatic – that is, they have an extraordinary

ability to persuade people to believe in them and their cause (Zeinert, 1997, p. 18).

There are several characteristics relevant to cult identification, some of which highlight the role of the cult leader.

1. Cults are authoritarian in their power structure.
2. Cults tend to be totalitarian in their control of the behaviour of their members.
3. Cults tend to have double sets of ethics (one for the leader and another for the members; one for those inside the group, another for dealing with outsiders).
4. Cult leaders are self-appointed and claim to have a special mission in life.
5. Cult leaders tend to be charismatic, determined and domineering (Tobias and Lalich, 1994, p. 13).

The cult leader by definition must have an authoritarian personality in order to fulfill the power dynamic. Traditional elements of authoritarian personalities include:

- the tendency to a hierarchy
- the drive for power and wealth
- hostility, hatred, prejudice
- superficial judgements of other people
- a one-sided scale of power favouring the leader
- interpreting kindness as weakness
- the tendency to use people and see others as inferior
- incapable of being ultimately satisfied
- paranoia
- charisma
- the master manipulator.

Cults usually originate with a living leader who is believed to be "god" or godlike by a small group of dedicated believers. Along with a dramatic and convincing talent for self-expression, these leaders have an intuitive ability to sense their followers' needs and draw them closer with promises of fulfillment. Gradually, the leader convinces the group of his own private ideology, then creates conditions so that his victims cannot or dare not test his claims (Tobias and Lalich, 1994, p. 65).

Who joins a cult?

In general, no matter what definition is used, cult members share a number of similar characteristics. The majority are idealistic, simple, male, white, middle-class and young, many being eighteen to

twenty-five years old. Most have been members of the Christian or Jewish communities, and they have attended services regularly. Approximately 60 percent of cult members have attended college, although only 20 percent have received a degree (Zeinert, 1997, p. 15).

Of the radical departures I have studied, few cult members have been involved in relationships that were more than exploitative or tentative. None felt committed to a value system at the time of joining a cult. Joiners look to belief in a cult as a way to avoid their personal dilemma. Feeling so little self-esteem, they can't shoulder the responsibility of perhaps making a wrong moral choice and thereby feeling even more worthless. They are looking for ideology that will bolster whatever is admirable in them and purge whatever is bad (Levine, 1984, p. 23).

What are the different kinds of cults?

Cults come in a variety of shapes and sizes. Categories of cults that are recruiting successfully today include:

Eastern meditation: Characterized by belief in becoming one with God.

Religious: Marked by belief in the afterlife, salvation, sometimes combined with an apocalyptic view. The leader reinterprets the Scriptures and often claims to be a prophet if not the Messiah.

Political, racist, terrorist: Fueled by a belief in changing society, revolution, overthrowing the "enemy" or getting rid of evil forces. The leader professes to be all-knowing and all-powerful (Tobias and Lalich, 1994, p. 15).

4.4.4 Social movements

Quips and Quotes

One broken dream is not the end of dreaming,
One shattered hope is not the end of all,
Beyond the storm and tempests stars
are gleaming,
Still build your castles, though your
castles fall.

Anonymous

This lesson considers a form of collective behaviour that encompasses community, provincial, national and global issues.

Lesson Objectives

- What are social movements?
- What are the various types of social movements?
- What is the life of a social movement?
- Why do social movements develop?
- What are some examples of social movements?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Social movements
 - Discuss the various types of social movements (reform, religious and revolutionary) and brainstorm examples of each that have impacted our society.
 - Are revolutionary movements that invariably involve violence and aggression ever justified?
 - What are some political social movements that have affected our society?
- Discussion: Human population growth may be seen to be at the root of virtually all of the world's environmental problems.
 - Based on the information contained in the Teacher Information section, discuss how global issues such as environmentalism and population growth affect us here in our communities.
 - How can we make a difference?
- Media Study: "Les Misérables"
 - Using the lyrics and music from the musical version of Victor Hugo's "Les Misérables," critique the story in terms of social movements.
 - What were the issues that were raised in the story? What segments of society were responsible for trying to right the wrongs?
 - In what ways did the students attempt to have their issues addressed?
 - Is violence ever justified?
 - Compare and contrast the life of the social movement in "Les Misérables" with the life of a social movement as described in the Teacher Information section.
- Research: Feminism
 - What is it? What are the goals of feminists? What influence or impact has feminism had?
- Research: Environmentalism
 - What is it? What are the goals of environmentalists? What influence or impact has environmentalism had?

Making Connections

- Research UNESCO and global issues that are being monitored.
- Research Greenpeace as a social movement.
- Research social justice.

Resources

- Website of the Green Party of British Columbia
- Website of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
- Media: "Les Misérables," the musical.

Lesson 4.4.4: Teacher Information

What are social movements?

Social movements are a form of collective behaviour that usually begins very slowly but then spreads and spreads, eventually producing a formal group oriented towards bringing about social change. Social movements are an important engine of change in a society, forcing the society to respond to long-overlooked or changing needs. Generally, a social movement is aimed at either promoting or resisting change in society. It attracts people who feel that a problem exists, believe that something can be done about it, and want to do something about it. Social movements are more likely to arise in a society undergoing rapid social change than in a stable one (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 413).

What are the various types of social movements?

The goals of social movements vary from the very general (women's equality) to very specific (preventing clear cutting in B.C. forests). Reform movements accept the basic structure of society but seek to modify part of it, while revolutionary movements seek to overthrow the existing social order. As a result, revolutionary movements are often driven underground, while reform movements appear respectable and attempt to gain support through discussion and persuasion. Reform movements try to win the support of the middle class, while revolutionary movements typically appeal to those in the oppressed or distressed group. Religious movements such as the "Moral Majority" attempt to win political power to change the social order. Some social movements evolve into mainline political forces, as was the case with the Parti Québécois (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 414).

What is the life of a social movement?

A social movement often develops through a series of four stages:

- At the social unrest stage there are no definite goals, and agitators are likely to play an important role as they try to make people aware of the shortcomings of contemporary society. The suffragette movement, the women's liberation movement and the gay liberation movement all began when various individuals expressed their dissatisfaction with their role in society.
- During the popular excitement stage, more definite ideas about the causes of the problems

and about the goals emerge. Challenges to the contemporary social order become more frequent and powerful.

- As a social movement gathers impetus, it enters the formalization stage, where it gradually takes on an organizational form, with formal leaders, division of duties and an agenda. Policies are formalized, and a leader, likely to be a statesperson, is chosen. An ideology, or a collection of beliefs, myths and doctrines, develops along with it. The ideology defines and defends the goals of the group, condemns the existing social order, outlines the policies and tactics, and contains the myths of the group.
- Institutionalization is the final stage of social movements. As they gather momentum, participants in social movements are often led to believe that their continued survival depends on being acceptable to outsiders; thus they may gradually drop their most radical ideas (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 415).

Why do social movements develop?

It is not the actual but the relative degree of privation that is important. When people compare themselves to other appropriate groups and find that the others are better off, this leads to frustration and resentment, and becomes the basis for the social unrest that underlies the growth of social movements. Relative deprivation occurs at both the interpersonal and intergroup levels. However, if the comparison stays at the interpersonal level, collective action is unlikely to emerge. By contrast, intergroup comparison may lead to collective action. Intergroup comparison need not be in terms of housing or food or material wealth; it may reflect perceived differences in power or status within the society (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 416).

What are some examples of social movements?

Feminism is the desire for greater equality and opportunity for females in society. While branches within the feminist movement propose various analyses, strategies and solutions, they share a few broad ideas:

- The reality of different sexual and gender characteristics, whether appropriate or not, prescribe different roles for men and women in the home, workplace and society generally.
- Women's subordinate role in society is based on their biology and female nature.

- As a consequence of the previous factors, women constitute a "class" within society, and all women, regardless of economic social class, are oppressed due to this shared biology and nature.
- Not all women recognize the nature of their oppression.
- As a result of this common quality of oppression, all women are members of a "sisterhood" or "universal womanhood".
- Sexual oppression is found in many power relationships in society (Joseph, 1998, p. 108).

Environmentalism is centered on a concern for the protection and preservation of the natural environment. Growing awareness of the pollution of our natural resources - water, air, soil - and the collapse or extinction of various species has created a general uneasiness among citizens. Some of the shared beliefs of a number of different environmentalist agencies and groups are:

- A deep respect for the laws of nature.
- A recognition of the intrinsic value of all life forms.
- An enthusiastic embrace of both biodiversity and social diversity.
- Support for an organic conception of society that acknowledges interdependence and that minimizes hierarchy and the separation between the human and non-human worlds.
- A holistic-based ethical system that draws inspiration from the natural world.
- A preference for participatory democracy and political decentralization.
- Support for a sustainable economy, reduced consumption, more equitable distribution, and voluntary simplification of consumption and lifestyles (Joseph, 1998, p. 112).

In November 1992 a document entitled *Warning to Humanity* was released. This alarm was signed by 1500 scientists from around the world, including 99 Nobel laureates, a dozen national academies of science, the Pontifical Academy of Science, and the director general of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The document was bold and clear, stating that "human beings and the natural world are on a collision course," which "may so alter the living world that it will be unable to sustain life in the manner that we know."

The problems facing the environment are vast and diverse. Destruction of the world's rain forests, global warming, and the depletion of the ozone layer

are just some of the problems that will reach critical proportions in the coming decades. Their rates will be directly affected by the size of the human population.

Human population growth may be seen to be at the root of virtually all of the world's environmental problems. Increasingly large numbers of people are being added to the world every year. As the number of people increases, more pollution is generated, more habitats are destroyed, and more natural resources are used up. Even if new technological advances were able to cut in half the environmental impact that each person had, as soon as the world's population size doubled, the earth would be no better off than before.

The Population Division of the United Nations predicts that the 5.63 billion humans alive in 1994 will increase to 6.23 billion in the year 2000, 8.47 billion in 2025, and 10.02 billion in 2050. The UN's estimate assumes that population will peak and stabilize at 11.6 billion in 2200. Others predict that numbers will continue to rise into the foreseeable future, to as many as 19 billion people in 2200.

Although it is true that rates of population increase are now much slower in the developed world than in the developing world, it would be a mistake to assume that the population growth problem is primarily a problem of developing countries. In fact, because larger amounts of resources per person are used in the developed nations, each citizen from the developed world has a much greater environmental impact than does a citizen from a developing country. Conservation strategies that would not alter lifestyles but would greatly lessen environmental impact are essential in the developed world.

Evidence now exists suggesting that the most important factors necessary to lower population growth rates in the developing world are democracy and social justice. Studies show that population growth rates have fallen in areas where several social conditions have been met. In these areas, literacy rates have increased, and women are given economic status equal to that of men and thus are able to hold jobs and own property; also, birth control information is more widely available, and women are free to make their own reproductive decisions (Centre for Social Justice, 2001).

Quips and Quotes

The four great scourges of Mankind include ignorance, fear, hate and want.

Senior Public Servant
Government of
Saskatchewan

4.4.5 Political parties

Making connections to political science, this lesson addresses one of the macrosystem levels of influence on our social behaviour, the political nature of our society.

Lesson Objectives

- Why do we have political systems and parties?
- What are the contemporary Canadian political ideologies?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Presentation: Member of a political party
 - Invite a Member of the Legislative Assembly for Saskatchewan, a Member of Parliament, or a representative from one of our provincial or federal parties to speak to the class on his/her position on social issues such as welfare, health care, unemployment, daycare or education.
- Discussion/Presentation: Political parties and social influence
 - Discuss how political parties and, in particular, the government of the day influence our daily lives.
 - Invite a local M.L.A. or political party representative to discuss his/her party's position on such topics as health care, education and social programs (e.g., social assistance, subsidized daycare).
- Activity: Create your own political party
 - You will need a party name, a set of fundamental principles, policies on basic social issues such as social assistance, health and education, taxation, relationship to business, public versus private enterprise, and so on.
- Activity: Create an election
 - Divide the class into groups, allow each group to select an existing political party or create one of their own (see social movements for examples of other ideologies that could be represented politically). Elect a leader, produce election materials and have an election.
- Discussion: Governments and the scourges of Mankind
 - Based on the comments of the senior public servant regarding the four great scourges of Mankind, what role or responsibilities do political parties have for addressing the issues that face all humanity?

Making Connections

- Political systems in the world
 - Research the various political systems that exist in the world, from dictatorships to communism, from democracies to military juntas.
- Research: Machiavellian political theory.
- Decision making: Various models of arriving at decisions.
 - See Dialectical Reasoning for more information on decision-making models.

Resources

- Websites of the major Saskatchewan and Canadian political parties:
 - [Liberal Party of Canada](#)
 - [Canadian Alliance Party of Canada](#)
 - [Progressive Conservative Party of Canada](#)
 - [Saskatchewan Party](#)
 - [New Democratic Party of Saskatchewan](#)
 - [Liberal Party of Saskatchewan](#)

Lesson 4.4.5: Teacher Information

Why do we have political systems and parties?

Political parties are by definition created to gain political power. They operate under the umbrella of a set of ideological beliefs that attracts a variety of individuals and groups who see their interests as compatible with the ideology, and that serves as a means to promote them (Joseph, 1998, p. 90).

What are the contemporary Canadian political ideologies?

Liberalism emphasizes the worth and dignity of individuals. It recognizes the need to give them the widest possible freedoms to determine their own lives, develop to their full potential, and to participate in society's affairs. Liberalism struggled - and continues to fight - for the following freedoms: a) political liberties of press, speech, assembly, association, and religion enabling political diversity; b) economic freedoms enabling free enterprise and open competition; c) social freedoms enabling mobility within the social structure; and d) religious freedoms enabling religious tolerance and diversity. Combined, all these freedoms are best summed up in the concept "government is best that governs least". Liberals recognize that unrestricted freedom can become a barrier for some. With selected intervention through economic and social programs designed to overcome these barriers, there is a "greater equality of opportunity" for those who are disadvantaged by birth or circumstances.

Conservatism rallies around two fundamental principles: the free market economy and social conservatism (respect for the past and a hierarchical view of society). This leads to an emphasis on "social order" through established social institutions (government, church, family, social class), authority structures, and the development of habits and traditions that encourage respect for the existing order. Inequality is considered to be a natural condition. Proposals for social, economic and political equality are generally seen as going against the natural order of the universe. Conservatives approach social change with great caution. As morality and social responsibility are not natural human qualities, conservatives believe that individual and societal morality and responsibility must be derived from institutions such as the family and the Church.

Socialism proposes changes to the visions of both conservatism and liberalism. From liberalism it drew a concern for individualism, freedom and equality. From conservatism it drew a concern for social/community well being, order and unity. For

socialists, the key element shaping the social order was the economic system. A change in the economic system away from private ownership towards public ownership, particularly of major resources and public utilities, would transform the social order and bring about greater social equality and justice. Equality of opportunity would prevail as expanded government social services would bring about greater social and economic security. The wealth of society would be more fairly distributed through greater taxation of wealth, and more of society's resources would be cooperatively owned and managed as public companies (Joseph, 1998, p. 93-107).

Quips and Quotes

All the world's a stage – and we,
merely the players.

William Shakespeare

4.5 How do we act and interact in social situations?

This overview lesson addresses the “big picture” in terms of the variety and complexity of our social interactions.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the various social influences on our behaviour?
- How do we explain our social behaviour?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Social behaviours
 - Conduct an observational research study that investigates the various influences on our social behaviour. Students can be looking for examples of the eight various social influences on our behaviour as described in the Teacher Information section.
- Jigsaw/Role Play/Mime: Social influences on our behaviour
 - Assign one of the eight major social influences on our behaviour, see Teacher Information, and direct the students to create a mime or role play illustrating the various influences.
- Drama: Psychology Dictionary
 - Using the eight social influences listed in the Teacher Information section, use the Psychology Dictionary drama activity to explain or describe the various social influences.
- Discussion: Social behaviour
 - Using the information supplied in Teacher Information, discuss the various aspects of Jessor's (1993) social behaviour model. Note the interaction between the antecedent variables (demographic, socialization) with the social-psychological variables (personality, perceived environment, social environment) that results in two types of behaviours (problem, conventional).
- Activity: Mental schema
 - Direct the students to write down their mental schema (event scripts about familiar sequences of events or activities) for the following social situations: meeting someone new, school assemblies, group meetings or discussions, shopping in malls and shopping centres and watching sports events or concerts as a spectator.
- Research: Gender differences in social interactions
 - Design and conduct a series of investigations into the differences in the nature of social interactions from the male and female perspectives. The following aspects of social interaction could be investigated: communication, proxemics, activities, ingroup/outgroup, group dynamics, group decision-making processes or numbers of people involved.

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 4.5.1, Cooperation and Competition for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 4.4, Group Behaviours for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 4.5.4, Leadership for additional information.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Gender differences
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan

Lesson 4.5: Teacher Information

What are the various social influences on our behaviour?

There are several societal influences on our thoughts, feelings and behaviour:

- Social norms: Rules that regulate human life, including social conventions, explicit laws and implicit cultural standards.
- Imitation: Probably the most powerful social influence on our behaviour and attitudes is the behaviour of other people.
- Social facilitation: Increased activity resulting from the presence of another person.
- Social loafing: Decreased activity resulting from the presence of another person.
- Reciprocity: Another strong social influence is reciprocity, the tendency to pay back favours others have done for us. Reciprocity does not require that the “favour” be initially requested or even wanted. The debt of obligation can be so strong that reciprocity can be exploited by those who want us to comply with their requests when we would otherwise not do so.
- Commitment: once people commit themselves by making a decision and acting on it, they are reluctant to renounce their commitment. Commitment increases people's compliance even when the reason for the original commitment is removed.
- Attractive people (see beauty and attraction).
- Authority: People tend to comply with the requests of people in authority and to be swayed by their persuasive arguments, and such obedience is generally approved by society (Buskist et al., 2002, p. 154).

How do we explain our social behaviour?

Problem behaviour theory (Jessor, 1993) represents a comprehensive approach to understanding adolescent behaviour. In it, adolescent behaviour is viewed as being consistent with what the adolescent is like as a person (a “personality system”), how the adolescent is reacting to his or her home life and peer group (a “perceived environment system”), and what the adolescent tends to be doing (a “behaviour system”). Personality variables relevant to problem behaviour include low expectancies for success in school, high values for independence, and an

absence of constraints against such behaviour, such as religious beliefs or concern about deviance. Predisposing characteristics of the social environment include opportunities to engage in problem behaviour and the influence of peer groups. Problem drinking also tends to be part of a more general pattern of behaviour, including the use of marijuana and other drug use, deviant/delinquent acts such as lying and stealing, and precocious sexual involvement, along with less participation in school and church activities (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 453).

Quips and Quotes

Two are better than one because they have a good reward for their toil. For if they fail, one will lift up his fellow, but woe to him who is alone when he falls and has not another to lift him up. Again, if two lie together, they are warm; but how can one be warm alone?

Ecclesiastes 4:9-12

4.5.1 Cooperation and Competition

This lesson is concerned with a basic dichotomy in social relationships: Do we work with and for each other, or against each other? Cooperation and competition are closely linked to power, aggression, games and prosocial behaviours.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we promote cooperation?
- Is there a difference in our willingness to cooperate between individual and group situations?
- How are cooperation and competition related to beliefs, values and attitudes?
- How do we demonstrate cooperative attitudes and behaviours in our social actions and interactions?
- Is competition and competitiveness always bad?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Beliefs, values, attitudes and cooperation/competition
 - Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials: Beliefs, Values and Attitudes, brainstorm qualities and processes involved in both cooperation and competition.
 - Discuss what attitudes underlie such behaviours, then discuss what values underlie the attitudes. What are the basic belief systems that underlie the values?
- Discussion: How do we demonstrate cooperative attitudes and behaviours in our social actions and interactions?
 - How can we learn to cooperate in prosocial behaviours, relationships, group behaviours and decision making?
- Dialectical reasoning: Humans are naturally competitive
- Discussion: Sports, athletics and societal values
 - What does the relative importance of sports and athletics in our society mean about the basic values that we hold as a society?
 - Should athletes make more than politicians?
- Research: Competition and cooperation
 - Observe playground behaviours of children to note the ways in which they compete.
 - Are there gender differences in competitiveness?
- Discussion:
 - We together can do what I alone cannot (Anonymous).
 - There is more to life than increasing its speed (Ghandi).
 - Win any way as long as you can get away with it. Nice guys finish last (Leo Durocher).
 - Try not to become a man of success but rather try to become a man of value (Albert Einstein).
 - Going slow does not prevent arriving (Nigerian proverb).

Making Connections

- Research sexism and sports.
- What is the economic value of professional sports?
- What are the issues for amateur sports in Canada?
- Why are the salaries of professional athletes so high?

- Curriculum Support Materials: Beliefs, Values and Attitudes
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Cooperative in Cadillac"

Lesson 4.5.1: Teacher Information

How do we promote cooperation?

One way to foster cooperation, is to raise the collective identity of the group. For example, in one set of laboratory studies, individuals were found to be more likely to act in line with the collective good when the identity of the group as a whole was emphasized rather than the identities of subgroups.

Another way to foster cooperation is through coercion. Sometimes, coercion in the form of normative pressure is enough to prevent individuals from acting only from self-interest and ignoring the common good. The most extreme form of coercion is threats. As with a promise, for a threat to be successful, it must first be credible. Credibility depends on several factors:

- If the party making the threat has in the past failed to carry out such threats, the credibility of the threat will be low.
- The threatened action must have negative consequences for the person making the threat to assure the threatened party that the threat will not be carried out anyway.
- The threat must not carry too high a cost to either party or it is likely to suffer in terms of credibility.

Threats must be clearly communicated to the target if they are to have any effect. Threats serve their purpose only if they do not have to be carried out. Threats often lead to increased conflict because in our culture, as in many others, yielding to threats or coercion leads to a loss of face, or self-esteem. Face-saving is important, not only in terms of self-esteem, but in terms of future interaction. Yielding now may encourage more threats in the future. Once a threat has been made, the preservation of face becomes a primary goal for each player, thus leading to increased determination to "hold one's ground" and to respond with a counter-threat (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 278-281).

Is there a difference in our willingness to cooperate between individual and group situations?

People are more likely to act cooperatively when playing against another individual than when playing against a group of people. Interestingly, we are more likely to assume that a given individual is cooperative at heart and can be trusted, but that most groups of people will, given the opportunity, stab us in the back. This assumption is often on the

mark – people feel less accountable for their actions when in-groups – and are more likely to behave in an antisocial (e.g., competitive) manner (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 360).

Quips and Quotes

A merry heart doeth good like a medicine.

Proverbs 17:22

Frame your mind to mirth and merriment
Which bar a thousand harms and lengthen life.

William Shakespeare

4.5.2 Humour and Laughter

Humour and laughter are biological as well as social phenomena. This lesson deals with the “bright side of life.”

Lesson Objectives

- Why do people laugh?
- Are there gender differences in humour and laughter?
- Is laughter a factor in meeting, matching and mating?
- Is laughter contagious?
- Are there health benefits to humour and laughter?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Laughter
 - Observe people laughing spontaneously in their natural environments. Were there gender differences in laughter (e.g., did females laugh more than males, do females do the most laughing while males do the most laugh-getting?)
- Research: Personal advertisements and humour
 - Review the personal ads section of the local newspaper. What did the results show about the relative value and importance of humour in relationships? Were there gender differences in the results?
- Research: Gender differences in humour and laughter
 - Are there gender differences in what males and females think is funny?
 - Does having a sense of humour make a difference in first impressions and judgement formation when meeting new people?
 - How important is having a sense of humour?
- Research: Types of humour
 - Research the various types of humour (e.g., slapstick, cartoon, stand-up comedy, cartoons, situational). Create a comedy show featuring examples of each of the various types of humour.
- Media Study: *Patch Adams*
 - View the movie *Patch Adams*. Can humour cure?
- Activity: “Who’s On First?”
 - Using the hilarious Abbott and Costello dialogue, read aloud this classic example of miscommunication.
- Discussion: Humour as a weapon
 - Discuss situations where humour is used as a weapon to offend, hurt, belittle or embarrass.
 - What is the relationship of “negative humour” to bias and prejudice?
- Discussion: Quotations
 - Humour is by far the most significant activity of the human brain (Edward De Bono).
 - A sense of humour is part of the art of leadership, of getting along with people, of getting things done (Dwight D. Eisenhower).

Making Connections

- Personality Traits: Are you basically a happy person?
- Research stereotypes, bias, prejudice and discrimination.
- Research the different types, needs and styles of communication.

Resources

- Media Study: *Patch Adams*
- Website for text of “Who’s On First?”

Lesson 4.5.2: Teacher Information

Why do people laugh?

Laughter is primarily a social vocalization that binds people together. It is a hidden language that we all speak. It is not a learned group reaction but an instinctive behavior programmed by our genes. Laughter bonds us through humor and play.

Students in my classes confirmed the social nature of laughter by recording the circumstances of their laughter in diaries. After excluding the vicarious social effects of media (television, radio, books, etc.), its social nature was striking: Laughter was 30 times more frequent in social than solitary situations. The students were much more likely to talk to themselves or even smile when alone than to laugh. However happy we may feel, laughter is a signal we send to others, and it virtually disappears when we lack an audience (Provine, 2000, p. 58).

Are there gender differences in humour and laughter?

In our 1,200 case studies, my fellow researchers and I found that while both sexes laugh a lot, females laugh more. In cross-gender conversations, females laughed 126% more than their male counterparts, meaning that women tend to do the most laughing while males tend to do the most laugh-getting. Men seem to be the main instigators of humor across cultures, which begins in early childhood. Think back to your high-school class clown-most likely he was a male. The gender pattern of everyday laughter also suggests why there are more male than female comedians (Provine, 2000, p. 60).

Is laughter a factor in meeting, matching and mating?

Given the differences in male and female laugh patterns, is laughter a factor in meeting, matching and mating? I sought an answer in the human marketplace of newspaper personal ads. In 3,745 ads placed on April 28, 1996 in eight papers from the *Baltimore Sun* to the *San Diego Union-Tribune*, females were 62% more likely to mention laughter in their ads, and women were more likely to seek out a "sense of humor" while men were more likely to offer it. Clearly, women seek men who make them laugh, and men are eager to comply with this request. When Karl Grammar and Irenäus Eibl-Eibesfeldt studied spontaneous conversations between mixed-sex pairs of young German adults meeting for the first time, they noted that the more a woman laughed aloud during these encounters, the greater her self-reported interest in the man she was talking to. In

the same vein, men were more interested in women who laughed heartily in their presence. The personal ads and the German study complement an observation from my field studies: The laughter of the female, not the male, is the critical index of a healthy relationship. Guys can laugh or not, but what matters is that women get their yucks in (Provine, 2000, p. 59).

Is laughter contagious?

As anyone who has ever laughed at the sight of someone doubled over can attest, laughter is contagious. Since our laughter is under minimal conscious control, it is spontaneous and relatively uncensored. Contagious laughter is a compelling display of *Homo sapiens*, a social mammal. It strips away our veneer of culture and challenges the hypothesis that we are in full control of our behavior.

Laugh tracks have accompanied most television sitcoms since September 9, 1950. At 7:00 that evening, "The Hank McCune Show" used the first laugh track to compensate for being filmed without a live audience. The rest is history. Canned laughter may sound artificial, but it makes TV viewers laugh as if they were part of a live theater audience (Provine, 2000, p. 60).

Are there health benefits to humour and laughter?

"A merry heart doeth good like a medicine", and so it does. A "sense of humour" includes the ability to see the humour in tense and even tragic situations, to appreciate humour and witty people, and to use humour in coping with stress. People who can see the absurd or whimsical aspects in a bad situation are less prone to depression, anger and physical tension than are people who give in to gloom, moping and tears. In people with serious illnesses, humour reduces distress, improves immune functioning and hastens recovery from surgery. It may also stimulate the flow of endorphins, the painkilling chemicals in the brain. Laughter may have these effects because of its ability to reduce tension and emotional hostility. Humour also has mental benefits. When you laugh at a problem, you are putting it in a new perspective - seeing its silly or ridiculous aspects - and gaining a sense of control over it. Humour also allows you to express indirectly feelings that are risky to express directly, which is why it is so often the weapon of the powerless and of minorities (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 564)

Quips and Quotes

We make a living by what we get;
we make a life by what we give.

Anonymous

4.5.3 Prosocial behaviours

Prosocial behaviours range from opening a door to volunteering to donating blood in times of emergency. Why, when and how do we act in an altruistic manner?

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean, to act in a prosocial manner?
- What are the bases for prosocial behaviours?
- What influence does culture have on prosocial behaviour?
- What influence does gender have on prosocial behaviour?
- What influence does religious belief have on prosocial behaviour?
- How do we define heroism?
- What are the general characteristics of heroic people?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Activity: Prosocial behaviours
 - Brainstorm opportunities for students to demonstrate prosocial behaviours in the classroom, school and community.
 - This aspect of the social psychology curriculum may be formalized with the inclusion of a prosocial action component that would be designed, conducted and assessed at the completion of the project.
- Discussion: Prosocial behaviours
 - Are there examples that the students could offer for kinds of prosocial behaviours that they have witnessed or performed?
- Research: Heroes
 - Construct an anthology of heroes. The website listed below is particularly useful.
 - Who are your heroes?
 - Invite students to share heroic deeds performed by members of their family.
- Media Study: "Let's Roll"
 - Listen to, and discuss, the lyrics to the song based on the final minutes of United Airlines Flight 93 that crashed in Pennsylvania after being hijacked on September 11th.
- Media Study: *The Terry Fox Story*
 - View *The Terry Fox Story* and discuss: Was Terry Fox heroic? Why or why not?
 - Listen to the tribute to Terry Fox by Rod Stewart, a song entitled "Never Give Up On A Dream" on the album, *Tonight I'm Yours* (1981).
- Discussion: Adolescents and prosocial behaviours
 - Read the *Interactions* article entitled Brazilian Street Kids, and discuss the difference that adolescents can make in the world today.
 - What are some issues and challenges that adolescents can respond to in their own community?

Resources

- Website on cases of altruism
- Media Studies: *The Terry Fox Story*.
- Media: "Let's Roll", by Neil Young from the album, *Are You Passionate?* (2002).
- *Interactions*: Brazilian Street Kids: Reaching out to make a difference.
- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Inquisitive in Imperial."

Lesson 4.5.3: Teacher Information

What does it mean, to act in a prosocial manner?

Prosocial behaviour and altruism are synonyms used interchangeably to describe actions that are voluntarily carried out for the sole purpose of helping others, without expectation of reward from external sources (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 236).

What are the bases for prosocial behaviours?

- “*A born saint*”, *an inborn tendency*: Some theorists argue that natural selection favours the genetic transmission of factors that predispose an organism to act prosocially towards other members of its species. The contention that prosocial behaviour has a genetic basis still lacks empirical verification. However, more general aspects of personality, such as anxiety-proneness, might be influenced by heredity and might, in turn, make prosocial behaviour more or less likely.
- “*It's what's expected*”, *prosocial norms*: Several norms of behaviour are relevant to prosocial behaviour:
 - The norm of reciprocity, which appears to be universal, requires that people help, and not harm, those who have helped them in the past.
 - The norm of social responsibility prescribes that people should help people who need help, regardless of whether they had helped the potential benefactors, or might reciprocate in the future.
 - The norm of equity specifies that fairness should serve as a criterion for the way that we treat others.
- “*A good upbringing*”, *prosocial learning*: The cognitive-developmental approach views prosocial behaviour as the consequence of values and attitudes shaped by the developing child’s experience in the social environment. The social learning view, however, emphasizes the importance of modeling and reinforcement (See parenting styles for more information).
- “*Feeling good about yourself*”, *prosocial mood*: Do people like Norman Bethune and Mother Theresa help others because they already feel good? There is evidence that positive mood facilitates individual acts of charity or helping, while bad moods impede such behaviour.
- “*Other people's shoes*”, *prosocial empathy*: Empathy with the suffering of others is a major factor in eliciting prosocial behaviour. Empathic

arousal appears to be a universal human response, which is present to a degree even in one- and two-day-old infants, although it is modified by experience (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 237-244).

- *Negative state relief hypothesis* suggests that when we see a person in need of help, this creates negative feelings inside us and so to relieve these, we help this person (Baron et al., 1998, p. 688).
- *Genetic determinism hypothesis* states that we help others because doing so increases the likelihood that our genes – or ones similar to them – will be passed on to the next generation (Baron et al., 1998, p. 688).

What influence does culture have on prosocial behaviour?

Whiting and Whiting (1975) concluded that prosocial behaviour is most evident among children whose culture requires it - for example, where families are large and children help care for siblings and manage the household (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 245).

What influence does gender have on prosocial behaviour?

In general the research suggests that men help more often than women, although the findings are inconsistent. Moreover, social psychological research has typically focused on short-term interactions with strangers and has therefore largely ignored the very behaviours prescribed for the female gender role - behaviours primarily manifest in close, long-term relationships (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 246).

What influence does religious belief have on prosocial behaviour?

Research suggests that while individuals who believe that helping others is a religious duty are more likely to volunteer help, simply being “religious” in itself does not correlate well with helping behaviours or compassion for those in need (Batson and Gray, 1981). Perhaps *how* one is religious is more important. For example, some religious people view religion as an end in itself, that is, they see their whole duty in life as ultimately to serve God. Others view being religious as a means of obtaining other goals, such as power and influence in the community. Still other religious people view their religion as an open-ended quest for meaning and understanding and ultimate values (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 247).

How do we define heroism?

While heroism is difficult to define because it is based on perception and attribution, most acts that are considered heroic involve intervention in the face of extraordinary personal risk (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 257).

What are the general characteristics of heroic people?

London (1970) found three common characteristics. First, rescuers showed a fondness for adventure and excitement, which was crucial to the initiation of the rescue work. Second, the rescuers tended to be socially deviant, and their social marginality provided the impetus and endurance necessary to carry out this rescue work. Third, and most important, the rescuers showed a strong identification with a very moralistic parent who had definite opinions on moral questions and who provided a model for moral conduct (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 259).

Quips and Quotes

If you want to be a great leader, stop trying to control. The more prohibitions you have, the less virtuous people will be. The more weapons you have, the less secure people will be. The more subsidies you have, the less self-reliant people will be.

Tao Te Ching, Verse 57

4.5.4 Leadership

George Steinbrenner, owner of the New York Yankees is reputed to have a plaque on his desk that reads: Lead, follow or get out of the way. This lesson considers the first of those options.

Lesson Objectives

- How do people assume leadership roles?
- What are the different leadership styles?
- How do leaders rise to positions of power and influence?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Novel Study: Leadership and *Lord of the Flies*
 - Discuss and describe the leadership styles and qualities that Jack and Ralph demonstrated in *Lord of the Flies*. What did these leaders do? How did these leaders act? How did these leaders rise to power? How did they maintain power?
- Discussion: The art and science of leadership
 - Discuss the attributes or qualities of both the art and the science of leadership. Some examples of the “artistic” side of leadership include listening, observing, motivating, perceiving, ethics and morality, sensitivity and discipline. Some examples of the “science” aspect of leadership include skill development, teaching, managing, goal setting, planning, organizing, delegating and communicating. Relate these attributes and skills to a variety of leadership roles.
 - Are leaders born or made?
- Research: Leadership types
 - Design and conduct an interview with an educational, business, religious, athletic or scientific leader.
 - What qualities or skills are necessary for these different types of leaders?
 - Compare and contrast leadership traits, qualities, skills and styles.
- Discussion: Morality and leadership
 - “An examination of historical records showed that in a sample of 600 monarchs, the ones who became the most eminent were those who were highly moral or highly immoral. This suggests that there are two roads to eminence: Having great moral virtue or having Machiavellian deviousness” (Aronson et al., 1994, p. 612).
 - What are the implications of this statement for all types of leaders?
- Discussion: Quotations
 - What luck for leaders that men do not think (Adolf Hitler).
 - The first duty of a leader is to make himself be loved without courting love. To be loved without “playing up” to anyone – even himself (Andre Malraux).
 - The key to being a good manager is keeping the people who hate me away from those who are still undecided (Casey Stengel).
 - Leadership and learning are indispensable to each other (John F. Kennedy).

Making Connections

- Research Machiavellian political philosophy.
- Research the types of power.

Resources

- Novel Study: *Lord of the Flies*
- Interactions: Dear Pat, “Follower in Fox Valley”

Lesson 4.5.4: Teacher Information

How do people assume leadership roles?

- *Great Person Theory:* Leaders are extraordinary people who naturally rise to positions of power and authority because they possess certain personality traits that suit them for 'life at the top' (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 341).
- *Functional demands theory:* According to this perspective, the person most likely to emerge as the leader is the one best equipped to help the group fulfill its objectives in a particular context. Thus, the leader will be the one whose skills and competence are most useful to the group in a given situation (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 342).
- *Transactional Theory:* In recent years, transactional theory (Shaw, 1981) has been applied both to trait and situational approaches to leader emergence. According to this theory, both the characteristics of people and the demands of the situation determine who will become leader (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 518).

What are the different leadership styles?

An early study of leadership style was conducted by Lewin (1939). They wanted to investigate the effects of three different kinds of adult behaviour on a group of ten-year-old boys attending after-school clubs. The clubs were led by adults who acted in one of three ways:

- Autocratic leaders told the boys what to do and with whom they would work. They sometimes praised or blamed the boys for their work but did not explain their comments and, although friendly, were also aloof and impersonal. The boys with an autocratic leader became aggressive towards each other when things went wrong and were submissive in their approaches to the leader (and these approaches were often attention seeking). If the leader left the room, the boys stopped working and became either disruptive or apathetic. However, their products were comparable, in terms of both quantity and quality, to those produced by the boys with the democratic leader.
- Democratic leaders discussed various possible projects with the boys, and allowed them to choose whom they would work with and to make their own decisions. The leaders explained their comments and joined in with the group activities. Whilst the boys with the democratic leader

actually produced slightly less work than those with the autocratic leader, they got on much better and seemed to like each other much more than did the boys with the autocratic leader. Any approaches made to the leader tended to be task related, and when the leader left the room, the boys carried on working and showed greater independence. They also co-operated when things went wrong.

- Laissez-faire leaders left the boys very much to their own devices, and only offered help when asked for it (which was not very often) and gave neither praise nor blame. Like the boys with the autocratic leader, those with the laissez-faire leader were aggressive towards each other (although slightly less than the former). The boys also got very little work done, whether the leader was present or not, and were easily discouraged from finding solutions when things did not go exactly right for them.

The leader was changed every seven weeks and adopted one of the other leadership styles. Thus, each group of boys was exposed to the same leadership style that was enacted by three different leadership styles. This was meant to ensure that the boys' behaviour could be attributed to leadership style rather than the leader's personality traits. Interestingly, when two of the most aggressive boys from the autocratic group were switched to the democratic group, they quickly became cooperative and involved in the tasks.

Lewin findings suggest that it is leadership style (which is not necessarily a fixed characteristic) that is important, rather than the leader's personality (which is). However, people, their groups and leaders, can only really be understood in the context of the wider society of which they form a part (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 518).

How do leaders rise to positions of power and influence?

Leadership involves leaders and followers in various role relationships, and there are several paths to becoming validated as a leader. The issue of validation concerns how a leader comes to occupy the role (how he or she achieves legitimacy as a leader). In a formal group structure the leader is assigned by an external authority and is imposed on the group. Such a person is an *appointed leader*. In an informal group, however, the leader achieves authority from the group members (who may withdraw their support just as they gave it). A person who achieves authority this way is said to be an *emergent leader* (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 521).

Quips and Quotes

Even power itself hath not one-half
the might of gentleness.

Leigh Hunt

He who forgives ends the quarrel.

African Proverb

4.5.5 Conflict and conflict resolution

Closely related to anger, anger management and aggression, this lesson focuses in on conflicts ranging from interpersonal to international.

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean, to be in conflict?
- What are the different models of conflict?
- What are the different types of conflict?
- What are some personal conflict styles?
- How can partners in a relationship manage conflict?
- How does gender influence conflict styles?
- How does culture influence conflict styles?
- What are some methods of conflict resolution?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Drama/Role Play: Types of conflict
 - In a role play or mime situation, have small groups of students portray one of the six types of conflicts (refer to Teacher Information).
- Discussion: Conflict
 - What are student's personal conflict styles?
 - What are student's personal conflict resolution styles?
 - Are there gender differences in conflict and conflict resolution?
 - Relate conflict to anger management. What is the relationship between effective anger management techniques and conflict resolution?
- Media Study: It's a Jungle Out There
 - Listen to the song, It's a Jungle Out There, and discuss how the basic nature of Man is portrayed. Is Man inherently aggressive? Is conflict inevitable?
- Media Study: "War" by Edwin Starr
 - Listen to the song "War", and discuss its message, in particular the historical context of the Vietnam War that was active when this song was released.
 - Lyrics can be found at the website listed in the Resources section.
- Research: International Conflict
 - Research the history of Mankind from the perspective of wars and peace. Has there ever been an extended time in the history of Mankind where there was not war and conflict? Why? Why do nations go to war?
 - Can we ever prevent war? Is conflict inevitable?
 - Research the United Nations and the Security Council.

Making Connections

- Research: Wars of the 20th century.
 - What were the human, economic and social costs of the two great wars of the past century?
- Refer to Topic 4.5.6, Aggression and Violence for additional information.

Resources

- Media: "It's a Jungle Out There" by Buddy Guy from the album *Sweet Tea*, 2001
- Lyrics for "War"

Lesson 4.5.5: Teacher Information

What does it mean, to be in conflict?

Conflict is an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce rewards and interference from the other party in achieving their goals. Conflict is not just a matter of individual choice. Rather, it depends on how the people involved interact. Conflict is natural. One survey of couples revealed six broad areas of disagreement:

1. Power (decision making, conversational control).
2. Social issues (politics, religion).
3. Personal flaws (drinking, smoking, appearance).
4. Distrust (dishonesty, jealousy).
5. Intimacy (sex, lack of affection).
6. Personal distance (lack of time together, work or school commitments) (Adler et al., 2001, p. 415).

A conflict is a situation in which we must decide between two or more alternatives (to do one thing or another, or to do or not to do something). There are four types of conflict:

- *Approach-Approach Conflict*: The approach-approach conflict is not all that bad. We have to choose between two things we want to do (approach). You have to choose.
- *Approach-Avoidance Conflict*: this type of conflict can be distressing. One part of the situation makes it attractive, but the other part makes you want to run away.
- *Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict*: You cannot win with this type of conflict, the worst of three because it involves two unattractive alternatives.
- *Double Approach-Avoidance Conflict*: This type of conflict is the one we face most often. It is called "double" because there are both good and bad parts no matter which way you go. For example, suppose you have a vote on whether your family moves to another community. The school might be better there, but you aren't used to it. Special new friends could be there, but you have to leave behind those you already know and care about (McMahon and Romano, 2000).

The term conflict properly refers to a situation of discord between two or more parties - which can sometimes be peacefully resolved and which, in some circumstances, leads to aggression. Conflict involves a divergence of interest, or the belief that the aspirations or interests of two or more parties cannot be achieved simultaneously. Competition is

a form of conflict, since each party wants to win and only one can do so (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 264).

What are the different models on conflict?

- *Social conflict as an exchange model* is based essentially on the concept of seeking a "fair-deal" for both parties. Because social exchange involves tangible or intangible resources such as affection, money or information, it is referred to as an "economic" model.
- *The game theory model* treats all conflicts as though they involve exchanges of a variety of resources - material goods, services, affection. In such a model, each party tries to get the most for themselves. A game, in its broadest sense, is virtually any kind of situation in which two or more interdependent parties (or players) make decisions that affect each other according to rules. The outcomes of the decisions depend on the joint actions of the players. There are two major classes of games:
 - *In zero-sum games*, one party's gain is exactly matched by the opponent's loss. This situation represents pure competition. No cooperation is possible and communication would not help in any way, since if players informed each other of their choices, their opponents could take advantage of the information.
 - *In non-zero-sum games*, some of the outcomes are mutually preferable to some of the others. These type of games are also referred to as mixed-motive games because more than one motivation, pure competition, is involved (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 266-270).

What are the different types of conflict?

From the point of view of someone outside a conflict, conflicts can be organized into different types, depending on the relationship between the actual conflict of interest and the manner in which the people involved interpret the conflict:

- *Veridical conflict*: A conflict exists and is accurately perceived as such. Genuinely opposed interests.
- *Contingent conflict*: In such conflicts, there are other resources available so that both parties can be satisfied, but they do not recognize this.
- *Displaced conflict*: The dispute in this case is not about the real underlying issue.

- *Misattributed conflict*: The disputants in this kind of conflict wrongly blame each other for their difficulties.
- *Latent conflict*: In this case, there is a conflict in the sense that the two parties have incompatible goals, but they are not yet aware of this incompatibility, or one party is for the moment unwilling or unable to pursue goal satisfaction.
- *Conflict based on false premises*: This is a conflict over attributing the causes of a behaviour, in which there is no objective conflict of interest (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 265).

What are some personal conflict styles?

Since it is impossible to avoid conflicts, the challenge is to handle them well when they do arise. There are several ways in which people can act when their needs are not being met.

- *Nonassertion* is the inability or unwillingness to express thoughts or feelings in a conflict. Nonassertion can take a variety of forms. One is avoidance - either physical or conversational. Another is accommodation which deals with conflict by giving in, putting the other's needs before their own. While there are cases where avoidance or accommodation can be appropriate, in most cases, however, nonassertive people fail to assert themselves either because they don't value themselves sufficiently, or because they don't know how to ask for what they want.
- In contrast to nonassertion, *direct aggression* occurs when a person in conflict expresses a criticism or demand that threatens the person at whom it is directed. Dominic Infante identified several types of direct aggression: Character attacks, competence attacks, physical appearance attacks, maledictions (wishing the other person ill fortune), teasing, ridicule, threats, swearing and nonverbal gestures. Unlike other conflict resolution styles, direct aggression is judged incompetent by virtually everyone who encounters it.
- *Passive aggression* occurs when a person expresses hostility in an obscure way. This behaviour has been termed "crazymaking". It occurs when people have feelings of resentment, anger or rage that they are unable or unwilling to express directly.
- *Indirect communication* conveys a message in a roundabout manner in order to save face for the recipient. Although indirect communication

lacks the clarity of an aggressive or assertive message, it involves more initiative than nonassertion. The goal is to get what you want without raising the hostility of the other person. The advantages of self-protection and saving face for others help explain why indirect communication is the most common way people make requests.

- *Assertion* occurs when a message expresses the speaker's needs, thoughts and feelings directly without judging directly or dictating to others. Clarity and directedness are the basic goals (Adler et al., 2001, p. 418).

How can partners in a relationship manage conflict?

Another way to look at conflict styles is to examine the interaction between intimacy and aggression.

- In the *Nonintimate-Aggressive style* the partners fight, but are unsuccessful at satisfying important content and relational goals.
- *Nonintimate-Nonaggressive* partners avoid conflicts - and one another - instead of facing issues head-on.
- *Intimate-Aggressive* partners may argue passionately but then resolve their differences and make up just as intensely.
- *Intimate-Nonaggressive* relationships have a low amount of attacking or blaming. Partners may confront each other directly or indirectly, but one way or another they manage to prevent issues from interfering with their relationship (Adler et al., 2001, p. 438).

How does gender influence conflict styles?

Men and women often approach conflicts differently. Even in childhood, males are more likely to be aggressive, demanding and competitive, while females are more cooperative. One survey of college students revealed that men and women viewed conflicts in contrasting ways. Regardless of their cultural background, female students described men as being concerned with power and more interested in content than relational issues. By contrast, women were described as being more concerned with maintaining the relationship during a conflict. When the actual conflict behaviours of both sexes are observed, women turn out to be more assertive than men about expressing their ideas and feelings, and men are more likely to withdraw from discussing issues. A look at the entire body of research on gender and conflict suggests that the

differences in how the two sexes handle conflict are rather small, and not at all representative of the stereotypical picture of aggressive men and passive women. However, the influence of gender on these differences is quite small. Although men and women may have characteristically different conflict styles, the situation at hand has a greater influence on shaping the way a person handles conflict. Who is seeking change and how the other person responds determine the way conflict is managed much more than gender (Adler et al., 2001, p. 442).

How does culture influence conflict styles?

Perhaps the most important cultural factor in shaping attitudes toward conflict is an orientation toward individualism or collectivism. In individualistic cultures, the goals, rights and needs of each person are considered important, and most people would agree that it is an individual's right to stand up for themselves. By contrast, collectivist cultures consider the concerns of the group to be more important than those of any individual. In these cultures, the kind of assertive behaviour that might seem perfectly appropriate to a North American would seem rude and insensitive. Another factor that distinguishes the assertiveness that is so valued by North Americans and northern Europeans from the behaviour styles of other cultures is the difference between high- and low-context cultural styles. Low-context cultures like Canada and the United States place a premium on being direct and literal. By contrast, high-context cultures like Japan value self-restraint and avoid confrontation (Adler et al., 2001, p. 444).

What are some methods of conflict resolution?

No matter what the relational style, gender, or culture of the participants, every conflict is a struggle to have one's goals met. There are various approaches to resolving conflicts:

- In *Win-Lose* problem solving, one party gets what he or she wants, whereas the other comes up short. People resort to this method of resolving disputes when they perceive a situation as being an either-or one. The most clear-cut examples of win-lose situations are games in which the rules require a winner and a loser. Power, authority, implied force or intellectual power are some common methods of defeating an opponent.
- In *Lose-Lose* problem solving, neither side is satisfied with the outcome. The reality is that lose-lose is a fairly common way to handle conflicts.

- Unlike lose-lose outcomes, a *compromise* gives both parties at least some of what they wanted, though both sacrifice part of their goals.
- In *Win-Win* problem solving, the goal is to find a solution that satisfies the needs of everyone involved. Not only do the parties avoid trying to win at the other's expense, but also they believe that by working together it is possible to find a solution that goes beyond a mere compromise and allows all parties to reach their goals (Adler et al., 2001, p.446)

The process of resolving conflicts can often be a positive one that promotes a relationship's growth. The important question is not whether there is conflict, but how this conflict can best be dealt with. Bradbury and Fincham (1990) have argued that happy and unhappy couples resolve their conflicts in typically different ways, and that these can be understood as different attributional patterns. Happy couples use a relationship-enhancing attributional pattern in which a partner's negative behaviour is explained in terms of situational and other variable causes. By contrast, unhappy couples use a distress-maintaining attributional pattern in which a partner's negative behaviour is explained in terms of underlying and unchanging personality dispositions (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 494).

Quips and Quotes

We win by tenderness; we conquer by forgiveness.

Frederick Robertson

4.5.6 Aggression and Violence

Are we innately aggressive? There is ample evidence of the long history of human involvement in aggression and violence. The 5 600 years of recorded human history, for example, include 14 600 wars, a rate of more than 2.6 per year. This is the issue for this lesson.

Lesson Objectives

- How do social psychologists define aggression?
- What are the various perspectives on aggression and violent behaviour?
- What influence does gender have on aggression?
- What are the contemporary theories of aggression?
- What are the cultural influences on aggression?
- What are the characteristics of peaceful societies?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The sociocultural influences on aggression
 - Use the Ecological Model to discuss the various influences from the systems of support in terms of supporting, promoting or facilitating aggressive and violent behaviour.
- Research: Aggression and violence in society
 - What is violence? Aggression? How is aggression displayed in relationships, families, schools, sports and society in general? When, and why, is aggression accepted?
 - Research road rage, air rage.
 - Research aggression in sports (e.g., fighting in hockey).
 - Research relationship abuse (e.g., date rape).
 - Research the relationship between the amount of aggression and violence and popularity of sports (e.g., attendance, television audiences).
 - Research international terrorism.
- Research: Trends in juvenile violence
 - Use the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention website to find the latest statistics on juvenile delinquency, violence and crime.
- Jigsaw/Role Play: Theoretical perspectives on aggression and violence
 - Assign one of the six major theoretical perspectives to a small group of students.
 - Based on their theoretical perspective, have students write and perform a role play that describes and illustrates their theoretical perspective's interpretation of the development of aggression and violence.
- Research: International terrorism
 - What is terrorism?
 - Who are the most prominent international terrorist groups? What are their issues? From where do these terrorist groups operate? Why?
- From both perspectives: Nature/nurture and aggression
 - Have students list as many examples as they can to support both the nature (genetic inheritance) as well as the nurture (environmental influences) for the
- Research sexual harassment.
- Novel Study: *Lord of the Flies*.

Making Connections

- *Interactions*: Dear Pat, "Pacifist in Pilot Butte"
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan

Resources

Lesson 4.5.6: Teacher Information

How do social psychologists define aggression?

Baron et al. and Richardson (1994) define anti-social behaviours as those which show a lack of feeling and concern for the welfare of others. Aggression is one such form of anti-social behaviour. However, the term violence is used to describe an extreme form of aggression in which a deliberate attempt is made to inflict serious personal injury on another person or damage property. One long-standing issue in social psychology concerns the causes of interpersonal aggression. For many years, debate has centered around the nature versus nurture controversy, that is, whether aggression as a characteristic of human beings, is biologically determined (nature) or the product of learning and various environmental influences (nurture) (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 542).

Loeber (1997) describes two forms of aggression, different in behaviour patterns, emotions, cognitions and development: overt and covert aggression.

- Overt aggression usually involves direct confrontations. Anger is usually an important ingredient in most overt acts of aggression. Aggressive and violent persons tend to have cognitive deficiencies that make it difficult for them to come up with non-aggressive solutions to interpersonal disputes and conflicts. Overt aggression usually begins early, especially in boys, and diminishes with age.
- Covert aggression does not involve direct confrontation but relies on concealment, dishonest or sneaky behaviour. More neutral emotions are characteristic of covert actions. Most covert acts are facilitated by cognitive acts such as planfulness, deception and lying. Covert aggression increases with age (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 296).

What are the various perspectives on aggression and violent behaviour?

There is ample evidence of the long history of human involvement in aggression and violence. The 5,600 years of recorded human history, for example, include 14,600 wars, a rate of more than 2.6 per year. Perspectives on aggression and violence emerge from the basic perspectives of psychology:

- Biological: Aggressive behaviour is basically physiological and genetic in origin. Humans are pre-programmed to aggressively defend themselves, family and territory from intruders.

Lorenz (1966) believed that aggression is an inherited instinct of both humans and animals. According to Dollard (1939) people who are frustrated, thwarted, annoyed or threatened will behave aggressively, since aggression is a natural, almost automatic response to frustrating circumstances (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 544).

- Socio-developmental influences: Social learning theorists emphasize the roles that family members, members of one's sub-culture and symbolic models provided by the mass media play in producing conditions in which the child (1) has many opportunities to observe aggression, (2) is reinforced for his or her own aggression, or (3) is often the object of aggression. Children learn not only how to aggress, but also when to aggress, and against whom to aggress (Bandura, 1973). Although reinforcement is important in the development and maintenance of aggressive behaviour, children are capable of acquiring aggressive behaviour simply by watching someone else do it. Parents play at least four different roles in the raising of children:
 - They are usually the child's first partner in social interaction and teach the child how to interpret the social environment.
 - They are manager's of the child's behaviour, enforcing rules and setting standards of conduct both within and outside the home.
 - They provide models for the child to imitate.
 - They serve as teachers, directly supplying information, imparting values and encouraging particular attitudes and manners (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 302).
- Cognitive: Huesmann and Guerra (1997) suggests that social behaviour in general, and aggressive behaviour in particular, are controlled largely by cognitive scripts learned and memorized through daily experiences. A script suggests what events are to happen in the environment, how the person should behave in response to these events, and what the likely outcome of those behaviours would be. Each script is different and unique to each person, but once established through repetition they become resistant to change.
 - A revised frustration-aggression hypothesis suggests the following steps: (1) The person is blocked from obtaining an expected goal; (2) frustration results generating anger; and (3) anger predisposes

- or readies the person to behave aggressively. Whether the person actually engages in aggressive actions will depend in part on his or her learning history, interpretation of the event and individual way of responding to frustration.
- Aggression as a personality trait: Our personalities are influenced both by learning and by genetic factors (for example, newborns differ in the degree to which they emotionally react to loud noises). The problem is that there is no single cluster of traits that describe the aggressive person. However, there are a number of individual characteristics that have a bearing on aggressiveness:
 - The lower the person's IQ the harder it may be to learn coping and conflict resolution skills. In fact, success at any endeavour may be more difficult for children of lower intelligence, leading to more frustration and more aggression.
 - Aggressive individuals often possess inflated self-esteem, and in consequence, are more likely to view the feedback they receive from the world around them as very inadequate, given their perceived self-importance, and then react with aggression.
 - In most parts of the world, most males are concerned with being properly "masculine". Being masculine or "macho" is often associated with being a "jock". And indeed, organized sports may implicitly teach boys that masculinity and aggressiveness go hand in hand.
 - Authoritarianism is a personality type characterized by cognitive rigidity, prejudice, and an excessive concern for power.
 - Self-control: Having weak self-control leads to obvious problems of aggressiveness.
 - Environmental: Aggression is a result of population density or overcrowding. Males in same-gender, over-crowded groups were more aggressive and hostile than males in same-gender, uncrowded groups. The reverse was true for females. There is also some tentative evidence that population density within the home may play a role in aggressive behaviour and crime (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 298-320).
 - Mass media: There are four scenes of violence portrayed on network television to every one scene expressing affection. On average, American children see more than 100 000

violent episodes and some 20 000 murders on television before reaching adolescence (Meyers, 1996). Other surveys indicate that news coverage of violence against women and children was not used to educate the public but rather to fascinate and entertain. Television violence, in particular, has a significant effect on the frequency and type of aggressive behaviour expressed by adults and children. Aggressive children watch more media violence, identify more with violent characters, and believe more that the violence they observe reflects real life than non-aggressive children (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 480)

What influence does gender have on aggression?

Are males more aggressive than females? The answer depends on what kind of aggression and how much. Statistics Canada confirms that, in this country, males are much more likely than females to be arrested and convicted for violent acts. Does this mean that large differences actually exist between males and females with respect to overt aggression? One the one hand, males do seem to be more likely both to instigate aggression and to be its target. On the other hand, research reveals that the size of the difference is relatively small – compared to what is shown in crime statistics. The tendency for males to engage in aggressive actions is greater for physical forms of aggression (hitting, kicking, use of weapons) than for other forms of aggression (yelling at people, treating them in a condescending manner). In fact, recent findings indicate that females are more likely to engage in various indirect forms of aggression, such as spreading rumours about another person, rejecting someone as a friend, or ignoring or avoiding a target person (Baron et al., 1998, p. 418).

What are the contemporary theories of aggression?

- Instinct theories: According to Hobbes (1651) people are naturally competitive and hostile, interested only in their own power and gaining advantage over others. Two theories which share Hobbe's pessimistic views about people's nature are those proposed by Freud and Lorenz.
- Psychoanalytic approach: According to Freud, the purpose of all instincts is to reduce tension or excitation to a minimum and, ultimately, to totally eliminate them. For Freud, just as we need to eat, drink and express our sexual needs periodically, so we need to express our hostile and destructive impulses periodically.

- Ethological approach: Lorenz saw aggression as being instinctive, with aggressive energy needing to be released periodically if it is not to build up to dangerously high levels. Lorenz (1966) argued that aggression is instinctive in all species because it is adaptive, that is, it allows animals to adapt to their environment, survive in it, and successfully reproduce.
- Behavioural Approach: Dollard (1939) argued that aggression would only be elicited in specific situations, in other words, aggression is always a consequence of frustration and conversely, the existence of frustration acts as a stimulus to aggressive behaviour. Berkowitz, however, pointed out that aggression, like any other behaviour, can be reinforced. Berkowitz proposed that frustration produces anger rather than aggression. For Berkowitz, then, whilst we might become angry as a response to frustration, aggressive behaviour will only be elicited when certain environmental stimuli are present.
- Social Learning Theory: According to social learning theory, aggressive behaviours are learned through the reinforcement and imitation of aggressive models. Imitation is the reproduction of learning through observation and aggressive tendencies can be strengthened through vicarious reinforcement (seeing others being rewarded for behaving aggressively).
- Cognitive Theory: According to Zillman (1982) arousal from one source can be transferred to, and energise, some other response. This is because arousal takes time to be processed and dissipate. When we are aroused, aggression may be heightened provided that that aroused person has some disposition to act aggressively and according to the attributions the aroused person makes.
- Social constructivist approach: Mummendey (1996) has proposed that whether or not a behaviour is aggressive or non-aggressive depends on whether the behaviour is judged to be aggressive either by an observer or by the performer. Mummendey's research suggests that the intention to harm, actual harm and social or cultural norm violation are the main criteria people use to label behaviour as aggressive (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 542-548).

What are the characteristics of peaceful societies?

Peaceful Aboriginal societies share several characteristics:

- they are generally small
- technologically backward
- live in remote or inaccessible areas
- they do not idealize bravery or aggression as masculine traits
- they make little distinction between masculine and feminine traits
- they lack aggressive deities
- they enjoy eating, drinking and sex without guilt (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 306).

Quips and Quotes

Apathy? Who cares?

Anonymous

4.5.7 Social Inaction

After having examined the prosocial aspects of human behaviour, this lesson focuses on those instances where we fail to help.

Lesson Objectives

- To help or not to help, is that the question?
- What is the “Bystander Phenomenon”?
- What are some situational and individual differences in bystander behaviour?
- Does the bystander phenomenon mean that we are essentially selfish?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: To help or not to help, is that the question?
 - Discuss the cost-reward model of helping behaviours as proposed by Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner and Clark (1981).
 - Refer to the Teacher Information section, for a detailed description of the various aspects and options for each of the elements in the model.
 - Discuss the influences that groups and other people have on the willingness to get involved.
- Discussion: In what ways, and in what situations, have you failed to help?
 - Discuss with the class instances where people have been socially inactive and where they have not helped or become involved.
 - Why was that the case?
- Dialectic Reasoning: Humans are essentially selfish by nature
 - Thesis: If human beings were not selfish, there would not be poor people, homeless people or street kids. The poor, homeless and displaced prove that humans care more for themselves than others.
 - Antithesis: One of the strongest human qualities is altruism. Heroes prove that human beings are not selfish by nature.
- Media Study: “That’s Just The Way It Is”
 - Listen to the song written by Bruce Hornsby titled, “That’s Just The Way It Is.”
 - What examples of bias, stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination are contained in the song?
 - Do you agree with the title of the song? What can individuals do to change the way things are?
 - What situations exist in the student’s community that parallel those described in the song?

Making Connections

- Research prosocial behaviours.
- What is learned helplessness? How does it develop? How can it be treated?
- Research social justice.

Resources

- Media: “That’s Just The Way It Is,” by Bruce Hornsby and The Range, from the album *That’s Just The Way It Is*.
- Lyrics for “That’s Just The Way It Is”

Lesson 4.5.7: Teacher Information

To help or not to help, is that the question?

Piliavin, Dovidio, Gaertner and Clark (1981) propose a cost-reward model that explains both emergency and non-emergency helping behaviours. The model emphasizes the interaction between two sets of factors. The first are situational, bystander and victim characteristics, along with what they termed “we-ness”. The second are cognitive and affective reactions.

- Situational characteristics include things like a victim asking for help rather than not asking for help.
- Bystander characteristics include both trait factors (such as the potential helper being an empathetic person) and state factors (such as the helper being in a good or bad mood).
- Victim characteristics include things like the victim's appearance and other factors such as gender, race and culture.
- “We-ness” refers to a sense of connectedness or the categorization of the victim as a member of one's own group.
- The various characteristics produce certain levels of arousal.
- The exact way arousal is reduced depends upon the costs and rewards involved in helping or not helping.
 - In the case of helping, rewards include enhanced self-esteem, praise from others, and even financial reward. In the case of not helping, rewards include time and the freedom to go about our normal business.
 - Costs of helping include personal costs (such as guilt, self-blame and public disapproval), empathy costs (such as knowing that the victim is suffering), lost time, effort, physical danger, embarrassment, the disruption of on-going activities and psychological aversion (such as the victim being drunk or bleeding), others' disapproval, and the cognitive and/or emotional discomfort associated with knowing that a person is suffering. The most common way for people to refuse to get involved is cognitive reinterpretation. This can take one of three forms, namely,

- redefining the situation as one not requiring help
- diffusing responsibility
- blaming the victim (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 537).

What is the “Bystander Phenomenon”?

As a result of their research, Latane and Darley (1968) proposed a five step decision model of bystander intervention. First, a situation requiring help must be noticed. If a situation has not been noticed, then intervention cannot occur. Second, the event that has been noticed must be defined as a situation in which help is needed. If the decision that help is needed is made, then, in the third step, the potential helper must assume personal responsibility for helping. If this is assumed, the potential helper must then select a way to help. If this decision is successfully made, the potential helper must decide whether to implement the selected way. Latane and Darley have shown that we are less likely to define a situation as being dangerous if other people are present, a phenomenon they called pluralistic ignorance (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 537).

What are some situational and individual differences in bystander behaviour?

- According to Amato (1983), help is less likely to be given in urban than rural environments. This is because the conditions that discourage bystander intervention are more likely to be met in cities than in rural areas.
- People are more likely to help when put in a good mood than when mood is neutral or negative.
- Culturally, North American and Western societies consider husband and wife disputes to be private affairs and so will not intervene as often as in Mediterranean and Latin cultures where anyone can intervene in a dispute between any two people.
- Related to diffusion of responsibility, and something that may interact with it, is a bystander's competence to intervene and offer help. When bystander's have the necessary skills, helping is more likely. However, in the presence of others, one or more of whom we think is better equipped to help, diffusion of responsibility increased.
- People who feel a moral obligation to a victim, have deeply held moral values or personal feelings for the victim, and/or empathy for the victim, are more likely to go act as helpers.

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- People with a high need for approval from others are more likely to help than people low on this need.
 - People who score high on measures of fear of being embarrassed in social situations are less likely to offer help.
 - Women are more likely than men to receive help.
 - Victims who are similar in appearance to the potential helper are more likely to receive help than victims dissimilar in appearance (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 536).

Does the bystander phenomenon mean that we are essentially selfish?

One conclusion that might be drawn from studies on bystander behaviour is that we are an essentially selfish species, motivated to minimize costs and behave in ways that cause us least displeasure.

- Universal egoism is the view that people are fundamentally selfish, a dominant view in the social sciences that sees altruism as an impossibility.
- The empathy-altruism hypothesis accepts that much of what we do is egoistic, including much that we do for others. However, this hypothesis argues that in some circumstances we feel empathic concern when people are in difficulty, and we help to relieve the stress of others rather than our own emotional distress (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 539).

Quips and Quotes

It is only in this whole process of meeting and solving problems that life has its meaning.

M. Scott Peck

4.5.8 Problem Solving/Decision Making

"Two roads diverged in a wood, and I – I took the one less traveled by, And that has made all the difference." (Robert Frost 1874-1963). This lesson addresses the issues of solving problems and making decisions.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the steps involved in problem solving?
- What are some methods for problem solving?
- What are the problem-solving approaches to resolving conflicts?
- How do groups make decisions?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Construction: Design a flowchart
 - Using the sample provided in the *Interactions* journal, Unit 3 (How to get out of bed in the morning!), direct the students to construct flowcharts on a topic of their own choosing.
- Activity: Individual/group decision making
 - Create an activity where students are set the following problem: The world is being forced to evacuate, but the lone spaceship can only take 20 people. That will be the only surviving aspect of the human race. Who do you take?
 - After working on the problem individually, form the students into pairs and have the pairs agree on a list of 20 people.
 - Repeat the process with groups of four, then eight.
 - Discuss how the different group sizes affect the decision-making process.
- Jigsaw: Problem solving
 - Assign one of the five methods of problem solving for a variety of problem-solving activities.
 - Discuss how restricting problem solving to one method hinders/helps the process.
- Activity: Decision making models
 - Review decision-making models already discussed in the course, including the "From both perspectives," talking circles, consensus decision making and dialectical reasoning.
- Discussion: Life and living
 - Discipline is the basic set of tools we require to solve life's problems. Without discipline we can solve nothing. There are four tools that together form a disciplined life: delay of gratification, acceptance of responsibility, dedication to truth, and balancing (M. Scott Peck, 1978, p. 15).

Making Connections

- Moral dilemmas, see Topic 2.5.3, Moral and Ethical behaviour for additional information.

Resources

- Poetry: "The Road Less Traveled," by Robert Frost
- *Interactions*: Unit 3, How to get out of bed in the morning!

Lesson 4.5.8: Teacher Information

What are the steps involved in problem solving?

Many psychologists believe that four aspects are central to problem solving:

- Stage 1: Problem identified and understood
- Stage 2: Potential solutions generated
- Stage 3: Solutions examined and identified
- Stage 4: Solutions tried and evaluated (Baron et al., 1998, p. 286).

What are some methods for solving problems?

Selecting an appropriate strategy is critical to effective problem solving. There are several methods for solving problems:

- *Trial and error* involves trying different responses until one works.
- *Algorithms* are rules for a particular kind of problem that will, if followed, yield a solution.
- *Heuristics* are rules of thumb we often use to guide our cognition. In terms of problem solving, heuristics involve strategies suggested by prior experience – ones we have found useful in the past.
- *Analogy*, or the application of techniques that have worked in the past.
- *Metacognitive processing*, in particular talking through the problem solving process, allow us to observe the particular steps taken to solve a problem (Baron et al., 1998, p. 287).

What are the problem solving approaches to resolving conflicts?

There are various approaches to resolving conflicts:

- In *Win-Lose* problem solving, one party gets what he or she wants, whereas the other comes up short. People resort to this method of resolving disputes when they perceive a situation as being an either-or one. The most clear-cut examples of win-lose situations are games in which the rules require a winner and a loser. Power, authority, implied force or intellectual power are some common methods of defeating an opponent.

- In *Lose-Lose* problem solving, neither side is satisfied with the outcome. The reality is that lose-lose is a fairly common way to handle conflicts.
- Unlike lose-lose outcomes, a *compromise* gives both parties at least some of what they wanted, though both sacrifice part of their goals.
- In *Win-Win* problem solving, the goal is to find a solution that satisfies the needs of everyone involved. Not only do the parties avoid trying to win at the other's expense, but also they believe that by working together it is possible to find a solution that goes beyond a mere compromise and allows all parties to reach their goals (Adler et al., 2001, p. 446).

How do groups make decisions?

The process by which members of a group reach a decision is different from the process involved in individual decision making if only because decisions in groups are usually preceded by discussion. Two examples of problems associated with group decision making are group polarization and groupthink.

- The group polarization effect is evident in such situations as group aggression (in which individual tendencies towards aggressiveness are magnified by the group), and bystander intervention, when helping is inhibited in group situations because individuals want to avoid looking foolish. There are three possible explanations for group polarization:
 - Social comparison assumes that individuals try to see themselves and present themselves to others in as favourable a light as possible.
 - Persuasive argumentation suggests that the preponderance of persuasive and novel argumentation in group discussion is responsible for the polarization effect.
 - Social identification is a process whereby individuals define themselves with respect to other people, and conform to the norms and stereotypes associated with the group (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 337).

Janis (1982) has coined the term groupthink for the tendency for group members, especially elite groups, to assume that the group invariably has the right answer. It occurs when a group seeks a solution to a problem without fully considering all the possible alternatives (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 164).

4.5.9 Power

Quips and Quotes

Power tends to corrupt. Absolute power tends to corrupt absolutely.

Lord Acton

Closely related to leadership and implicit in many forms of relationships, the concept of power is in many respects the engine of social action and interaction.

Lesson Objectives

- What is power?
- What are the three conditions of power?
- What are the various sources, or types of power?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Jigsaw: Types of power
 - Identify people and positions that exemplify the eight different kinds of power (refer to Teacher Information).
 - Rank the eight different kinds of power from most influential to least.
 - What kinds of power do the following have: adolescents, teachers, business people, politicians, lawyers, police officers, parents, sports personalities, newspaper and television reporters, editors, wealthy people, poor people, doctors and nurses?
 - To what does the term "The Power of the Media" refer?
- Reflection: Power and the Ecological Model
 - What level is the most influential? Why?
 - What is the relationship between power and aggression?
- Discussion: "Power is always measured in units of comparison. In fact, it is a term of competition." (Carse, 1989, p. 35).
 - Can we ever compete without getting into a power struggle?
 - How can we minimize power struggles in relationships?
 - What are the gender differences in how males and females define, use and respond to power?
- Discussion: "Power tends to corrupt. Absolute power tends to corrupt absolutely." (Lord Acton)
 - Discuss, using examples from history, the accuracy of Lord Acton's comments regarding power and leadership.
- Research: Power in society
 - Design and conduct an investigation into power in society. Who has the most power? What kind of power is it? How did these people come to attain such power? How do they maintain their positions of power?
- Research: Powerful historical figures
 - Conduct a case study research investigation into a powerful historical figure. Some examples may be: Adolf Hitler, Franklin Roosevelt, Napoleon Bonaparte, Josef Stalin, Mao Ze Dung, Julius Caesar, Catherine the Great and Elizabeth I of England.
 - Discuss their personal qualities and skills, the situational aspects of their leadership, their rise to, maintenance and eventual loss of power.

Making Connections

- Research Machiavellian political philosophy.
- Research conflict, aggression and violence.
- Novel Study: *Lord of the Flies*.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- Website for biographical research

Lesson 4.5.9: Teacher Information

What is power?

Power refers to a person's or group's capacity to influence another person or group in a direction desired by the first. In its most primitive form, power derives from physical might (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 338).

What are the three conditions of power?

Absolute power, in which one of the players has complete control over goal attainment; Illusory power, when someone thinks he or she has more power than is actually the case; Equal power, when neither side has any advantage (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 284).

What are the various sources, or types of power?

One classification of the different types of power was proposed by French and Raven (1959):

- *Legitimate power* is the formal power invested in a particular role regardless of the role occupant's personality. Examples of people holding legitimate power include the Premier, Prime Minister and a school principal.
- *Reward power* refers to control over valued resources (or rewards) such as money, food, love, respect and cooperation. Holders of this sort of power include employers, store owners, parents, friends and work colleagues.
- *Coercive power* is the control over feared consequences (punishment). Such consequences include the withdrawal of rewards, demotion, loss of love and so on. In both coercive and reward power, power is largely inherent in the role itself, although personality can play some part.
- *Expert power* is the possession of special knowledge, skills and expertise. Holders of this kind of power include doctors, teachers and car mechanics. This is related to informational power, which is to do with access to important sources of information such as the Internet.
- *Referent power* consists of personal qualities such as charm and the ability to persuade and 'win' people over. The charismatic leader often has great referent power which often exceeds his or her legitimate power. However, parents, teachers and so on may often have referent

power in addition to their other forms of power (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 522).

- *Informational power*, through which "people in the know" (newspaper editors, government press secretaries, university professors) provide or withhold information (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 339).
- *Reciprocal power*, or the influence one person has over another as a result of helping someone in the past (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 339).
- *Institutional power*, or the authority and influence from belonging to an institution such as a company or the government (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 339).

Quips and Quotes

There are at least two kinds of games. One could be called finite, the other, infinite. A finite game is played for the purpose of winning, an infinite game for the purpose of continuing the play.

James Carse

4.5.10 Games

Is this “game of life” really all about winners and losers? Is she or he that dies with the most toys, as a bumper sticker proclaims, really the winner? Is life a finite or infinite game?

Lesson Objectives

- What is a game?
- What are the different types of games?
- Can human action and interaction be described in terms of a game?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Competition, culture, values and games
 - Using the Ecological Model as a conceptual organizer, discuss how the various levels influence the promotion of competitiveness and games.
 - What are the different types of “games” that are being played in the classroom, school, community, society, business world, sports world, artistic world and social groups?
- Discussion: Finite and infinite games
 - On the basis of the *Interactions* article, discuss Carse’s concept of finite and infinite games.
 - Brainstorm a list of finite games, and examine them as to whether the concept of finite games applies to them all.
 - What are some examples of infinite games? Can we modify or turn finite games into infinite games?
 - What are the implications for considering relationships, love, power and prosocial behaviours as infinite games? How would our behaviours be different? How would people notice that we consider such aspects of our lives to be infinite games?
 - Can infinite games have leaders?
 - What is the ultimate infinite game?
- Discussion/Research: The Olympic Games
 - Design and conduct an investigation into people’s attitudes towards the Olympic Games. What value are they? Are the Olympic games worth the money invested in the training of the athletes? Should all athletes be tested for drug use on a regular basis?
 - Conduct a case study of an Olympic athlete. What is his/her life like? What benefits does he/she receive from being an Olympic athlete? What are the issues for training, development and support in his/her sport?
- Activity/Construction: Games
 - Create a board game or activity and teach it to a small group of students. Students can use any example of board games (e.g., Jeopardy, Trivial Pursuit, Life) or other activities such as sports games or drama activities.

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 4.5.1, Cooperation and Competition for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 4.5.6, Aggression and Violence for additional information.

Resources

- *Interactions: Finite and Infinite Games*
- *Interactions: Dear Pat, “Playing in Preeceville”*
- Curriculum Support Materials: Psychology Squares!

Lesson 4.5.10: Teacher Information

What is a game?

A game, in its broadest sense, is virtually any kind of situation in which two or more interdependent parties (or players) make decisions that affect each other according to rules. The outcomes of the decisions depend on the joint actions of the players (Alcock et al., 1998, p.268).

What are the different types of games?

There are two major classes of games:

- In zero-sum games, one party's gain is exactly matched by the opponent's loss. This situation represents pure competition. No cooperation is possible and communication would not help in any way, since if players informed each other of their choices, their opponents could take advantage of the information.
- In non-zero-sum games, some of the outcomes are mutually preferable to some of the others. These type of games are also referred to as mixed-motive games because more than one motivation, pure competition, is involved (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 268).

There are at least two kinds of games. One could be called finite, the other, infinite. A finite game is played for the purpose of winning, an infinite game for the purpose of continuing the play (Carse, 1989, p. 1).

Quips and Quotes

How will you find good? It is not a thing of choices; it is a river that flows from the foot of the invisible throne, and flows by the path of obedience.

George Eliot

4.5.11 Compliance, Conformity and Obedience

Compliance, conformity and obedience all represent the abdication of individual judgement in the face of external pressure. This lesson addresses the nature of those external influences.

Lesson Objectives

- What is the difference between compliance, conformity and obedience?
- Why do people comply with the wishes of others?
- How do we gain compliance from others?
- Why do people conform?
- Why do people obey?
- Why do people obey when it is not in their interests, or when obedience requires them to ignore their own values or even commit a crime?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Motivations to obey
 - Why do people obey? Is it primarily fear, rewards, morality or some other primary reason?
 - Is obedience situation-dependent? In other words, do people obey for different reasons in different situations?
- Activity: Compliance, conformity and obedience
 - Identify examples of compliance and techniques used (e.g., to buy a product, to vote for someone, to donate to a cause).
 - Role play a situation where these techniques are used.
- Research: Responsibility and obedience
 - Should people hold others legally responsible and accountable for their actions, even though they were “just following orders”?
 - Does the law have the right to pursue political, military and terrorist leaders for their actions regardless of the country of their location?
 - Does society have the right to pursue military and political leaders for their actions during the course of war?
- Discussion/Reflection: What do you do to influence others to comply, conform and obey?
 - Direct students to reflect on what situations they have been involved in, and techniques they or other people used to change people’s attitudes, beliefs, minds or opinions.
- Discussion: Obedience
 - Refer to the quotation in the Quips and Quotes box. Is it possible to reconcile this with obedience as being a negative behaviour?
 - Are there occasions when obedience is a positive behaviour?

Making Connections

- Research: War Criminals, the Nuremberg Trials.
- Research: The International Court of Justice at the Hague.
- Refer to Topic 2.3.3, Attitudes, for information on dealing with peer pressure
- Research persuasion and attitude change.

Resources

- Media Study: *Nuremberg*

Lesson 4.5.11: Teacher Information

What is the difference between compliance, conformity and obedience?

According to Milgram (1992), conformity and obedience are similar in that both involve the abdication of individual judgement in the face of some external pressure. However, there are at least three important differences between them. First, in conformity there is no explicit requirement to act in a certain way, whereas in obedience we are ordered or instructed to do something. Second, those who influence us when we conform are our peers (or equals) and people's behaviour becomes more alike because they are affected by example. In obedience, there is a difference in status from the outset and, rather than mutual influence, obedience is affected by direction, with somebody in higher authority influencing behaviour. Third, conformity has to do with the psychological need for acceptance by others and involves going along with one's peers in a group situation. Obedience, by contrast, has to do with the social power and status of an authority figure in a hierarchical situation (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 508).

Why do people comply with the wishes of others?

- *Friendship/Liking:* In general we are more willing to comply with requests from friends or from people we like than with requests from strangers or people we do not like.
- *Commitment/Consistency:* Once we have committed ourselves to a position or action, we are more willing to comply with requests for behaviours that are consistent with that position.
- *Reciprocity:* We are generally more willing to comply with a request from someone who has previously provided a favour or concession to us than one from someone who has not.
- *Scarcity:* We value (and try to secure) opportunities, people or objects that are scarce or decreasing. As a result, we are more likely to comply with requests that focus on the scarcity of such items than ones that do not.
- *Authority:* We value authority, so we are usually more willing to comply with requests from someone who is (or seems to be) a legitimate authority than someone who is not (Baron et al., 1998, p. 683).

- *Groups:* people in a group adopt the values and standards set by the group.
 - One compliance variable is the amount of information provided when a decision is to be made. When people are uncertain of how to behave in ambiguous situations, they seek the opinions of others.
 - Another important variable that affects the degree of compliance is the relative competence of the group. People are more likely to conform to the decision of a group if they perceive its members as being more competent than they themselves are.
 - Position within a group also affects individual behaviour. A person who confidently believes that a group holds them in high esteem will respond independently.
 - The public nature of behaviour also determines people's responses. Individuals are more willing to make decisions that are inconsistent with those of their group when the behaviour is private (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 469).

How do we gain compliance from others?

Frequently we stand alone, and when we are alone, attempts will be made to gain our compliance, or influence our behaviour. There are several common techniques:

- *The foot-in-the-door technique:* An individual who agrees to carry out a small request is subsequently more likely to agree to carry out a larger request. This means that you should first make a request you are reasonably certain will be honoured.
- *The door-in-the-face technique:* This is a variation of the foot-in-the-door technique. In this case, the first request made is so extreme that the target is almost certain to refuse. Then the second request is considerably smaller and more reasonable.
- *The low-ball technique:* Low-balling is based on the proposition that once an individual has agreed to carry out an act, he or she will still comply even though the act is made more costly.
- *Improving the deal:* This procedure consists of offering a product to a person at a high price, preventing the person from responding for a few seconds, and then enhancing the deal either by adding another product or decreasing the price.

- *Guilt*: Feelings of guilt have been shown to have powerful and pervasive influences on behaviour (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 155-159).
- *That's not all Approach*: A small extra is added (Baron et al., 1998, p. 683).
- *Playing hard to get*: We become motivated to comply if the chance or degree of difficulty of attaining something increases (Baron et al., 1998, p. 683).
- *Fast approaching deadline* (Baron et al., 1998, p. 683).

Why do people conform?

People conform for all sorts of reasons. Some do so because they identify with group members and want to be like them in dress, attitudes or behaviour. Some want to be liked and know that by disagreeing with a group can make them unpopular. Some believe the group has knowledge that is superior to their own. And some conform out of pure self-interest, to keep their jobs, win promotions or win votes (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 280).

When people who come together for some purpose do not have a great deal in common, the pressures to conform will be more evident. A number of reasons why people conform have been documented by researchers, however, more than one may operate simultaneously:

- *Social approval and disapproval*: Groups in general are intolerant of heresy in their midst and any individual who contradicts or ignores important social norms may experience unpleasantness. These pressures, by themselves, may move a person to conform. Anticipation of the consequences of deviation owing to similar experiences may serve the same purpose. In addition, the group rewards the conformer with liking and social approval.
- *The need for information*: Being wrong can be uncomfortable, and being different is often perceived as being wrong. When there is no demonstrably right answer, we often use what Festinger (1952) has termed informational social influence, in other words, we frequently turn to the judgement of the majority.
- *Social validation*: Dissenters also face the difficulty of questioning their own competence. According to Festinger (1952) we have a basic drive to evaluate our abilities and opinions. The

obvious way to do this is to make comparisons with other people.

- *Rewriting history*: One possibility in conforming is to decide that conformity was forced by the facts. Most conformers rewrite history to justify their acquiescence (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 148).

Why do people obey?

Most people follow orders because of the obvious consequences of disobedience: They can be suspended, fired or arrested. They may also obey because of what they hope to gain: being liked, getting certain advantages or promotions from the authority, learning from the authority's greater knowledge or experience. Primarily, though, people obey because they are deeply convinced of the authority's legitimacy - that is, they obey not in hopes of gaining some tangible benefit, but because they like and respect the authority and value the relationship (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 270).

Factors affecting obedience:

- Prestige
- Presence of others who disobey
- Personality characteristics: People high in authoritarianism are more likely to obey. The same tends to be true for people with an external locus of control, for such people believe that what happens to them is controlled by factors outside themselves (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 520).

Why do people obey when it is not in their interests, or when obedience requires them to ignore their own values or even commit a crime?

Why do people obey when it is not in their interests, or when obedience requires them to ignore their own values or even commit a crime? There are several factors:

- Investing the authority, rather than oneself, with responsibility allows people to absolve themselves of accountability for their own actions.
- Routinization is the process of defining the activity in terms of routine duties and roles so that the behaviour becomes normalized, a job to be done, with little opportunity to raise doubts or ethical questions.

-
- The rules of good manners protect people's feelings and make relationships and civilization possible. But once people are caught in what they perceive to be legitimate roles and are obeying a legitimate authority, good manners ensnare them into further obedience.
 - Entrapment is a process in which individuals escalate their commitment to a course of action in order to justify their investment in it. The first steps of entrapment pose no difficult choices, but one step leads to another, and before you realize it, you have become committed to a course of action that poses problems (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 270).

4.5.12 Stress, Coping Skills and Resiliency

Quips and Quotes

I don't know the key to success, but the key to failure is trying o please everybody.

Bill Cosby

As the pace of society quickens, recognizing and dealing with stress becomes an increasingly important aspect that impacts on all aspects of our lives.

Lesson Objectives

- What is stress?
- How does stress develop?
- What can we do to minimize the effects of stress?
- What are some successful ways of dealing with stress?
- What are the factors that increase the risk of illness from stress?
- What is resiliency?
- How do you promote resiliency?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research: Stressors
 - Generate a list of stressors and do an in-class survey, out-of class survey or interview of parents to compare stressors.
 - What are the most common stressors in adolescent's and adult's lives? How do they compare?
- Discussion: What are the stressors in student's lives?
 - Refer to the information found in the Teacher Information section for examples of the source of stressors in people's lives. Brainstorm sources of stressors in the student's lives.
 - What sources of stressors are age and/or situation specific to adolescents?
 - Use the Ecological Model to discuss how the various systems promote or mediate stress.
- Discussion/Reflection: Stress mediators
 - Refer to the information found in the Teacher Information section for examples of the type of stress mediators in people's lives.
 - Are there any that students use in times of stress?
- Discussion: Quotations
 - It's incredibly easy to get caught up in the activity trap, in the busyness of life, to work harder and harder at climbing the ladder of success only to discover it's leaning against the wrong wall (Steven R. Covey).
 - There is more to life than increasing its speed (Ghandi).
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives and stress
 - Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to a small group of students. Have each group explain and describe stress from its perspective. What would each group recommend for stress relief?

Making Connections

- Self-identity and groups:
 - What is the nature of the relationship between self-identity and groups to which people belong?
 - How does an individual find and maintain a sense of self in group situations?
 - What are the dangers of losing self-identity in favour of a group identity?

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Behaviour
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 4.5.12: Teacher Information

What is stress?

Canadian physician Hans Selye (1956) concluded that stress consists of a series of physiological reactions that occur in three phases:

- The *alarm phase*, in which your body mobilizes to meet the immediate threat or other stressor. Physiological responses include a boost in energy, tense muscles, reduced sensitivity to pain, the shutting down of digestion, a rise in blood pressure, and increased output of the adrenal hormones adrenaline, norepinephrine and cortisol.

- The *resistance phase*, in which your body attempts to resist or cope with a stressor that cannot be avoided, but which persists over time. During this phase, the physiological responses of the alarm phase continue, but these responses make the body more vulnerable to other stressors.
- The *exhaustion phase*, in which persistent stress depletes the body of energy and therefore increases vulnerability to physical problems and eventually illness. The same reactions that allow the body to respond effectively in the alarm and resistance phases are unhealthy as long-range responses (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 546).

How does stress develop?

Stressors	Stress mediators	Stress reactions
Life changes and strains	Cognitive appraisal	Physical
Catastrophic events	Predictability	Emotional
Daily hassles	Sense of control	Cognitive
Chronic stressors	Coping resources and methods Social support Personality	Behavioural

Source: (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 380)

What can we do to minimize the effects of stress?

Stress mediators include:

- Predictability and control: Uncertainty about when and if a certain stressor might occur tends to increase the stressor's impact. Predictable stressors tend to have less impact than those that are unpredictable. Stressors over which people believe they exert some control usually have less impact.

The greatest threat to health and well-being occurs when people feel unable to control their circumstances - when they feel caught in a situation they cannot escape. Feelings of control can reduce or even eliminate the relationship between stressors and health.

- Coping resources and methods: People usually suffer less from a stressor if they have adequate

coping resources (money, time) and effective coping methods (problem-focused techniques involve methods to alter or eliminate stress, or emotion-focused techniques that attempt to regulate the negative emotional effects).

- Social support consists of resources provided by other people, the friends and social contacts on whom you can depend for support. Social support refers not only to your relationship with others but also to the recognition that others care and will help.
- Personality: One element of the stress-resistant personality seems to be dispositional optimism, the belief or expectation that things will work out positively. People who tend to think of stressors as temporary and who do not blame themselves for bringing about the stressors appear to be less harmed by them (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 380).

What are some successful ways of dealing with stress?

Category	Examples
Physical strategies	Relaxation Meditation Massage Exercise
Problem-oriented strategies	Reduce negative emotions Problem-focused coping
Cognitive strategies	Reappraising the problem Learning from the problem Making social comparisons Cultivating a sense of humour
Social strategies	Relying on friends and family Helping others (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 567)

What are the factors that increase the risk of illness from stress?

Factors that increase the risk of illness from stress include:

- Environmental: Uncontrollable noise, poverty, lack of access to health care, persistent discrimination
- Experiential: Bereavement or divorce, traumatic events, chronic and severe job stress, unemployment
- Biological: Viral or bacterial infections, disease, genetic vulnerability
- Psychological: Toxic hostility, possibly chronic depression, emotional inhibition, pessimism, external locus of control, fatalism, feeling powerless
- Behavioural: Smoking, high-fat diet, lack of exercise, abuse of alcohol and other drugs, lack of sleep
- Social: Lack of supportive friends and relatives, low involvement in groups (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 569).

What is resiliency?

- Resiliency is unusually good adaptation to severe and/or chronic stress, or the ability to rebound to or above pre-stress levels of adaptation (Saskatchewan Health, 1998, p. C1).

How do you promote resiliency?

- To promote resiliency in people, you must decrease the risk factors and increase the protective factors.

- The major risk factors include an uptight temperament, poor parenting (especially during the first three years), family conflict/violence/mental illness, poverty and being powerless/marginalized/stigmatized.
- There are three aspects that serve to protect people:
 - Individual protectors, or protective personal characteristics such as low anxiety, good coping skills, autonomy, secure attachments, sense of control over their lives, having a mentor outside of the family, a good support network, and a positive outlook.
 - Protective family factors include parental involvement/caring/support, high but achievable expectations, participation by children welcomed, and the family endures/copes in the face of stressful events.
 - Protective communities demonstrate a cohesive and civil society, safety is not a concern, high equity and low marginalization, adequate recreation for all, resources are available, and the community is genuine and concerned, "accept you as a person, not as a stereotype".

To promote resiliency in high school youth, interventions include peer mentoring/conflict resolution, programs to prevent dropping out, preparation for being good partners/parents, preparation for transition to work; and provisions for teens with babies (Saskatchewan Health, 1998, p. C2-C6).

Quips and Quotes

When an attitude of respect is expressed in actions, justice occurs.

Anonymous

4.5.13 Social Justice

Social justice refers to a concern with the “human condition,” situations involving poverty, human rights, gender equity and equality, indigenous peoples and the like. It is a wide-ranging, all-encompassing concern for the safety, health and well-being of the less fortunate members of all of society.

Lesson Objectives

- What does the term social justice mean?
- What social issues and concerns are addressed by social justice activists?
- How can you make a difference in the world?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: What is social justice?
 - Never doubt that a small group of thoughtful citizens can change the world; indeed, it's the only thing that ever has (Margaret Mead).
 - Life's most persistent and urgent question is "What are you doing for others?" (Martin Luther King, Jr.).
 - The belief that one person can make a difference is the hope of the world (Hubert H. Humphrey).
 - Your best shot at happiness, self-worth and personal satisfaction-the things that constitute real success-is not in earning as much as you can but in performing as well as you can something that you consider worthwhile. Whether that is healing the sick, giving hope to the hopeless, adding to the beauty of the world, or saving the world from nuclear holocaust, I cannot tell you (William Raspberry).
- Reflection: How can I make a difference in the world?
 - Where do I begin?
 - What do I need to address in my own life so that I can demonstrate respect for all people regardless of their situation?
 - Invite the students to consider their worldview, their beliefs, values and attitudes and the ways in which they influence their social behaviour.
 - Read the *Interactions* article, Brazilian Street Kids. What issues and needs exist in developing countries around the world?
- Discussion: Social justice
 - Spread love everywhere you go: first of all in your own house. Give love to your children, to your wife or husband, to a next door neighbour...Let no one ever come to you without leaving better and happier. Be the living expression of God's kindness; kindness in your face, kindness in your eyes, kindness in your smile, kindness in your warm greeting (Mother Theresa).
 - What is the connection between this quotation from Mother Theresa and social justice?

Making Connections

- Research World Missions.
- Research Amnesty International.
- Refer to Topic 4.4.4, Social Movements for additional information.
- Research UNESCO and the United Nations.
- How is the world's population explosion related to issues of social justice?

Resources

- Website of the Ontario Centre for Social Justice
- Website of The Centre for Social Justice
- *Interactions: Brazilian Street Kids: Reaching Out To Make A Difference*

Lesson 4.4.13: Teacher Information

What does the term social justice mean?

Social scientists have conducted intensive research into the concept of justice in social behaviour. One concern of these theorists and researchers has been distributive justice, the conditions under which the allocation of a resource or the outcome of an event would be judged as just or unjust. Other researchers have been concerned with procedural justice, the process of arriving at a decision. In other words, social psychologists are concerned both with *what* has been decided and with *how* it has been decided: We arrive at justice decisions on the basis of distribution rules, or norms, which are an integral part of our value system. It appears that these rules are universal, although how and why they are applied will vary from one culture to another. Three major rules of distributive justice have been identified: equity, equality and need.

- Equity: We measure our gains against what we view as our contributions and our worthiness, and we compare this ratio with ratio for other people in similar or dissimilar situations.
- Equality: Sometimes resources are distributed equally rather than equitably, even though the participants have not made equal contributions.
- Need: Another rule of distributive justice is that those who need the most should get the most. Need is closely associated with the norm of social responsibility (Alcock et al., 1998, p. 441).

What social issues and concerns are monitored by social justice activists?

The social issues and concerns that are monitored by social justice activists include, but are not limited to: welfare, poverty, indigenous people, equity, human rights, universality, housing, children, landmines, homeless, prison issues, gender equality and intellectual freedom.

In November 1992 a document entitled *Warning to Humanity* was released. This alarm was signed by 1500 scientists from around the world, including 99 Nobel laureates, a dozen national academies of science, the Pontifical Academy of Science, and the director general of the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). The document was bold and clear, stating that "human beings and the natural world are on a collision course," which "may so alter the living world that it

will be unable to sustain life in the manner that we know."

The problems facing the environment are vast and diverse. Destruction of the world's rain forests, global warming, and the depletion of the ozone layer are just some of the problems that will reach critical proportions in the coming decades. Their rates will be directly affected by the size of the human population.

Human population growth may be seen to be at the root of virtually all of the world's environmental problems. Increasingly large numbers of people are being added to the world every year. As the number of people increases, more pollution is generated, more habitats are destroyed, and more natural resources are used up. Even if new technological advances were able to cut in half the environmental impact that each person had, as soon as the world's population size doubled, the earth would be no better off than before.

The Population Division of the United Nations predicts that the 5.63 billion humans alive in 1994 will increase to 6.23 billion in the year 2000, 8.47 billion in 2025, and 10.02 billion in 2050. The UN's estimate assumes that population will peak and stabilize at 11.6 billion in 2200. Others predict that numbers will continue to rise into the foreseeable future, to as many as 19 billion people in 2200.

Although it is true that rates of population increase are now much slower in the developed world than in the developing world, it would be a mistake to assume that the population growth problem is primarily a problem of developing countries. In fact, because larger amounts of resources per person are used in the developed nations, each citizen from the developed world has a much greater environmental impact than does a citizen from a developing country. Conservation strategies that would not alter lifestyles but would greatly lessen environmental impact are essential in the developed world.

Evidence now exists suggesting that the most important factors necessary to lower population growth rates in the developing world are democracy and social justice. Studies show that population growth rates have fallen in areas where several social conditions have been met. In these areas, literacy rates have increased, and women are given economic status equal to that of men and thus are able to hold jobs and own property; also, birth control information is more widely available, and women are free to make their own reproductive decisions (Centre for Social Justice, 2001).

Quips and Quotes

When a friend is in trouble, don't annoy him by asking if there is anything you can do. Think up something appropriate and do it.

Edgar Watson Howe

4.6 Dysfunctional Behaviour

This lesson is the overview lesson that deals with dysfunctional behaviours, thoughts and feelings, commonly termed psychological disorders.

Lesson Objectives

- What do we mean by dysfunctionality?
- What are the models, or theories, of dysfunctionality?
- What are the types of dysfunctional behaviours?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and human behaviour
 - Read the *Interactions* article, Biochemistry and Behaviour: Balancing the Equation (*Interactions*, Unit 2).
 - Using the interview with Dr. Abraham Hoffer as a guide, discuss the implications of Dr. Hoffer's research into the effects of nutrition on behaviour.
 - The term, balancing the equation, refers to the need to consider biochemical as well as sociocultural influences on behaviour. Discuss the various types of influence that each of the three levels (micro-, exo- and macrosystem) have on behaviour.
 - How can the equation be balanced? How do psychiatrists and psychologists determine what aspects of behaviour are biochemical in nature, and what aspects of behaviour are sociocultural?
- Discussion: Normal and abnormal behaviour
 - How would students define normal and abnormal?
 - Why would psychologists and psychiatrists prefer the term "dysfunctionality" to "abnormal" behaviour?
- Discussion: What is dysfunctionality?
 - What are some behaviours that students, or others, demonstrate that are dysfunctional?
 - Is dysfunctionality a normal part of everyday living?
 - When does dysfunctionality become serious enough to require treatment?
 - Is smoking a dysfunctional behaviour? Why or why not?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on dysfunctionality
 - Divide the class in to six groups. Assign one theoretical perspective to each group. Have each group explain or interpret dysfunctionality?

Persons with disabilities

- Persons with disabilities have often been depicted inaccurately in print, media and other classroom resources. Stereotypical descriptions have served to give readers, listeners and viewers inappropriate information and engendered attitudes ranging from feelings of pity or revulsion to expectations of superhuman powers of intellect or insight. It is critical that teachers use resources and materials that portray persons with disabilities realistically and fairly. Refer to page 11 in this curriculum guide for assistance.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Theoretical Perspectives on Human Behaviour
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model
- *Interactions*: Biochemistry and Behaviour: Balancing the Equation

Lesson 4.6: Teacher Information

What do we mean by abnormality?

No one definition of abnormality on its own is adequate:

- Abnormality could mean "deviating from the norm or average". Perhaps the most obvious way to define abnormality is in terms of statistically infrequent characteristics or behaviours.
- A second approach is to identify the characteristics and abilities that people should possess in order to be considered "normal". Abnormality is then defined as deviating from these characteristics either by not possessing them or by possessing characteristics that should not be possessed.
- Abnormality as a "failure to function adequately". According to this definition, every human being should achieve some sense of personal well-being and make some contribution to a larger social group. Any individual who fails to function adequately in this respect is seen as being "abnormal". Some common causes for inadequate functioning include:
 - personal distress
 - others' distress
 - maladaptiveness
 - unexpected behaviour
 - bizarreness
- Abnormality as a "deviation from social norms". All societies have standards or norms for appropriate behaviours and beliefs (expectations about how people should behave as well as what they should think) (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 562-566).

What are the models, or theories, of abnormality?

- The medical model looks at the roles played by genetics and neurotransmitters in the development of mental disorders, while retaining interest in the nature of brain damage. Biochemical theories explain the development of mental disorders in terms of an imbalance in the concentration of neurotransmitters. Genetic theories derive from the observation that at least some mental disorders have a tendency to run in families. By means of DNA some disorders may be transmitted from generation to generation.

- The psychodynamic model (Freud) proposes that when the id (impulsive, subjective and pleasure-seeking part of personality), the ego (the gratification of the id in socially acceptable ways) and the superego (concerned with moral judgements and feelings) are balanced, then we have normality. Freud saw conflict between them as always present to some degree and when conflict cannot be managed, disorders arise.
- Both the medical and psychodynamic models explain mental disorders in terms of internal factors, their difference being that the former sees disorders as having an underlying physical cause whilst the latter sees their cause as being psychological. By contrast, the behavioural model sees disorders as maladaptive behaviours which are learned and maintained in the same way as adaptive behaviours.
- The cognitive model focuses on internal events such as thoughts, expectations and attitudes accompanying and, in some cases, causing mental disorders. The cognitive model proposes that mediating processes, such as thoughts, interpretations and perceptions of ourselves, others and the environment, are important in causing mental disorders. Disorders occur when the 'input-output' sequence is disturbed in some way.
- Humanistic psychologists take a very different view of human nature and assume that people are sets of potentials who are basically good and strive for growth, dignity and self-determination. Humanistic psychology sees the whole of personality (including our experiences of sorrow and joy, frustration and fulfillment, and alienation and intimacy) as worthy of study. Mental disorders are seen as arising because external events prevent personal growth (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 568-573).

What are the types of abnormal behaviours?

There are several types, or categories of dysfunctional behaviours. They include:

- Mood disorders
 - dysthymic disorder
 - depression
 - mania
 - bipolar disorders
 - post-partum disorder
- Anxiety disorders
 - panic disorders
 - phobias

-
- obsessive-compulsive disorders
 - post-traumatic stress disorder
 - Eating disorders
 - anorexia
 - bulimia
 - Personality disorders
 - antisocial
 - paranoid
 - schizoid
 - schizotypal
 - Schizophrenia

Quips and Quotes

Depression: When you're taking more than you're giving.

Anonymous

4.6.1 Mood Disorders

Mood disorders are the most common of all psychological disorders, something we all experience from time to time. This lesson focuses on mood disorders, most particularly the acute aspect of mood disorders, depression.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the types of mood disorders?
- What is depression?
- How can you tell if you or a friend might be depressed?
- Why do people get depressed?
- What can you do if you are depressed?
- What is the relationship between depression and suicide?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Let's talk about depression
 - Using the *Interactions* article Let's talk About Depression as a basis, discuss with the students the signs, symptoms and causes of depression.
 - How is depression different from sadness, feeling "down" and melancholy feelings?
 - What roles and responsibilities do people have if they sense that a friend or family member is depressed?
- Presentation: Invite a local Mental Health professional or health nurse into your classroom to discuss mood disorders and depression.
- Discussion: Mood and social perception
 - What role and importance does mood have on how we perceive other people? What causes students to be in a good or bad mood? Are there particular situations that seem to heighten emotional sensitivity? Are there particular times of the day when students feel moody? Why is this?
 - Discuss the implications of this statement in terms of how people behave in the world.
- Research: Learned helplessness
 - What is learned helplessness? How is learned helplessness different from apathy and laziness? What are the influences and causes of learned helplessness?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on mood disorders
 - Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each small group of students. Based on its theoretical perspective, have each group explain mood disorders. What treatments and therapies would the group recommend based on its interpretation of the causes of, or reasons for mood disorders?

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 2.3.2, Attitudes for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 2.6, Personality for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 2.3.3, Motivation for additional information.

Resources

- *Interactions*: Let's talk About Depression
- [Website about depression](#)
- [Website for the National Institute for Mental Health](#)

Lesson 4.6.1: Teacher Information

What are the types of mood disorders?

- The term dysthymic disorder comes from the Greek for “low spirits”. Hence it is a moderate depression. In any given year, between four and 12 percent of the population are affected by it. Typical symptoms of dysthymic disorder are lack of energy, unhappiness, loss of interest in activities and people, loss of sense of humour, sadness and rock-bottom feelings of self-worth (McMahon and Romano, 1998, p. 520).
- Bipolar disorders, which originally were known as manic-depressive disorders, get their name from the fact that patients' behaviour vacillates between two extremes: mania and depression. The manic phase is characterized by rapid speech, inflated self-esteem, impulsiveness, euphoria and decreased need for sleep. Patients in the manic phase are easily distracted, get angry when things do not go their way, and seem to have boundless energy. A person in the depressed phase, which often follows the manic phase, is moody and sad, with feelings of hopelessness (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 541).
- Depressive disorders are a general category of mood disorders in which people on a day-to-day basis show extreme and persistent sadness, despair and loss of interest in life's usual activities. The main difference between depressive disorders and bipolar disorders is that people with depressive disorders show no vacillation between excitement and depression; they tend to be depressed more often than not (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 541).
- A characteristic called learned helplessness is frequently associated with becoming depressed. People with this characteristic have accepted the generalized idea that there is nothing they can do about their situation (McMahon and Romano, 1998, p. 523).

What is depression?

Depression can range from occasional, normal “down” periods to episodes severe enough to require hospitalization. A person suffering major depressive disorder feels sad and overwhelmed for weeks or months. Exaggerated feelings of inadequacy, worthlessness, hopelessness or guilt are common. Changes in eating and sleeping habits, resulting in weight loss or, sometimes, weight gain often accompany major depressive disorder. Problems in working, concentrating, making

decisions and thinking clearly are also typical (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 455).

How can you tell if you or a friend might be depressed?

Here's how to tell if you or a friend might be depressed.

First, there are two kinds of depressive illness: the sad kind, called major depression, and manic-depression or bipolar illness, when feeling down and depressed alternates with being speeded-up and sometimes reckless.

You should get evaluated by a professional if you've had five or more of the following symptoms for more than two weeks or if any of these symptoms cause such a big change that you can't keep up your usual routine....

When You're Depressed...

- You feel sad or cry a lot and it doesn't go away.
- You feel guilty for no reason; you feel like you're no good; you've lost your confidence.
- Life seems meaningless or like nothing good is ever going to happen again. You have a negative attitude a lot of the time, or it seems like you have no feelings.
- You don't feel like doing a lot of the things you used to like - like music, sports, being with friends, going out - and you want to be left alone most of the time.
- It's hard to make up your mind. You forget lots of things, and it's hard to concentrate.
- You get irritated often. Little things make you lose your temper; you over-react.
- Your sleep pattern changes; you start sleeping a lot more or you have trouble falling asleep at night. Or you wake up really early most mornings and can't get back to sleep.
- Your eating pattern changes; you've lost your appetite or you eat a lot more.
- You feel restless and tired most of the time.
- You think about death, or feel like you're dying, or have thoughts about committing suicide (National Institute for Mental Health, 2002, p. 1).

Why do people get depressed?

Sometimes people get seriously depressed after something like a divorce in the family, major financial problems, someone you love dying, a messed up home life, or breaking up with a boyfriend or girlfriend.

Other times - like with other illnesses - depression just happens. Often teenagers react to the pain of depression by getting into trouble: trouble with alcohol, drugs, or sex; trouble with school or bad grades; problems with family or friends. This is another reason why it's important to get treatment for depression before it leads to other trouble (National Institute for Mental Health, 2002, p. 3).

What can you do if you are depressed?

Most people with depression can be helped with psychotherapy, medicine, or both together.

Short-term psychotherapy, means talking about feelings with a trained professional who can help you change the relationships, thoughts, or behaviours that contribute to depression.

Medication has been developed that effectively treats depression that is severe or disabling.

Antidepressant medications are not "uppers" and are not addictive. Sometimes, several types may have to be tried before you and your doctor find the one that works best.

Treatment can help most depressed people start to feel better in just a few weeks.

So remember, when your problems seem too big and you're feeling low for too long, YOU ARE NOT ALONE. There's help out there and you can ask for help. And if you know someone who you think is depressed, you can help: Listen and encourage your friend to ask a parent or responsible adult about treatment. If your friend doesn't ask for help soon, talk to an adult you trust and respect – especially if your friend mentions suicide (National Institute for Mental Health, 2002, p. 3).

What is the relationship between depression and suicide?

Most people who are depressed do not commit suicide. But depression increases the risk for suicide or suicide attempts. It is not true that people who talk about suicide do not attempt it. Suicidal thoughts, remarks, or attempts are ALWAYS SERIOUS...if any of these happen to you or a friend, you must tell a responsible adult IMMEDIATELY...it's better to be safe than sorry (National Institute for Mental Health, 2002, p. 3).

Quips and Quotes

Worry a little bit every day and in a lifetime you will lose a couple of years. If something is wrong, fix it if you can. But train yourself not to worry. Worry never fixes anything.

Mary Hemingway

4.6.2 Anxiety, Somatoform and Dissociative Disorders

In this lesson we address three major aspects of dysfunctional behaviour: anxiety disorders, somatoform disorders, and dissociative disorders.

Lesson Objectives

- What does it mean to be anxious?
- What are the types of anxiety disorders?
- What are somatoform disorders?
- What are dissociative disorders?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Jigsaw: Anxiety, somatoform and dissociative disorders
 - Assign a particular disorder to a small group of students who would then prepare a short presentation on the topic.
- Research/Discussion: Phobias and fears
 - Research the myriad number of phobias.
 - How is a phobia different from a fear?
 - Are all phobias irrational?
 - What is the relationship between superstition and phobias?
- Discussion: Obsession and compulsion
 - What are the differences between obsessive/compulsive behaviours, habits and routine behaviours?
 - Using the movie, *As Good As It Gets*, highlight the obsessive compulsive behaviours demonstrated by Jack Nicholson's character. Be aware that there are several segments that may be inappropriate for adolescents. Teachers should use discretion in selecting those scenes that are appropriate and applicable to obsessive/compulsive behaviours.
- Research: Anxiety disorders
 - Design and conduct an investigation into the following:
 - Anxiety: What situations cause students to be extremely anxious?
 - Phobias: What are they afraid of?
 - Are there gender differences in the research results?
 - Are there age differences in the research results?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on anxiety, somatoform and dissociative disorders
 - Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each small group of students. Based on their theoretical perspective, how would the groups explain anxiety, somatoform and dissociative disorders? What treatments and therapies would they recommend based on their interpretation of the causes of, or reasons for, anxiety, somatoform and dissociative disorders?

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 2.6, Personality for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 3.4, Self-understanding for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 4.6.1, Mood Disorders for additional information.

Resources

- Movie: *As Good As It Gets*

Lesson 4.6.2: Teacher Information

What does it mean to be anxious?

Anxiety is customarily considered a generalized feeling of fear and apprehension that may be related to a particular event or object and is often accompanied by increased physiological arousal. Anxiety is a key symptom of maladjustment - not necessarily the cause of maladjustment (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 496).

What are the types of anxiety disorders?

- The person with a *panic disorder* is afflicted by frequent and over-whelming attacks of anxiety. The anxiety at first is not really connected to anything specific; it is a physical occurrence. Soon, however, the panic begins to become associated with more and more objects, events and people.
- *Phobic disorders* involve an unreasonable, excessive and irrational fear of, and consequent attempt to avoid, specific objects or situations. Mild phobic disorders occur in about 7.5 percent of the population. They are, in fact, relatively common in well-adjusted people. Severe, disabling phobias occur in less than 0.05 percent of the population, typically in patients with other disorders. Phobias occur most frequently between the ages of 30 and 60 and occur about equally in men and women.
- An *obsession* refers to an endless preoccupation with some type of urge or thought. A compulsion is a symbolic, ritualized behaviour that a person must act out repeatedly. The two words, obsessive-compulsive are generally used together. Most compulsive people are obsessed with their compulsion (McMahon and Romano, 1998, p. 512).
- An *obsessive-compulsive disorder* is an anxiety disorder characterized by persistent and uncontrollable thoughts and irrational beliefs (obsessions) that cause performance of intrusive and inappropriate compulsive rituals that interfere with daily life. The unwanted thoughts, urges and actions of people with obsessive-compulsive disorders focus on maintaining order and control. About two percent of the population suffer from obsessive-compulsive disorders. Of those with the disorder, about 20 percent have only obsessions or compulsions; about 80 percent have both.

- The term *post-traumatic stress disorder* is used to describe an anxiety disorder occurring in response to an extreme psychological or physical trauma outside the range of normal human experience. As well as war, such traumas include a physical threat to one's self or family, witnessing other people's deaths, and being involved in a natural or human-made disaster. PTSD may occur immediately following a traumatic experience or weeks, months and even years later. As well as tiredness, apathy, depression, social withdrawal and nightmares, veterans from the Vietnam war reported flashbacks of events they had witnessed or participated in. Victims of PTSD also report higher use of alcohol, drugs or violence to try to curb the disturbing symptoms (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 604-611).

What are somatoform disorders?

- In somatoform disorders, psychological issues are expressed in bodily symptoms, but there is no actual problem. There are two major types:
 - Conversion disorder, or "hysterical paralysis", reflects a serious psychological trauma that is unconsciously transformed into a symbolic physical dysfunction.
 - Hypochondriacs see disastrous in a minor physical complaint (McMahon and Romano, 1998, p. 517).

What are dissociative disorders?

Dissociative disorders are characterized by a sudden but temporary alteration in consciousness, identity, sensory/motor behaviour or memory. Although relatively rare, these disorders are quite noticeable and sharply delineated:

- Dissociative amnesia is characterized by the sudden and extensive inability to recall important personal information, usually information of a traumatic or stressful nature. The condition, which is relatively rare, occurs most often during wars or natural disasters.
- Dissociative identity disorder, or multiple personality disorder, is characterized by the existence within an individual of two or more distinct personalities, each of which is dominant at particular times and directs the individual's behaviour at those times. Each personality has unique traits and different memories and behavioural patterns. Each personality is often unaware of any other one, but when time passes cannot account for it. The switch from one personality to another usually is brought on by stress (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 537).

Quips and Quotes

Don't compromise yourself. You're all you've got.

Janis Joplin

4.6.3 Eating Disorders

The startling prevalence of eating disorders, and their recent high profile in the media, has raised eating disorders in the public awareness. This lesson addresses the two major types, anorexia and bulimia.

Lesson Objectives

- What are the two main types of eating disorders?
- What roles do genetics and the environment play in eating disorders?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Research/Discussion: Portrayals of women and men in the media.
 - How are men and women portrayed in the print, television and movie media?
 - What are the preferred body types or images that are presented?
 - What influence does the media have on men and women in terms of body image?
- Research: Gender differences in eating disorders
 - Why the huge discrepancy between men and women in terms of eating disorders?
 - How might sociocultural influences account for the discrepancy?
- Research: Eating disorders and body image
 - Using the website, sponsored by the [National Eating Disorders Association](#), research the topics of anorexia nervosa and bulimia, as well as issues concerning body image for both males and females.
- Research: Eating habits and dieting
 - Design and conduct a research project that investigates the eating habits and body image issues of children, adolescents and adults. For example,
 - What percentage of respondents want to be thinner?
 - What percentage of respondents have dieted in the last year?
 - What percentage of respondents monitor their eating habits?
 - How many times do respondents eat at restaurants or fast food establishments during a week (e.g., zero, one to three, four to seven, more than seven)?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on eating disorders
 - Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to a small group of students. Based on their theoretical perspective, how would the students explain eating disorders? What treatments and therapies would they recommend based on their interpretation of the causes of, or reasons for, eating disorders?

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 2.6, Personality traits for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 3.4, Self-understanding for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 3.4.4, Identity management for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 3.3.2, Motivation for additional information.

Resources

- [National Eating Disorders Association](#)

Lesson 4.6.3: Teacher Information

What are the two main types of eating disorders?

Although there are several types of eating disorders, two broad categories are anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa:

- Anorexia nervosa occurs primarily in females, and female anorectics outnumber males by a factor of 15:1. The disorder usually has its onset in adolescence, the period between 14 and 16 being the most common. For a diagnosis of anorexia to be considered, the individual must weigh less than 85% of normal or expected weight for height, age and sex. One important characteristic of anorectics is a distorted body image in which the individual does not recognize the body's thinness. Estimates of anorexia incidence vary. American data suggest that one in 250 females may experience the disorder. In Britain, the figure is somewhat higher, ranging from one in 100 to four in 100.
- Bulimia nervosa is characterized by periodic episodes of 'compulsive' or 'binge' eating, the rapid and seemingly uncontrolled consumption of food, especially that rich in carbohydrates. The binge is terminated either by abdominal pain or, in the case of the purging type, by the expulsion of food using diuretics, laxatives or self-induced vomiting. In bulimia nervosa, the frequency of 'binge' eating typically averages at least two or three times a week, and sometimes as often as 30 times a week. Most bulimics are women, with fewer than 5% of the cases presenting for treatment being men. Bulimics recognize their eating behaviour is abnormal and feel frustrated by it, but they are unable to control the urge voluntarily. Like anorectics, bulimics are unduly concerned with their body weight/shape. Although able to maintain a normal body weight, they tend to fluctuate between weight gain and loss (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 613-617).

What roles do genetics and the environment play in eating disorders?

Anorexia may have a genetic basis. There is a tendency for the disorder to run in families, with first- and second-degree relatives of anorectic individuals being significantly more likely to develop the disorder compared with first- and second-degree relatives of a control group on non-anorectics. The behavioural interpretation sees anorexia as a phobia concerning the possibility of gaining weight. Sociocultural explanations focus in on societal

norms and the cultural idealization of the slender female as possible causes for fears of being fat.

Noradrenaline, serotonin, hormones and endorphins may all play mediating roles in bulimia nervosa. Anorectics and bulimics share many psychological traits, along with the goal of maintaining a sub-optimal body weight. The same person may also alternate between the same disorders (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 614).

Quips and Quotes

Make yourself necessary to someone.

Ralph Waldo Emerson

4.6.4 Schizophrenia

This lesson considers schizophrenia, a condition that is often misunderstood. In particular, this lesson highlights the pioneering work of a Saskatchewan medical researcher, Dr. Abram Hoffer, in terms of a biochemical as well as a sociocultural approach to the treatment of schizophrenia.

Lesson Objectives

- What is schizophrenia?
- How are people with schizophrenia diagnosed?
- What are the types of schizophrenia?
- How does schizophrenia develop?
- How do current psychological theories explain schizophrenia?
- What is the relationship between nature, nurture and schizophrenia?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and schizophrenia
 - Using the template found in the Curriculum Support Materials, Nature/Nurture and Human Development, discuss how schizophrenia is influenced by biological as well as environmental factors.
- Discussion: Biochemistry and schizophrenia
 - Read the *Interactions* article, Biochemistry and Behaviour: Balancing the Equation.
 - What are the implications of Dr. Hoffer's theories?
 - Design and conduct a research project that surveys people's attitudes towards vitamins and minerals. Should people take vitamin supplements daily?
 - The term, balancing the equation, refers to the need to consider biochemical as well as sociocultural influences on behaviour. Discuss the various types of influence that each of the three levels (micro-, exo- and macrosystem) have on behaviour.
 - How do we balance the equation? How do psychiatrists and psychologists determine what aspects of behaviour are biochemical in nature and what aspects of behaviour are sociocultural?
- Jigsaw: Theoretical perspectives on schizophrenia
 - Assign one of the six theoretical perspectives to each small group of students. Based on their theoretical perspective, how would the groups explain schizophrenia? What treatments and therapies would they recommend based on their interpretation of the causes of, or reasons for, schizophrenia?
- Research: Neurotransmitters
 - What are neurotransmitters? What function and role do they perform? What influence do neurotransmitters have on human behaviour?

Making Connections

- Refer to Topic 2.2.3, The Endocrine System for additional information.
- Refer to Topic 2.2.2, The Nervous System for additional information.

Resources

- *Interactions: Biochemistry and Behaviour: Balancing the Equation*
- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Behaviour

Lesson 4.6.5: Teacher Information

What is schizophrenia?

Schizophrenia is a disorder in which personality loses its unity. It should not be confused with multiple personality disorder, in which personality splits into two or more separate identities.

Schizophrenia is a 'splitting' between thoughts and feelings, the consequences being bizarre and maladaptive behaviour. Schizophrenics have an impaired ability to selectively attend to some stimuli and exclude the rest that leads to overwhelming and disconnected ideas and sensations. The presence of one or more of the following is likely to result in a diagnosis of schizophrenia: passivity experiences and thought disturbances, hallucinations and primary delusions.

- Passivity experiences and thought disturbances may include thought insertion (the belief that thoughts are being inserted into the mind from outside, under the control of external forces), thought withdrawal (the belief that thoughts are being removed from the mind), and thought broadcasting (the belief that thoughts are being broadcast or otherwise made known to others).
- Hallucinations are perceptions of stimuli not actually present. While they may occur in any modality, the most common are auditory. Somatosensory hallucinations involve changes in how the body feels. Depersonalization, in which the person reports feeling separated from the body may also occur.
- Primary delusions are false beliefs which persist even in the presence of disconfirming evidence. Delusions of grandeur, persecution, reference (particularly personal significance) or nihilism (nothing really exists, everything is shadows) are the most common (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 586).

How are people with schizophrenia diagnosed?

People with schizophrenic disorders display sudden, significant changes in thought, perception, mood and overall behaviour. How they think about themselves, social situations, and other people - social cognition - becomes seriously distorted.

There are three basic types of symptoms:

- Thought disorders include maintaining logical thought, ordered thinking, memory and coherent conversation. Delusions frequently accompany the early onset of the condition.

- Another sign of schizophrenic disorders is the presence of hallucinations - compelling perceptual experiences without a real physical stimulus.
- One of the most striking characteristics of schizophrenia is the display of inappropriate emotional responses (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 551).

What are the types of schizophrenia?

There are several types of schizophrenia:

- Hebeephrenic schizophrenia is the most severe type, is usually progressive and irreversible. Its main characteristics are incoherence of language, disorganized behaviour, disorganized delusions, vivid hallucinations and a loosening of hallucinations.
- Simple schizophrenia usually appears late in adolescence and has a slow, gradual onset. Principally, the individual withdraws from reality, has difficulty in making or maintaining friends, is aimless and lacks drive, and shows a decline in academic or occupational performance.
- Catatonic schizophrenia is a striking impairment of motor activity. Individuals may hold unusual and difficult positions until their limbs grow stiff, swollen from lack of movement. However, catatonic schizophrenics often are aware of what others are saying or doing during the catatonic episode. Another characteristic is negativism, in which the individual sits either motionless and resistant to instructions, or does the opposite of what has been requested.
- Paranoid schizophrenia has the presence of well-organized, delusional thoughts as its dominant characteristic. Paranoid schizophrenics show the highest level of awareness and least impairment in the ability to carry out daily functions. Thus, language and behaviour appear relatively normal. However, the delusions are typically accompanied by hallucinations that are consistent with them (Gross and McIlveen, 1998, p. 588).

How does schizophrenia develop?

The characteristics of schizophrenia rarely appear in "full-blown form". Typically there are three phases in schizophrenia's development.

- The prodromal phase usually occurs in early adolescence or in relatively well-adjusted people in early adulthood. Typically, he/she becomes increasingly withdrawn, eccentric, emotionally flat, cares little for health and appearance, and shows lower productivity at either work or school.
- In the second or active phase, the major characteristics of schizophrenia appear. This phase varies in duration, lasting from months to a lifetime.
- If and when the active phase subsides, the person enters the residual phase characterized by a lessening of the major characteristics and a more-or-less return to the prodromal phase. Around 25% of schizophrenics regain the capacity to function normally, ten percent remain permanently in the active phase and 50 - 65 percent alternate between the active and residual phases (Gross and McIveen, 1998, p. 589).

How do current psychological theories explain schizophrenia?

The observation that schizophrenia tends to run in families, and that schizophrenic parents have a greater chance of producing schizophrenic offspring, suggests that genetic factors may be involved in the disorder. About one percent of the Canadian population is schizophrenic; when one parent has schizophrenia, however, the probability that an offspring also will develop the disorder increases to between three and 14 percent. If both parents have schizophrenia, their children have about a 35 percent chance of developing it (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 554).

What is the relationship between nature, nurture and schizophrenia?

Although the exact causes of schizophrenia are still unknown, research suggests the following:

- The production and activity of specific types of chemical substances in the brain are associated with schizophrenia.
- A connection exists between genetics and schizophrenia, although genetic factors alone cannot account for its development.
- Environmental factors (such as the presence of marital conflict and placing children in a situation that offers mixed and inconsistent messages) may contribute to the development of schizophrenia. Among these factors, early

childhood relationships may be especially important.

- The most likely cause of schizophrenia may be a biological predisposition in the individual, which may be aggravated by a climate of emotional immaturity, lack of effective communication, and emotional instability. There is, however, no evidence to suggest that poor family relations cause the illness (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 556).

Quips and Quotes

Never let your head hang down.
Never give up and sit down and grieve. Find another way. And don't pray when it rains if you don't pray when the sun shines.

Satchel Paige

4.6.5 Criminal Behaviour

Often, psychological disorders become manifested in criminal behaviour. This is not to suggest, however, that all criminals are disordered in some fashion. However, the link between psychological disorders, aggression, violence and crime is well established. This lesson addresses the nature of that relationship.

Lesson Objectives

- What do we mean by criminal behaviour?
- What are the different perspectives in criminology?
- What are the origins of criminal behaviour?
- What is juvenile delinquency?
- What are the factors in the development of delinquency?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: The Ecological Model and criminal behaviour
 - Use the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials as a conceptual organizer to discuss the influence of the various systems on criminal behaviour.
- Presentation: Local peace officer
 - Invite a local peace officer in to give a presentation on crime and criminal behaviour, particularly as it relates to adolescents.
- Dialectical Reasoning: Issues in criminality
 - Capital Punishment
 - Thesis: Murderers deserve to be put to death, make the punishment match the crime.
 - Antithesis: Capital punishment is nothing more than murder.
 - Parole
 - Thesis: Parole promotes rehabilitation of the individual.
 - Antithesis: Parole should not be allowed, a sentence should be served to its maximum.
 - Young Offenders
 - Thesis: Young offenders are not adults and should not be treated as such.
 - Antithesis: Children over the age of 12 are aware of their actions, and should bear the same consequences for their actions as an adult.
- Research: Criminal behaviour, punishment and crime
 - Design and conduct an investigation into people's attitudes towards various aspects of criminal behaviour (e.g., capital punishment, prison for juveniles, boot camps, parole, age at which young criminals should be treated as adults).

Making Connections

- Research: The Young Criminal's Justice Act
 - Invite a member of the local police service, or lawyer, to present on the Young Criminal's Justice Act.
- What role does the media play in promoting school violence?
- Bullies. Who are they; why are they; and what can be done to stop them?
- Establish a classroom code of conduct.

Resources

- [On-line resources on aggression](#)
- [American statistics on juvenile justice and delinquency](#)
- [Report on juvenile boot camps](#)
- Curriculum Support Materials: The Ecological Model

Lesson 4.6.5: Teacher Information

What do we mean by criminal behaviour?

Criminal behaviour is intentional behaviour that violates a criminal code, intentional in that it did not occur accidentally or without justification or excuse (Bartol, 1999, p. 7).

What are the different perspectives in criminology?

All theories of crime have underlying assumptions about human nature:

- One perspective views humans as creatures of conformity who want to do the “right” thing, but are strongly influenced by the values and attitudes of the society in which they live. Crime and delinquency occur when there is a perceived discrepancy between the materialistic values and goals cherished and held in high esteem by a society and the availability of the legitimate means for reaching these goals.
- A second perspective assumes that human beings are basically undisciplined creatures who, without the constraints of the rules and regulations of a given society, would flout society’s conventions and commit crime indiscriminately. This theory contends that crime and delinquency occur when an individual’s ties to the conventional order or normative standards are weak or largely non-existent.
- The third perspective sees human beings as born basically neutral (neither inherently conforming nor unruly); they learn virtually all their behaviour, beliefs and tendencies from the social environment. Criminal behaviour, therefore, is learned, as is all social behaviour, through social interactions with other people (Bartol, 1999, p. 2).

What are the origins of criminal behaviour?

Genetics may play a role in criminal behaviour, but it is only an insignificant one. There is little doubt that environment is the principal determinant and cause of criminal behaviour.

- Twin and adoption studies suggest that genetic components may contribute significantly to a tendency to become criminal, but they have also found that environment is highly important. The available data thus far indicate that some people may be born with a biological predisposition to behaviour that runs counter to social values and

norms, and that environmental factors may either inhibit or stimulate it.

- Social learning theory suggests that to understand criminal behaviour we must examine perceptions, thoughts, expectancies, competencies and values. Each person has his or her own version of the world and lives by that version. Social learning theorists place great emphasis on the assumption that we learn primarily by observing and listening to people around us - the social environment. Criminal behaviour may be acquired through association and observation, but whether or not it is maintained will depend primarily upon reinforcement.
- Several learning investigators have noted that when organisms - including humans - are prevented from responding in a way that had previously produced rewards, their behaviour often becomes more energetic and vigorous. Individuals who feel suppressed by the power elite and feel they have a right to reap society's benefits may well experience intense frustration at continuing domination. The frustration-induced theory helps explain the behaviour of looters during unexpected events like floods, fires, urban riots or electrical blackouts.
- Most contemporary theories and research support the view that human behaviour results from a mutual interaction between personality and situational variables. Two situational factors in particular seem to play a role in criminal behaviour:
 - Authority: sometimes people behave a certain way because someone with power told them they must, even though the actions do not “set right” with their own principles, in effect, “crimes of obedience”. A substantial proportion of individuals do what they are told to do, irrespective of the context of the act and without limitations of conscience, so long as they perceive that the command comes from a legitimate authority.
 - Deindividuation: The process of losing one’s identity and becoming part of a group. Deindividuation follows a complex chain of events. First, the presence of many other persons encourages feelings of anonymity. Then, the individual feels he or she loses identity and becomes part of the group. Under these conditions, they can no longer be singled out and held responsible for behaviour. This loss of self-awareness, reduced concerns over evaluations from others and a narrowed focus of attention appear to be the basic ingredients in mass

violence. People tend to be more aggressive, abusive and violent when their identity is hidden (Bartol, 1999, p. 113-132).

What is juvenile delinquency?

Juvenile delinquency is an imprecise, nebulous, social, clinical and legal label for a wide variety of law- and norm-violating behaviour. Social definitions of delinquency consist of a wide variety of youthful behaviours considered inappropriate, including aggressive behaviour, truancy, theft, vandalism, drug abuse and conduct disorders such as stealing, truancy, setting fires, fighting, etc. (Bartol, 1999, p. 25).

What are the factors in the development of delinquency?

Social risk factors include:

- Poverty: Youth living in poverty are more likely to drop out of school, to be unemployed, to carry a firearm, to be victimized and to be a witness to a variety of violence.
- Peer association: Peer association is one of the strongest and most consistent single predictors of delinquency. The relationship between peers and drug use seems especially strong. We cannot assert that delinquent peers cause other peers who associate with them to become delinquent, but serious delinquents do tend to hang around with delinquent peers, although their delinquent behaviour was often apparent before their peer association.
- Developmental factors: Serious, persistent delinquency patterns begin in early childhood. Learning experiences begin early and build on themselves. Researchers have noted differences in impulsiveness, social skills and feelings for others between children who ultimately became serious delinquents and non-delinquents during their school years. Even at an early age, aggressive belligerent children are unpopular and are excluded from peer groups. As a group, highly aggressive, troublesome children demonstrate social and interpersonal skills that are below average for their age. Stealing and frequent dishonesty appear to be strong, early indicators of delinquency.
- Family background: Studies based on official data (U.S., Census Bureau, 1996) found that delinquents come from homes where parents are divorced or separated more often than do non-delinquents. However, it is clear that if the

single-parent home is a risk factor, then it is undoubtedly confounded by a complex of other interacting variables. A stable, secure and mutually supportive family is exceedingly important in delinquency prevention. The families of delinquency-prone children support the use of antisocial behaviour in their children by inadvertently reinforcing such behaviours and by failing to reinforce prosocial ones.

- Parental disciplinary practices: The lack of parental supervision appears to be a strong predictor of serious, violent delinquency. Furthermore, factors such as inconsistent parental discipline and harsh, physical punishment by parents are also strongly correlated with delinquency. This cycle of violence and aggression remains in aggression-prone families for at least three generations (Bartol, 1999, p. 30-39).

4.6.6 Addiction

Quips and Quotes

Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time; for that's the stuff life is made of.

Benjamin Franklin

This lesson discusses a variety of substance abuse and addictive behaviours ranging from alcoholism to smoking.

Lesson Objectives

- How do we define substance abuse and addiction?
- What are the defining characteristics of a substance abuser?
- Are some people more likely than others to become alcoholics?
- Why do people become addicted?
- Under what conditions are people likely to become addicted?
- Why is alcoholism a disease?
- What are the myths and models of alcoholism?
- What are some risks for prolonged alcohol abuse?
- How prevalent is the problem of alcohol abuse in Canada?
- Why do people smoke?

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Direct
- Independent
- Interactive
- Indirect
- Experiential

- Discussion: Nature/nurture and addictive behaviours.
 - Using the template supplied in the Curriculum Support Materials, discuss how inherited traits, as well as the environment, can influence addictive behaviours.
- Research: Beliefs in smoking
 - Replicate the “Beliefs in Smoking” study (see Teacher Information for details), and include nonsmokers for comparison purposes.
- Research: Gambling addiction
 - How severe is the problem in Saskatchewan?
 - What are the similarities and differences between gambling addiction and other forms of addiction?
- Discussion: What implications does the research on behavioural conditioning and drug use have for other addictive behaviours such as drinking, smoking and gambling?
- Discussion: Warnings on cigarette packages: Are they effective?
- Discussion: Drugs and patents
 - Should drug companies be allowed to patent their drugs?
 - What are the issues in patenting drug therapies?
- Research: Myths about alcoholism
 - Design and conduct a research study investigating the prevalence of the myths of alcoholism listed in the Teacher Information section.
- Discussion: How do we prevent young children from smoking, drinking or taking drugs?
- Consensus decision making: One conviction for drinking and driving should result in permanent loss of driving privileges.

Making Connections

- Research: Nature, nurture and addiction
 - Prepare a report on the relative influences of genetic inheritance and the social environment on addictive behaviours.

Resources

- Curriculum Support Materials: Nature/Nurture and Human Development
- Taking the Pulse of Saskatchewan

Lesson 4.6.7: Teacher Information

How do we define substance abuse and addiction?

Substance abuse is a pattern of use that causes serious social, legal or interpersonal problems. Thus, people can become psychologically dependent on psychoactive drugs without becoming physically addicted to them. Addiction is the physical need for a substance (physiological substance dependence). Even when use of a drug does not create physical addiction, some people may overuse, or abuse, it because it gives them temporary self-confidence, enjoyment or relief from tension (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 467).

What are the defining characteristics of a substance abuser?

A substance abuser is a person who overuses and relies on drugs to deal with stress and anxiety. Most substance abusers turn to alcohol, tobacco and other readily available drugs such as cocaine and marijuana, but substance abuse is not confined to these drugs. A growing number of people are abusing legal drugs such as tranquilizers and diet pills, as well as illegal drugs such as amphetamines and heroin. A person is a substance abuser if all three of the following statements apply:

- The person has used the abusive substance for at least a month.
- The use has caused legal difficulties or social or vocational problems.
- There is recurrent use in hazardous situations such as driving a car (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 138).

Are some people more likely than others to become alcoholics?

The answer is yes, according to researchers who study the biological aspects of alcoholism. Researchers assert that genetics, blood and brain chemistry, and specific brain structures predispose some people to alcoholism. Children of alcoholics are more likely to become alcoholics, even if they are raised by non-alcoholic adoptive parents. The correlations suggest that certain individuals' physiology predisposes them to alcoholism (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 141).

Why do people become addicted?

- Biological Model: Addiction to substances such as heroin and cocaine is largely seen as a biological process brought about by the physical effects of the drugs, but explaining why people first use them is more complicated. The causes of initial drug use are even less well established than the reasons for alcohol abuse. One line of theorizing suggests that there might be a genetic tendency toward behavioural compulsions that predisposes some people to abuse many kinds of drugs, including alcohol. Psychological factors, such as the need to reduce stress, peer pressure, thrill seeking, and poor social adjustment, have all been proposed as triggers for addictive behaviour. While research has not yet established why continued drug use occurs in some people and not in others, again, it is likely that some predisposition sets the stage on which specific psychological processes and stressors play out their roles (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 468).
- According to the learning model, drug addiction is not a disease but a “central activity of the individual’s way of life” that depends on learning and culture. To understand why people become addicted the learning model focuses on the behaviours surrounding the addiction. Four arguments support this view:
 - Addiction patterns vary according to cultural practices and the social environment. Alcoholism is much more likely to occur in societies that forbid children to drink but condone drunkenness in adults than in societies that teach children how to drink responsibly and moderately but condemn adult drunkenness. Within a particular country, addiction rates can rise or fall rapidly in response to cultural changes such as when people move from their own culture of origin into another that has different drinking rules.
 - Policies of total abstinence tend to increase rates of addiction rather than reduce them.
 - Not all addicts have withdrawal symptoms when they stop taking a drug.
 - Addiction does not depend on properties of the drug alone, but also on the reason for taking it. Addicts use drugs to escape from the real world, but people living with chronic pain use some of the same drugs in order to function in the real world and they do not

become addicted (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 601).

Under what conditions are people likely to become addicted?

Abuse and addiction reflect an interaction of physiology and psychology, person and culture. To summarize, problems with drugs are most likely to occur under these conditions:

- When a person has a physiological vulnerability to a drug;
- When a person believes he or she has no control over the drug;
- When laws or customs encourage or teach people to take a drug in binges, and moderate use is neither encouraged nor taught;
- When a person comes to rely on a drug as a way of coping with problems, suppressing anger or fear, or relieving pain;
- When members of a person's peer group drink heavily or use other drugs excessively (Tavris and Wade, 2000, p. 604).

Why is alcoholism a disease?

There are five reasons:

- The illness can be described. The alcoholic's compulsion to drink is manifested in drinking habits that are inappropriate, unpredictable, excessive and constant. The behaviour oscillates to extremes so that people around the alcoholic are confused and bewildered.
- The course of the illness is predictable and progressive. It will get worse, it's as simple as that. Sometimes there are plateaus where the drinking behaviour seems to remain constant for months or even years. Occasionally some event will trigger what seems to be a spontaneous improvement. But, over a period of time, the course of the disease is inevitably toward greater and more serious deterioration. This deterioration can be physical, mental and spiritual.
- The disease is primary – that is, it is not just a symptom of some other underlying disorder. Alcoholism is a primary disease, it causes mental, emotional and physical problems. Other problems that the victim might have cannot be treated effectively until the alcoholism has been treated first.

- It is permanent. Once you have it, you have it. Trying to learn to drink responsibly just won't work. The only solution is to seek help to permanently arrest the disease – the earlier the better. The chances for successful treatment are much better in the earlier stages of the disease.
- It is terminal – if left untreated, it inevitably results in premature death. Whether the chemical complicated a heart condition, high blood pressure, liver problem, bleeding ulcer, or precipitated a suicide, it is still the agent that caused the death (Glace Bay Drug Awareness Project).

What are the myths and models of alcoholism?

There are several myths regarding alcoholism:

- Impaired Model: "Alcoholics cannot change". Treatment is viewed as a waste of time. This model resulted in the creation of the "town drunk".
- Dry Moral Model: "Denouncing demon rum". Morals have to do with right or wrong, and moral models put blame for alcoholism on the individual's inability or unwillingness to do the "right thing". This model emphasizes that alcoholics need to learn to act rightly rather than wrongly. With the Dry Moral model, alcoholism is viewed as the natural consequence of the use of alcohol by someone without sufficient moral strength to resist its temptation. The assumption is that moral people simply choose to leave it alone entirely, or to drink it so sparingly that it has no effect on them.
- Wet Moral Model: "Social Drinking". Instead of preaching avoidance of alcohol, the Wet Moral Model advocates controlled drinking. In this model, an alcoholic is someone who doesn't drink within the rules set down by society. This is the source of the legendary alcoholic emphasis on "will power". Factors such as physiological addiction, alcohol toxicity, progressive loss of control, abnormal tolerance and liver or brain disease are routinely ignored.
- The Old Medical Model: "A Patchwork Quilt". Alcoholism is seen as a severely debilitating condition which is potentially fatal and contributes to myriad complications. As one contracted alcoholism through excessive use of alcohol, it was viewed as a self-inflicted illness. Thus, the act of drinking too much causes alcoholism, which in turn causes further drinking,

which produces more problems, which motivates still greater consumption; and so on.

- The New Medical Model: "Alcoholism as a real disease". This model emphasizes the process of identifying drinking practices and relating them to a disease process rather than to some other cause. Scientists are looking at an inheritable disease, one of a group of chronic diseases that throughout history has been mistaken for personality disorders. Any method through which the alcoholic chose to accomplish giving up drinking is perfectly acceptable.
- The Bio/Psycho/Social/Spiritual Model: This model sees alcoholism as:
 - A chronic disease, which means that it is long lasting. Once established, it is not going to disappear.
 - It is also a progressive disease, which means that instead of getting better as time passes, it seems to get worse.
 - The three common primary symptoms of alcoholism are tolerance, physical dependence and organ changes.
 - This model views alcoholism as a disease that effects all aspects of an individual's life. Not only does alcoholism effect the physical functioning of the body, it also effects the psychological (how one views and perceives the world around them), the social (how one interacts with others in society) and the spiritual (how one feels connected) aspects of life.
 - The recovery plan addresses those aspects effected in a holistic manner (Source Unknown).

What are some risks for prolonged alcohol abuse?

About 10 percent of Americans - in excess of 25 million people - display alcohol dependence or abuse, a pattern of continuous or on-and-off drinking that may lead to addiction and almost always causes severe social, physical, and other problems. Males exceed females in this category by a ratio of 6 to 1, although the problem is on the rise among women and among teenagers of both genders. Prolonged overuse of alcohol can result in life-threatening liver damage, reduced cognitive abilities, vitamin deficiencies that can lead to severe and irreversible memory loss, and a host of other physical ailments. Alcohol dependence or abuse, commonly referred to

as alcoholism, has been implicated in half of all the traffic fatalities, homicides and suicides that happen each year. Alcoholism also figures prominently in rape and child abuse, as well as in elevated rates of hospitalization and absenteeism from work. It is estimated that 43 percent of U.S. adults have an alcoholic in their families. Children growing up in families in which one or both parents abuse alcohol are at an increased risk for developing a host of mental disorders, including substance abuse disorders (Bernstein and Nash, 1999, p. 467).

How prevalent is the problem of alcohol abuse in Canada?

Alcohol consumption in Canada has been declining in the past decade. According to the Canadian Centre on Substance Abuse, about 72 percent of urban Canadian adults report having used alcohol at some time; just over nine percent of those who drink report having problems related to alcohol and just under half a million Canadians are classified as alcoholics. The highest proportions of people reporting problems with alcohol are in the 15 to 24 year old range (Lefton et al., 2000, p. 139).

Why do people smoke?

There are genetic, psychosocial and cognitive reasons:

- Genetic: Some people may be genetically predisposed. Individual differences in the reaction to nicotine are taken as evidence that our genes play a role in determining which people will become smokers. Also, nicotine enhances the availability of certain neurotransmitter substances, such as dopamine. These neurotransmitters influence memory, attention, performance, pleasure, tension, anxiety, appetite and pain, and can be pleasurable for some.
- Psychosocial factors also play a role in establishing smoking behaviour, especially among young people. Adolescents may be more likely to smoke if their parents or other role models smoke, or if they experience peer pressure to do so, or if their brothers or sisters do.
- The cognitive factors include believing that smoking allows them to stay alert and handle stress, even though there is no clear evidence in support of those ideas (Baron et al., 1998, p. 549)

Quips and Quotes

How can we understand human relations and social influence? By studying the way people feel and the way people think- in short, by studying the heart and the mind.

Elliott Aronson et al.

4.7 Action Research in Social Psychology

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

Lesson Objectives

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

Suggested Instructional Strategies

- Survey
- Naturalistic Observation
- Interview
- Experiments
- Case Study
- Topical

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

Resources

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

Lesson 4.7: Research Methods and Suggested Topics

Type of Research	Suggested Research Topics
Survey Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How would you define a family? What are the characteristics of healthy and strong families? Is any family better than no family at all? What are the greatest challenges and issues facing families today? • What rights do children have? Should parental rights supercede children's rights? • What do you consider to be the most important qualities in a friend? Spouse? Parent? Leader? • What is the most important reason why we establish friendships? • What does intimacy mean to you? • Why are we attracted to people? • What attracts you to members of the opposite gender? • How would you define beauty? • What are the characteristics of beautiful males/females? • What does it mean to love someone? • How is liking someone different from loving someone? • What makes a good marriage? • Do you need to love someone to have a successful marriage? • Is honesty always the best policy? • In what situations is lying acceptable? • Are the Olympic games worth the financial investment? • Should we hold people legally responsible for their actions even though they were "just following orders"? • Do we have the right to pursue political, military and terrorist leaders for their actions regardless of the country of their location? • How would you define "normal" behaviour? • Eating patterns and habits • Attitudes towards various aspects of criminal behaviour and the justice system • Beliefs in smoking
Naturalistic Observation In naturalistic research, the observer does not intervene at all. For all intents and purposes, the researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Television moms and dads: Compare the various images of parents on television. How have these images changed over the past five decades? • What are some examples of confirming behaviours in friendships? • How is love portrayed in the media? • Examples of collective behaviours (panic, fad, fashion, craze, propaganda, public opinion, social movement, revolution)

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Similarities and differences in crowd behaviours at sporting events, social events and political events. • Gang behaviours • Influences on social behaviour (social norms, imitation, social facilitation, social loafing, reciprocity, commitment, attractiveness, authority) • Gender differences in social interactions • Competition/cooperation and gender differences • Playground behaviours of children • Laughter in social situations • Gender differences in humour and laughter • Aggression in social behaviours
Topical A topical research study involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information. Typically, the topical research study will involve both paper-based as well as web-based resources. Additional information may be gained through the other research methods and strategies.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Divorce and its effects on family members • The relationship between beauty and • Influence of the cultural industries on body image • Machiavellian political philosophy • Social policies of the federal and provincial political parties • UNESCO • Greenpeace • Social justice • Biker gangs • Sexism and sports • Relative importance of humour in relationships • Heroes • The United Nations • Wars of the 20th century • Aggression • International terrorism • Sexual harassment • Learned helplessness • Social justice • Powerful historical figures • The Nuremberg Trials • Learned helplessness • Phobias • Gender differences in eating disorders • Neurotransmitters • Young Criminal's Justice Act • Gambling addiction • Myths of alcoholism
Case Study A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study is based on interviews with the subject regarding his or her background, present thinking or actions; it may also utilize interviews of others who know the individual. Additional case-study material may be obtained through observation, experiments and standardized tests, such as personality inventories and intelligence tests.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Olympic athletes • Politician • Leaders • Powerful historical leaders • War criminals

<p>Interview</p> <p>The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interview a senior citizen: What have you learned in life? What is most important lesson in life? How have social behaviours changed since you were a teenager? What social situations do you remember where there were clear expectations of certain kinds of behaviour? • Interview your grandparents: Family history • Interview your parents: what are the greatest challenges and issues facing families today? What rules do you have for different types of relationships? What makes a good marriage? Do you need to love someone to have a successful marriage? • Leadership skills and attributes • What are the stressors in your life? What resiliency skills have you developed?
<p>Experimental research</p> <p>Experimental researchers take care to create an environment in which they can make causal statements. They manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions, and seek to control other influences that could affect their research.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Viral infections

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Curriculum Support Materials

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Believe It Or Not!

_____ was born in another country.

_____ has more than 5 siblings.

To become a doctor is the career goal of _____.

_____ and _____ are related.

_____ can play a musical instrument other than a guitar, piano or drums.

_____ has relatives that live on another continent.

_____ has more than 5 body piercings.

_____ and _____ have represented Saskatchewan at a national event.

_____, _____ and _____ still live in the same house in which they were born.

_____ has lived in more than 2 provinces.

_____ has a relative older than 90 years of age.

_____ can roll his/her tongue.

_____ has dual citizenship, Canada and _____.

When _____ graduates, his/her plan is to travel to _____.

_____ went to school with one of _____'s parents.

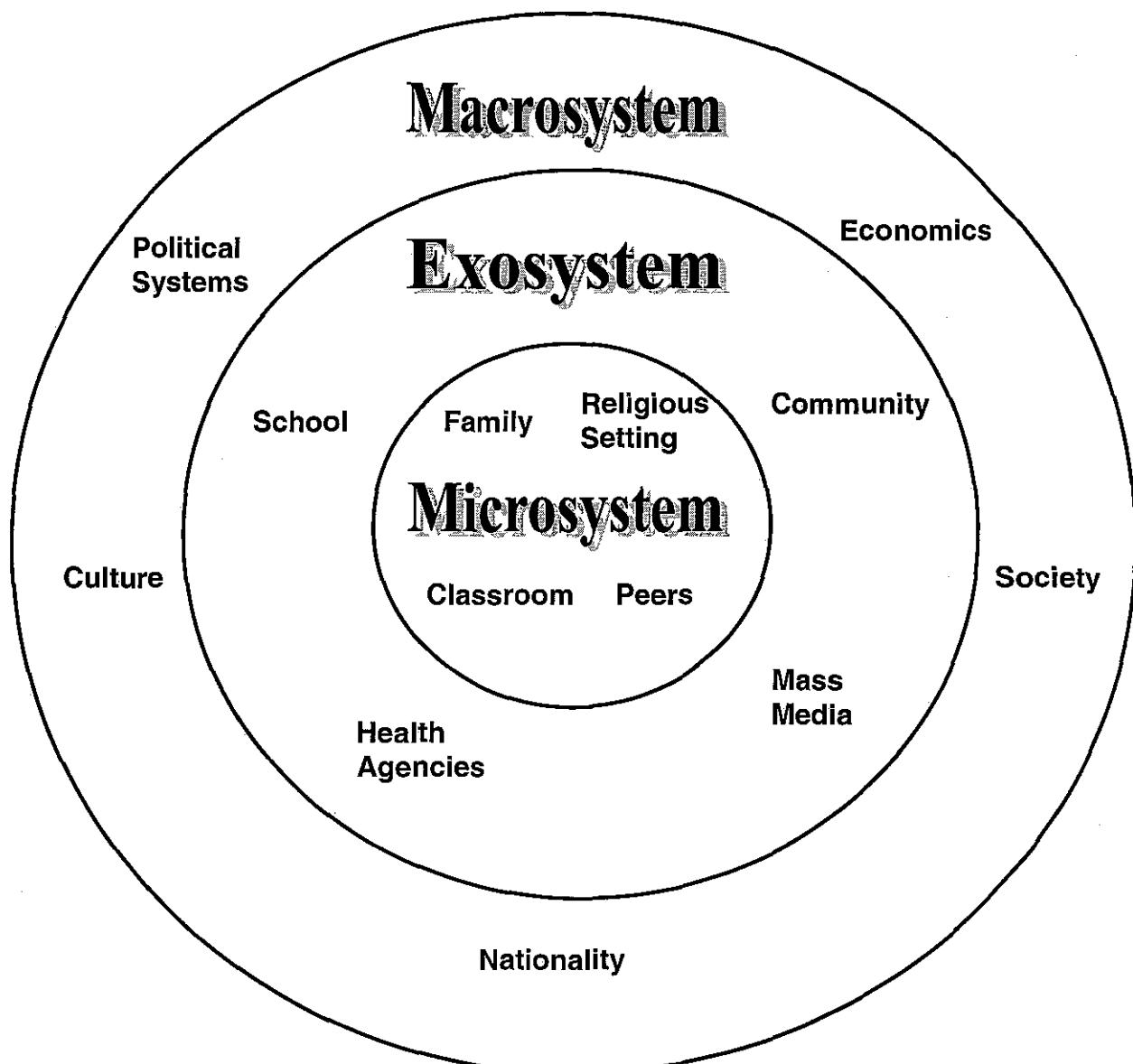
_____ is an aunt or an uncle.

_____ has twins in his/her family.

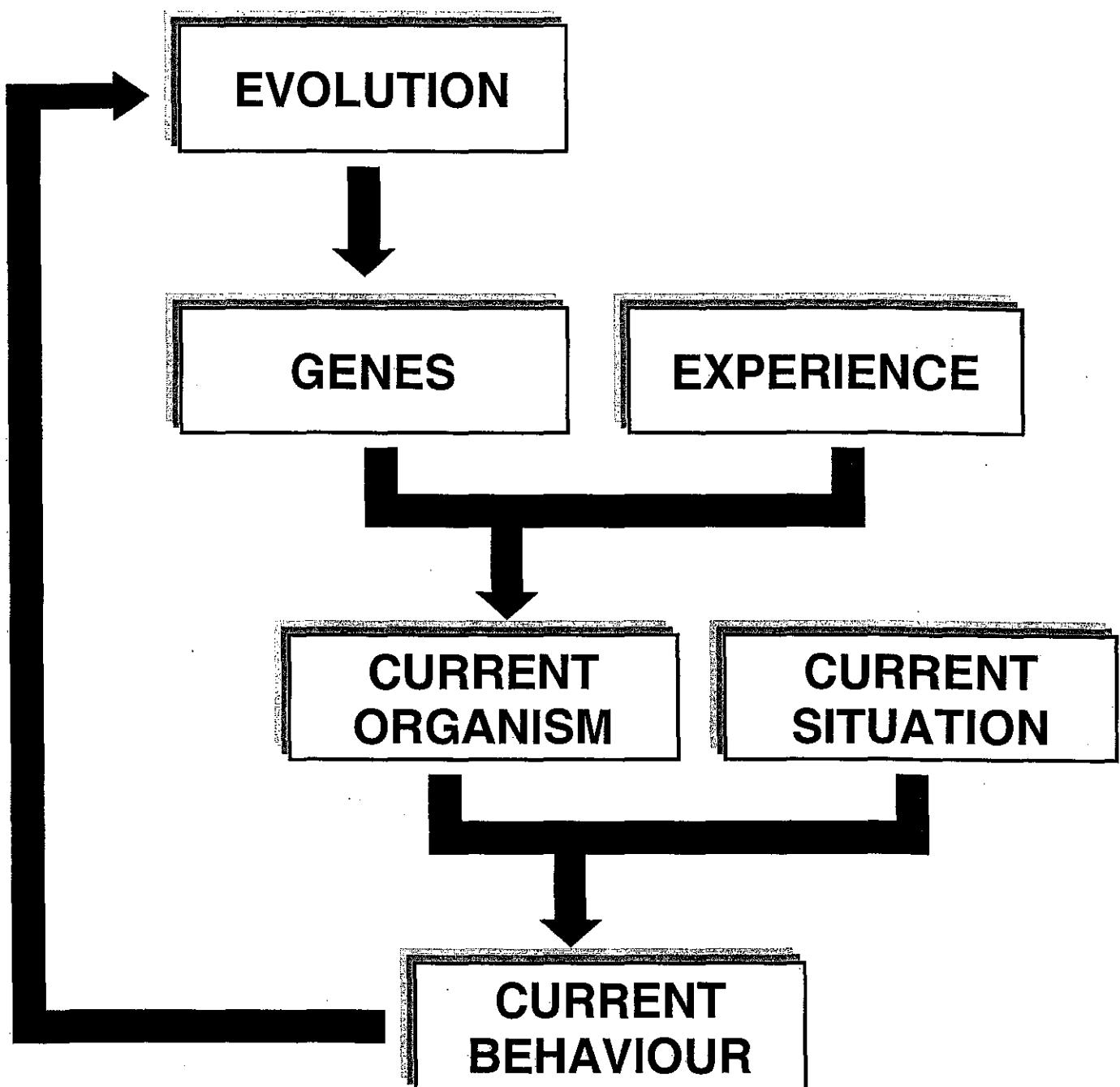
_____ thinks Chelsea is the greatest soccer team in the world!

The Ecological Model of Human Behaviour

Urie Bronfenbrenner (1979)



Nature/Nurture and Human Development



Source: Pinel, J.P. 2000. Biopsychology (4th Edition). Boston MA: Allyn and Bacon.

Theoretical Perspectives on Human Development

Psychodynamic Perspective: Focusing on the inner person.

Advocates of the psychodynamic perspective believe that behaviour is motivated by inner forces, memories and conflicts that are generally beyond people's awareness and control.

- **Freud's psychoanalytic theory** suggests that unconscious forces act to determine personality and behaviour. To Freud, the unconscious is a part of the personality about which a person is unaware. It contains infantile wishes, desires, demands and needs that are hidden, because of their disturbing nature, from conscious awareness. Freud suggested that the unconscious is responsible for a good part of our everyday behaviour.
- **Erikson's psychosocial theory** suggests that developmental change occurs throughout our lives in eight distinct stages. The stages emerge in a fixed pattern and are similar for all people. Erikson argues that each stage presents a crisis or conflict that the individual must resolve. Although no crisis is ever fully resolved, making life increasingly complicated, the individual must at least address the crisis of each stage sufficiently to deal with demands made during the next stage of development.

The Cognitive Perspective: Examining the roots of understanding.

The cognitive perspective focuses on the processes that allow people to know, understand, and think about the world. The cognitive perspective emphasizes how people internally represent and think about the world. By using this perspective, developmental psychologists hope to understand how children and adults process information, and how their ways of thinking and understanding affect their behaviour.

- No single person has had a greater impact on the study of cognitive development than **Jean Piaget** who proposed that all people pass in a fixed sequence through a series of universal stages of cognitive development. In each stage, he suggested that not only did the quantity of information increase, but so did the quality of knowledge and understanding. Piaget suggests that the growth in children's understanding of the world can be explained by two basic principles. **Assimilation** is the process in which people understand an experience in terms of their current state of cognitive development and ways of thinking. In contrast, **accommodation** refers to changes in existing ways of thinking in response to encounter with new stimuli or events.
- Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky's **sociocultural theory** proposes that a full understanding of development is impossible without taking into account the culture in which children develop. Sociocultural theory proposes that children's understanding of the world is acquired through their problem-solving interactions with adults and other children. As children play and cooperate with others, they learn what is important in their society, and at the same time, advance cognitively in their understanding of the world.

The Behavioural Perspective: Considering the outer person.

The behavioural perspective suggests that the keys to understanding development are observable behaviour and outside stimuli in the environment. If we know the stimuli we can predict the behaviour. Behavioural theories reject the notion that individuals universally pass through a series of stages. Instead, people are assumed to be affected by the environmental stimuli to which they happen to be exposed. Developmental patterns, then, are personal, reflecting a particular set of environmental stimuli, and development is the result of continuing exposure to specific factors in the environment.

- John B. Watson and B.F. Skinner's theories of **classical and operant conditioning** hold that all behaviour is learned as a response to external stimuli. Classical conditioning occurs when an organism learns to respond in a particular way to a neutral stimulus that normally does not evoke that type of response. For example, Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov found that if a dog is repeatedly exposed to the pairing of two stimuli, such as the sound of a bell and the presentation of meat, it may learn to react to the sound of the bell alone in the same way it reacts to the presentation of meat. In operant conditioning, reinforcement is the process by which a stimulus is provided that increases the probability that a preceding behaviour will be repeated. In addition, punishment will decrease the probability that the preceding behaviour will occur in the future.
- According to **social-cognitive learning theorist** Albert Bandura, when we see the behaviour of a model being rewarded, we are likely to imitate that behaviour. Behaviour is learned through observation and imitation, not conditioning through reinforcement or punishment.

The Humanistic Perspective: Concentrating on the unique qualities of human beings.

The humanistic perspective contends that people have a natural tendency to make decisions about their lives and control their behaviour. The humanistic perspective emphasizes free will, the ability of humans to make choices and come to decisions about their lives.

- **Carl Rogers** suggested that all people have a need for positive regard that results from an underlying wish to be loved and respected. Because it is other people who provide this positive regard, we become dependent on them. Consequently, our view of ourselves and our self-worth is a reflection of how we think others view us.
- **Abraham Maslow** suggests that self-actualization is a primary goal in life. Self-actualization is a state of self-fulfillment in which people achieve their highest potential in their own unique way.

The Sociocultural Perspective: Emphasizing the systems of support.

The Ecological model, the major proponent of which is Urie Bronfenbrenner, seeks to explain individual knowledge, development, and competencies in terms of the guidance, support, and structure provided by society and to explain social change over time in terms of the cumulative effect of individual choices.

- According to **Urie Bronfenbrenner**, each person is significantly affected by interactions among a number of overlapping ecosystems. At the center of the model is the individual. Microsystems are the systems that intimately and immediately shape human development. The primary **microsystems** for children include the family, peer group, classroom, neighbourhood, and sometimes a church, temple, or mosque as well. Surrounding the microsystems is the **exosystem**, which includes all the external networks, such as community structures and local educational, medical, employment, and communications systems, that influence the microsystems. And influencing all other systems is the **macrosystem**, which includes cultural values, political philosophies, economic patterns, and social conditions. Together, these systems are termed the social context of human development.

The Evolutionary Perspective: Focusing on biology as the determinant of development.

The Ethological Theory stresses that behaviour is strongly influenced by biology, is tied to evolution, and is characterized by critical or sensitive periods. Evolutionary approaches grow out of the groundbreaking work of Charles Darwin.

- Konrad Lorenz** discovered that newborn geese are genetically preprogrammed to become attached to the first moving object they see after birth. His work, which demonstrated the importance of biological determinants in influencing behaviour patterns, ultimately led developmentalists to consider the ways in which human behaviour might reflect inborn genetic patterns.
- The evolutionary perspective encompasses one of the fastest growing areas within the field of lifespan development, **behavioural genetics**. Behavioural genetics studies the effects of heredity and genetics on behaviour. As technology improves, and researchers continue to map the human genome, there is an increasing understanding of the role and function of the genetic codes and their influence on development.

The Scientific Method of Research

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

Step 1: Develop a research question

Step 2: Describe the hypothesis

Step 3: Select a research method (circle choice)

Observation

Experiment

Interview

Case Study

Survey

Step 4: Describe the process to be followed

Step 5: Gather the data

Step 6: Analyze the data

Step 7: Report the findings, account for reliability and validity

Step 8: State conclusions in relation to the hypothesis

A Comparison Chart of Research Methods

Research Methodology	Description of method	Strengths	Weaknesses
Experiments			
Topical			
Interview			
Observation			
Case Study			
Survey			

Permission to Conduct Research

Teacher Contact/Supervisor:

Research Study Location:

Contact Person/Supervisor:

Dates/Times:

Overview of research project:

Methods and Ethics: Confidentiality Informed Consent De-briefing
(Circle those aspects
of the research study
that have been discussed.)

Data Collection Method:
(How will the data be collected,
e.g. videotape, audio cassette,
jot notes, photographs?)

I, _____, in my position as _____ do hereby
Please print your name Position or Title

consent to allow _____ to conduct research on behalf of the course
Student Name _____

requirements for Psychology 20, a course offered at _____ School in
Saskatchewan.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Frequently Asked Questions: Interview

What is the interview method of research?

The interview method of research, typically, involves a face-to-face meeting in which a researcher (interviewer) asks an individual a series of questions.

What do I need to consider when doing interviews?

- Prepare your interview questions in advance, and share them with the participant(s).
- Tape record, or videotape record the interview.
- Do not be afraid to ask questions if they arise during the interview, even if you did not have them listed before the interview.
- After the interview, you will need to transcribe (copy) exactly what was said during the interview. This can be a very slow and time-consuming process, but it is critical that you copy exactly what was said.
- After you have copied out the interview, replay the interview again and compare it to your notes. Make any corrections necessary.
- Share the written copy of the interview with the participant to make sure that they agree with, and affirm, the contents of the interview.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting interviews?

- Completeness: Did you record the interview and transcribe the interview exactly as recorded?
- Accuracy: Did you miss anything? Did you record it in written form exactly as was said by the participant?
- Bias: Did you “add” to what you observed by presuming or assuming something that was not stated directly by the participant?
- Accuracy: Would someone else who had not interviewed the participant be able to get a clear, correct picture of what was discussed by reading your notes?
- Confidentiality: Did you ask permission for the interview, and is the participant aware of the purpose and intended audience of the interview?

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of interview questions prepared beforehand.

Frequently Asked Questions: Survey

What is the survey method of research?

Conducting research using a survey involves going out and asking questions about the phenomenon of interest.

What do I need to consider when doing surveys?

- Prepare your survey questions in advance, and share them with your teacher so that they can be checked for accuracy and correctness.
- If you are needing additional respondent information such as age, occupation or gender, be sure to include those questions on the survey.
- Who is your sample? Will you be getting the kind of information you need from the people you are questioning?
- Is your sample size large enough? What sample size is appropriate?
- Is your sample representative of the general population? Does it represent a balance between male and female? Do you need to sample a particular age group or will a general survey be alright?
- When will you be conducting your survey? How long will you be surveying? Will time lapse make a difference?
- How will the respondents answer? Will they record their responses on separate sheets of paper or will you ask them the questions and then record their responses?
- How will you present your findings? Will you convert the answers to a percentage? Will you be constructing a bar graph or a pie chart?
- If you are considering other factors such as age or gender, then you will need to go through the responses again after you have completed the survey, based on those criteria.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting surveys?

- Do the survey questions address the research question?
- Are the survey questions clear?
- Is the sample size of respondents large enough?
- Have I surveyed a representative sample?
- Apart from factors such as age, occupation and gender, are the respondents anonymous?
- Is time a factor? How long should I survey? If I surveyed over a longer time period would that affect the results?
- Are there other sources against which I could compare the survey results? For example, Taking The Pulse, or Reader's Digest Surveys?

What materials will I need?

- Survey questions, response forms
- Access to on-line resources.

Frequently Asked Questions: Case Study

What is the case study method of research?

A case study is an intensive study of one individual. Typically, the case study may involve interviews, observation, experiments and tests.

What do I need to consider when doing case studies?

- Prepare your research questions in advance. What kinds of information do you want to know?
- Consider many different forms of information sources: on-line websites, paper-based sources such as encyclopedias, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc.
- If the case study is of a person who can be interviewed, review the following:
 - Prepare your interview questions in advance, and share them with the participant(s).
 - Tape record, or videotape the interview.
 - Do not be afraid to ask questions if they arise during the interview, even if you did not have them listed before the interview.
 - After the interview, you will need to transcribe (copy) exactly what was said during the interview. This can be a very slow, and timing consuming process, but it is critical that you copy exactly what was said.
 - After you have copied out the interview, replay the interview again and compare it to your notes. Make any corrections necessary.
 - Share the written copy of the interview with the participants to make sure that they agree with, and affirm the contents of the interview.
- Case studies may also include observational research, experiments and tests. Consider what other types of research are appropriate.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting case studies?

- Completeness of information recorded is critical to gain a complete understanding of the accuracy of the case study. Have I checked every conceivable resource for information?
- Because of the variety of information sources, be sure that you have reviewed all of the issues or concerns for each of the research types.
- Guard against bias. Did I "add" to what I observed by presuming or assuming something that was not written about, spoken by or observed of the person?
- Would someone else who had not studied the participant be able to get a clear, correct picture of what was discussed by reading your report?
- Ensure confidentiality. Be sure you have asked the participants for their permission to be studied, and that they are aware of the purpose and intended audience of the case study report.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of interview questions prepared beforehand
- Access to on-line resources.

Frequently Asked Questions: Naturalistic Observation

What is the naturalistic observational method of research?

In naturalistic observational research the observer does not intervene at all. The researcher is invisible and works hard not to interrupt the natural dynamics of the situation being investigated.

What do I need to consider when doing observational research?

- Try to be "invisible", do not get involved in the dynamics of the situation.
- Use all of your senses, not just your sense of vision. Record the sounds, smells and tastes (if applicable).
- Record your impressions and feelings. How do you feel while observing? Were you frightened, surprised, anxious, amused, excited? Relate what you were feeling to what you were observing.
- Record the context of the situation: place, time, participants, numbers of participants, gender of participants, etc.
- Record what you were thinking during the observation. Did the situation remind you of something similar? Had you experienced something similar. What do you think the participants were thinking about while you were observing?
- Record all of your information in a journal. Use shorthand or abbreviations if necessary.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting observational research?

- Completeness of information recorded is critical to gain a complete understanding of the dynamics of the situation.
- Accuracy of the information recorded is crucial. Did you miss anything? Did you record it exactly as you observed it?
- Avoid bias. Did I "add" to what I observed by presuming or assuming something that did not exist?
- Would someone else who had not observed the same thing be able to get a clear, correct picture of what you observed by reading your notes?
- Respect confidentiality. Be sure not to name people or places in your presentation of the information. You have not asked participants for their permission to conduct research, and so therefore they have the right to remain anonymous. Refer to the general situation; for example, a school playground, an urban mall, a farm, a family gathering, etc.
- Videotaping, audiotaping or taking photographs of the situation is infringing on the participant's rights to privacy. Use only your written notes.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials

Frequently Asked Questions: Experiments

What is the experimental method of research?

Experimental researchers manipulate variables, randomly assign participants to various conditions and seek to control other influences.

What do I need to consider when doing experiments?

- Experimental research in psychology involves defining a research problem, describing a hypothesis, describing the process to be followed, gathering data, analyzing the data, reporting the findings, and stating conclusions in relation to the hypothesis.
- Prepare your experiment in advance. Practise your procedure. Be sure that you have all of the materials necessary to conduct the experiment.
- Seek permission to conduct research. Does the participant(s) know that you are conducting an experiment? Do you have his/her written permission?
- Is the experiment safe? Will the participants suffer any physical, mental or emotional anguish? If so, do not perform the experiment.
- Discuss the experiment with your teacher. Your teacher will be able to guide and assist you to ensure that the experimental procedure is correct, complete and valid.
- Audiotape or videotape the experiment. This will help in data analysis, as well as provide some additional information that may be of value when interpreting the data.

What are the issues, or concerns in conducting experiments?

- Ethics of the experiment: Is the experiment appropriate? Is the experiment safe?
- Bias: Did I “add” to the test results by presuming or assuming something that was not written about, spoken by or observed during the experiment?
- Confidentiality: Be sure you have asked participants for their permission to be studied, and that they are aware of the purpose and intended audience of the results of the experiment.

What materials will I need?

- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of materials needed, prepared beforehand
- Written permission forms.

Frequently Asked Questions: Topical

What is the topical method of research?

A topical research project involves the acquisition, synthesis, organization and presentation of information.

What do I need to consider when doing topical research?

- Prepare your research questions in advance: What kinds of information do you want to know?
- Consider many different forms of information sources: on-line websites, paper-based sources such as encyclopedias, journals, magazines, newspapers, etc.
- If the topical research involves a person who can be interviewed, review the following:
 - Prepare your interview questions in advance, and share them with the participant(s).
 - Tape record or videotape record the interview.
 - Do not be afraid to ask questions if they arise during the interview, even if you did not have them listed before the interview.
 - After the interview, you will need to transcribe (copy) exactly what was said during the interview. This can be a very slow, and timing consuming process, but it is critical that you copy exactly what was said.
 - After you have copied out the interview, replay the interview again and compare it to your notes. Make any corrections necessary.
 - Share the written copy of the interview with the participant to make sure that he/she agrees with, and affirms the contents of the interview.
- Topical research studies may also include observational research, experiments and tests. Consider what other types of research are appropriate.

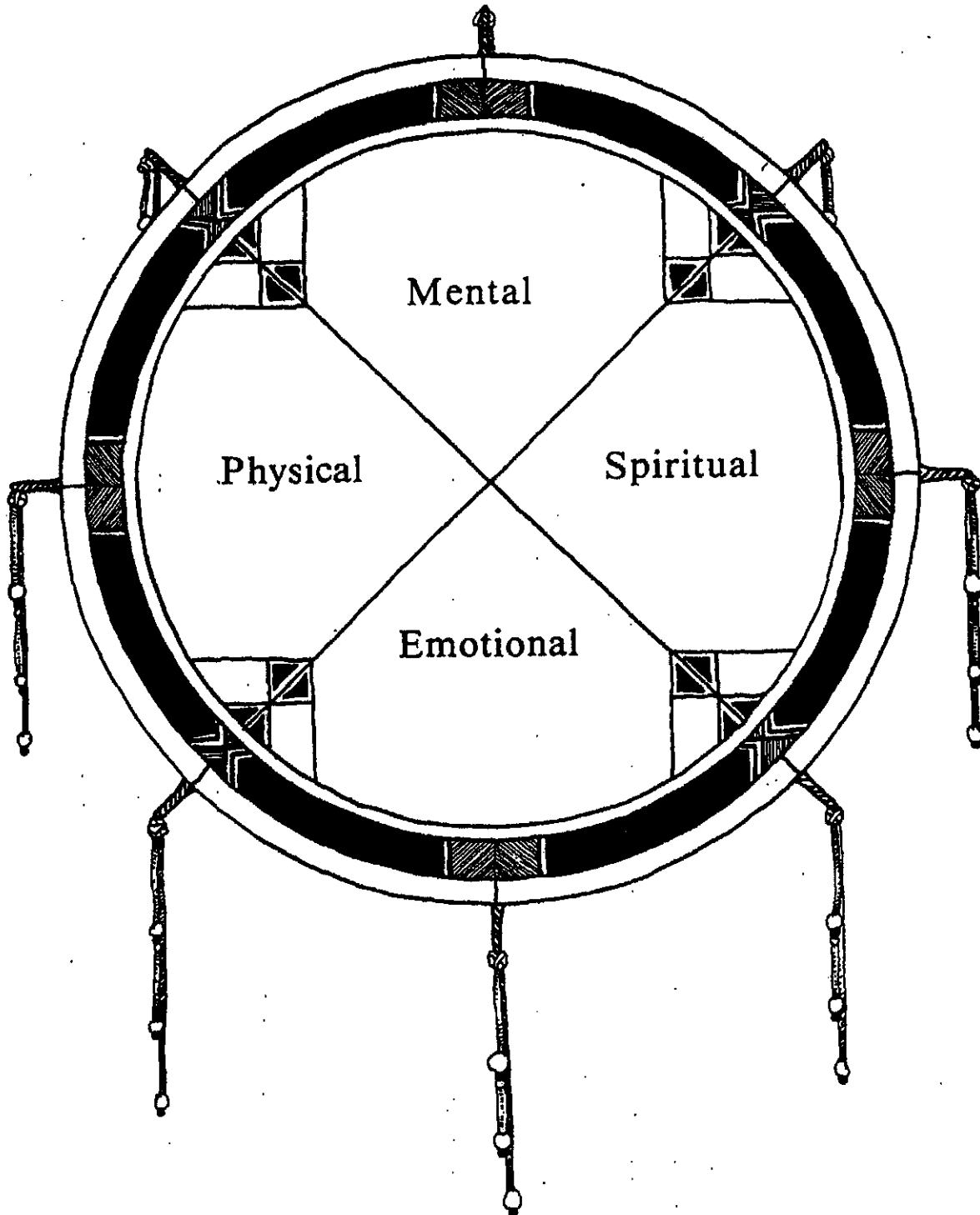
What are the issues, or concerns in conducting topical research studies?

- Completeness of information recorded is critical to gain a complete understanding of the topic. Have I checked every conceivable resource for information?
- Because of the variety of information sources, be sure that you have reviewed all of the issues or concerns for each of the research types.
- Avoid bias. Did I "add" to what I observed by presuming or assuming something that was not written about, spoken by or observed during the research?
- Would someone else who had not researched the topic be able to get a clear, correct picture of what the topic was all about by reading your report?
- Ensure confidentiality. If you have interviewed or studied individuals connected with the topic, be sure you have asked for their permission to be studied. Ensure that they are aware of the purpose and intended audience of your study.

What materials will I need?

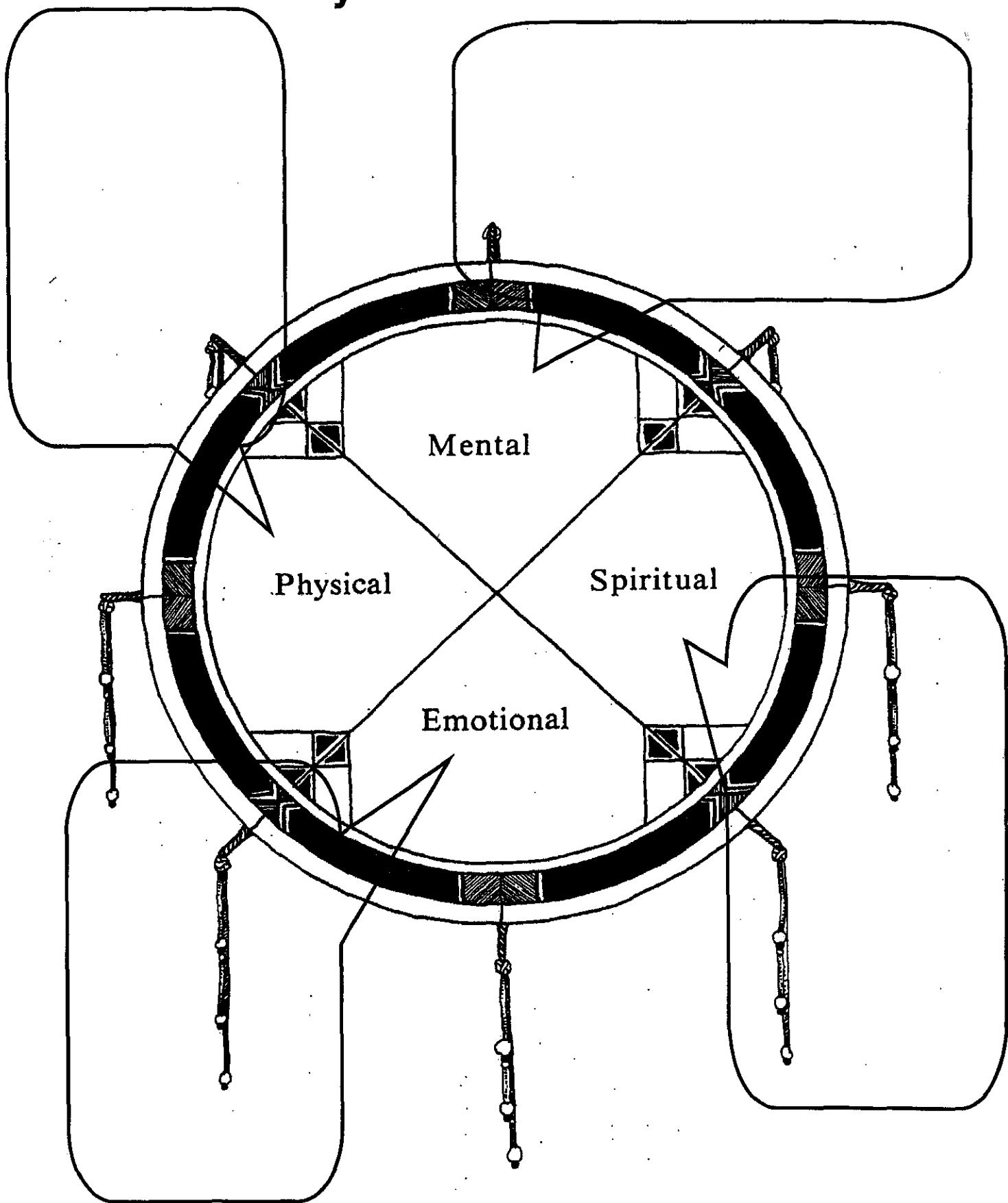
- Journal, note paper, writing materials
- Tape recorder, videotape recorder
- List of interview questions prepared beforehand
- Access to on-line resources.

The Medicine Wheel

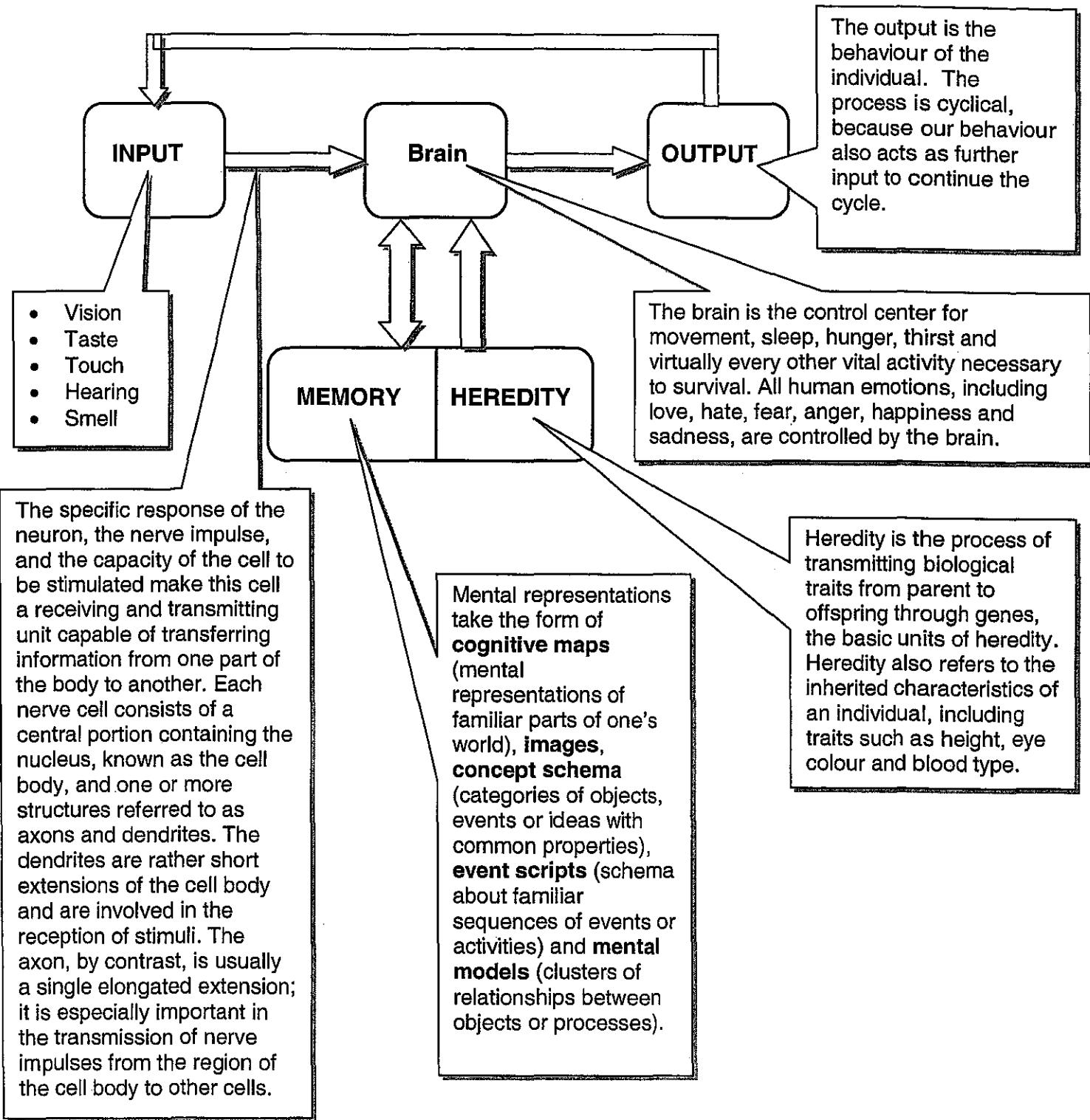


Source: Bopp, J., Bopp, M., Brown, L., & Lane, P. (1985). *The sacred tree*. Lethbridge AB: Four Worlds International Institute for Human and Community Development.

My Medicine Wheel



How do we receive, process and act upon our experiences?



What Motivates You?

Cognitive Motives

Social Motives

Who Am I?



Emotional Motives

Motivations

Power	Needing	Altruism
Status	Material Goods	Inclusion
Prestige	Dominance	Rescue
Control	Fear	Liking
Pleasure	Achievement	Sympathy
Money	Self-respect	Order
Morality/Ethics	Social Recognition	
Friendship	Mastery	
Happiness	Wisdom	
Achievement	Self-actualization	
Social Justice	Self-esteem	
Obligation	Greed	
Spirituality	Thrill-seeking	
Belonging	Satisfaction	
Self-interest	Creativity	
Manipulation	Empathy	

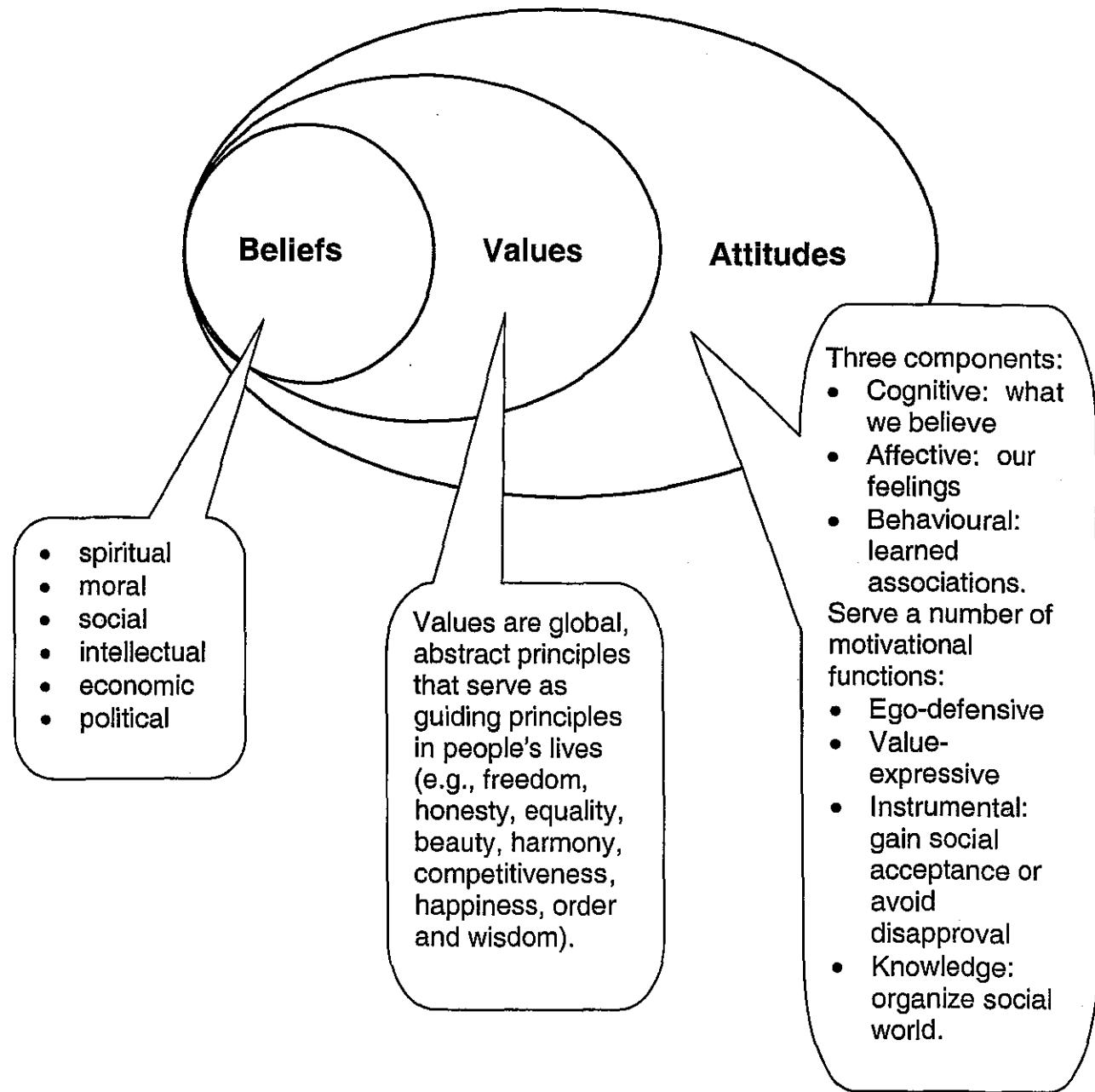
What makes up our attitudes?

Behavioural Component

Affective Component

Cognitive Component

Beliefs, Values and Attitudes



Attitudes

_____	Compassion	_____	Justice	_____	Equity
_____	Cooperation	_____	Fairness	_____	Inclusion
_____	Obligation	_____	Patience	_____	Charity
_____	Meekness	_____	Optimism	_____	Altruism
_____	Perseverance	_____	Commitment	_____	Ethics
_____	Self-discipline	_____	Self-respect	_____	Tenacity
_____	Happiness	_____	Wisdom	_____	Creativity
_____	Achievement	_____	Self-actualization	_____	Spirituality
_____	Social Justice	_____	Belonging	_____	Empathy

Human Values

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| _____ a comfortable life | _____ inner harmony |
| _____ an exciting life | _____ mature love |
| _____ a sense of accomplishment | _____ national security |
| _____ a world of peace | _____ pleasure |
| _____ a world of beauty | _____ salvation |
| _____ equality | _____ self-respect |
| _____ family security | _____ social recognition |
| _____ freedom | _____ true friendship |
| _____ happiness | _____ wisdom |

Applying Moral Tests

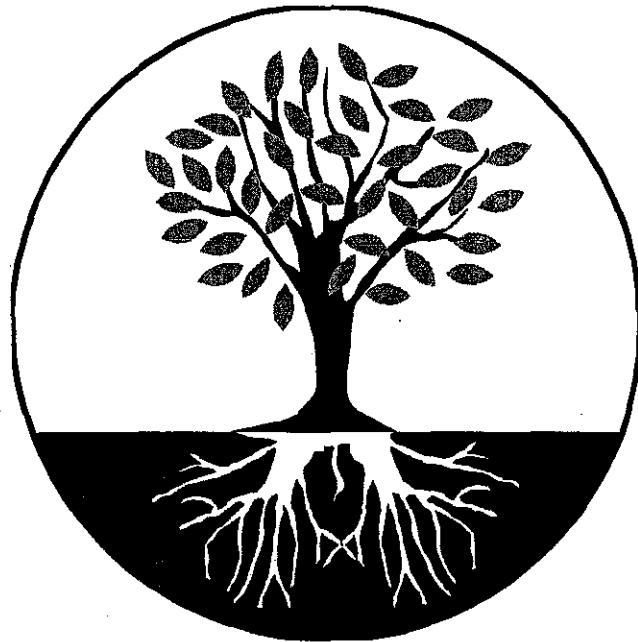
The Situation or Issue	The New Cases Test	The Role Exchange Test	The Universal Consequences Test
Should you be angry over receiving a ticket for jaywalking near your home?	<p>What if you were caught jaywalking on a busy freeway in a large city?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anyone who jaywalks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

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Stage	What is right?	Issue:
Preconventional The individual reasons in terms of his or her own welfare. Emphasis is placed on getting rewards and avoiding punishments; a self-centred level.	1. The most important value is obedience to authority, so as to avoid punishment while still advancing self-interest. 2. Look out for number one. The reason to be nice to other people is so that they will be nice to you.	
Conventional The individual considers social standards and laws to be the primary arbiters of moral values. Emphasis is placed on social rules; a community-centred level.	3. Proper behaviour is that which pleases other people. 4. A dutiful citizen and obeying the laws set down by society are key goals.	
Postconventional The individual follows moral principles that may supersede the standards of society or the wishes of the individual. Emphasis is placed on moral principles; a level centered on ideals.	5. Obey the rules of society because they exist for the benefit of all and are established by mutual agreement. 6. Individually determined, universal ethical values (such as "Life is sacred") apply to determine right and wrong.	

The Tree of Self-understanding

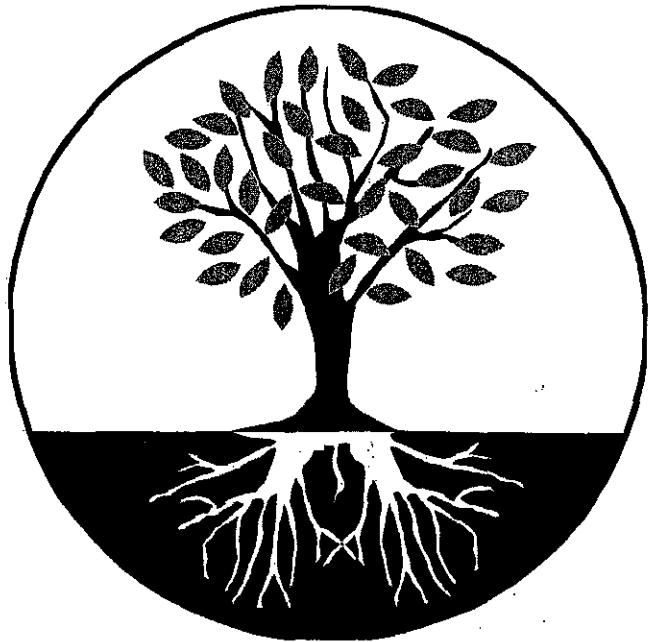
The tree of self-defeat



Fear

Resentment

The tree of self-realization



Creativity

Optimism

Kindness

Psychology Squares! Game #1

Points	Definitions	Interesting Facts	Human Brain	Heredity/Genetics	Human Senses
100	Attitude is a state of readiness, based on past experiences that guides, biases or otherwise influences our behaviour.	While women use both ears equally, men favour the right ear .	The human brain has three major structural components: the cerebrum , the cerebellum and the brainstem .	Humans have 23 pairs of chromosomes.	Aristotle classified five senses: hearing, sight, smell, taste and touch.
200	Motivation is the internal state of an organism that drives it to behave in a certain way.	The construction of a human requires 30 000 genes .	The cerebrum is responsible for intelligence and reasoning.	The father determines the gender of the child.	The tympanic membrane (eardrum) separates the external ear from the middle ear.
300	Social cognition is the thought process of making sense of events, people, oneself and the world in general through analyzing and interpreting them.	According to Freudian psychoanalysis, the mind is comprised of the id , the ego and the superego .	The cerebellum helps to maintain balance and posture.	Females have two X chromosomes, and males have one X and one Y chromosome.	The amount of light entering the eye is controlled by the pupil .
400	Reflex is an involuntary response to a stimulus by the animal organism.	Educators are recognizing that women students work better.	The medulla is involved in maintaining involuntary functions such as respiration.	If the DNA in a single cell could be unraveled, it would form a single thread almost 2 metres long .	The tongue is covered with approximately 10 000 taste buds .
500	Genetic engineering is the alteration of an organism's genetic instructions through the insertion of additional genes.	Gardner proposes that humans have 7 different types of intelligence .	The forebrain is the largest and most complex of the three major sections of the brain.	When a sperm with an X chromosome unites with an egg, the result is a child with two X chromosomes, a female .	Touch is the least specialized of the senses, but acuteness can be sharpened by use.

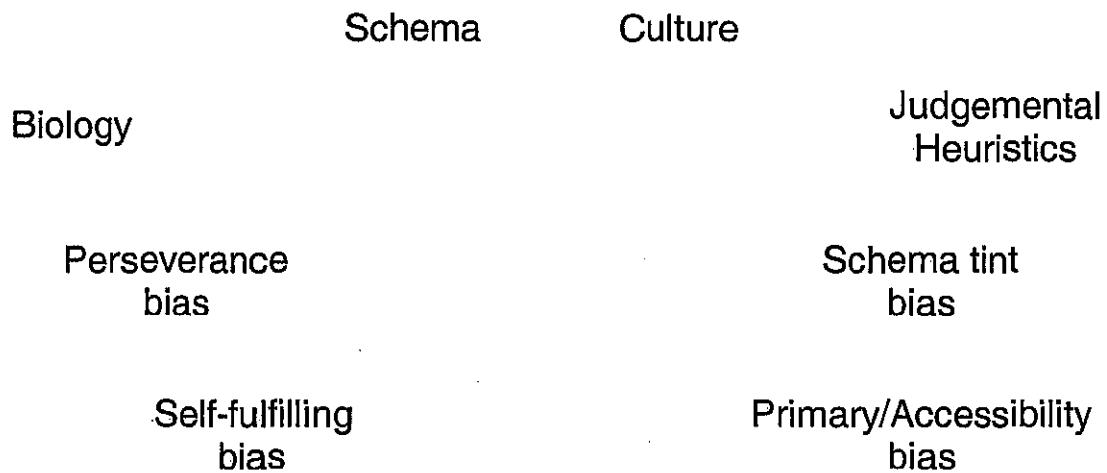
Psychology Squares! Game #2

Points	E.S.P.	Nervous System	Human Brain	Endocrine System	Emotions
100	E.S.P. includes telepathy, clairvoyance, precognition and psychokinesis.	The conducting elements of the nervous system are cells called neurons .	The hypothalamus plays a crucial role in regulating the body's internal environment by maintaining body temperature and blood-sugar levels.	The endocrine system is a group of specialized organs and body tissues that produce, store and secrete chemicals known as hormones .	All emotional responses contain three components: behavioural, autonomic and hormonal .
200	Telepathy is the transfer of thought from one person to another.	Each nerve cell consists of a central portion containing the nucleus, and one or more structures referred to as axons and dendrites .	The limbic system is an interconnected group of structures involved in emotions, memory, social behaviour and brain disorders such as epilepsy.	The hypothalamus is involved in controlling eating and hunger.	Other people's emotional expressions may serve as a guide about what to do or what not to do, a phenomenon known as social referencing .
300	Clairvoyance is the ability to recognize objects or events that are not present to normal sensory receptors.	The dendrites are rather short extensions of the cell body and are involved in the reception of stimuli.	The corpus callosum is a thick band of 200 million nerve fibers that provide cross-hemisphere connections.	The pituitary gland is the body's master gland.	Anger is a secondary emotion, which functions to protect the self and others.
400	Precognition is unexplained knowledge about future events.	The spinal cord receives signals from the sensory organs, and relays these signals to the brain.	The hippocampus and thalamus play a role in the formation of memories .	The pancreas produces hormones such as insulin that regulate metabolism.	The frontal cortex plays an important role in emotional behaviour .
500	Psychokinesis is the ability to move objects by using one's mental powers.	The axon is especially important in the transmission of nerve impulses.	The cortex is the exterior covering of the brain.	The thyroid gland produces thyroxin, which regulates and controls growth.	Hormones secreted by the adrenal glands increase heart rate and blood flow to the muscles.

Psychology Squares! Game #3

Points	Attitudes	Psychologists	Interesting Facts	Personality	Theories
100	Attitudes are formed early in life through learning processes .	Ivan Pavlov is noted for his pioneer work in stimulus/response using dogs .	Storytellers are the "psychologists" in Aboriginal cultures.	Sigmund Freud proposed that people are partly controlled by the unconscious portion of the personality.	Psychoanalytic theories focus on intrinsic drives and motives as the foundation for behaviour.
200	Cognitively-based attitudes are based primarily around people's beliefs and the rewards and punishments they provide.	Albert Bandura proposed the theory of social learning as a key theory in behaviour.	Identical twins develop from a single fertilized egg and share the same genes.	A social learning approach views personality as a set of behaviours that people acquire from learning.	Cognitive theory focuses on processes such as memory, thought and reasoning.
300	Affectively-based attitudes are based more on people's feelings and values.	Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist is known for his pioneering work on the development of intelligence in children.	The soul is often referred to as the spiritual part of the human being, distinct from the physical.	The trait approach to personality assumes that personality remains relatively stable and is; therefore, predictable over time.	The ecological model proposes that humans are influenced by three levels: micro-, exo- and macro.
400	Behaviourally-based attitudes are based more on self-perception, performance or activity.	B.F. Skinner is the most famous psychologist associated with the behaviourist theory in psychology.	The fifteen poles of the Plains Indian Tipi represent the basic values in an Aboriginal society.	The humanistic approach maintains that the primary human motivator is an innate drive toward personal growth .	The ethological perspective focuses on the biological processes that underlie behaviour.
500	Cognitive dissonance is a state of psychological tension, the uncomfortable feeling people get when they become aware of inconsistencies in their thoughts.	Karl Jung suggested the concept of archetypes such as hero and villain in his theory of human behaviour.	The human brain can recognize five million colours.	Abraham Maslow proposes that self-actualization is the key process in personality development.	The humanistic perspective emphasizes free will, the ability of humans to make choices and come to decisions about their lives.

Social Cognition: Answering the “What” Question



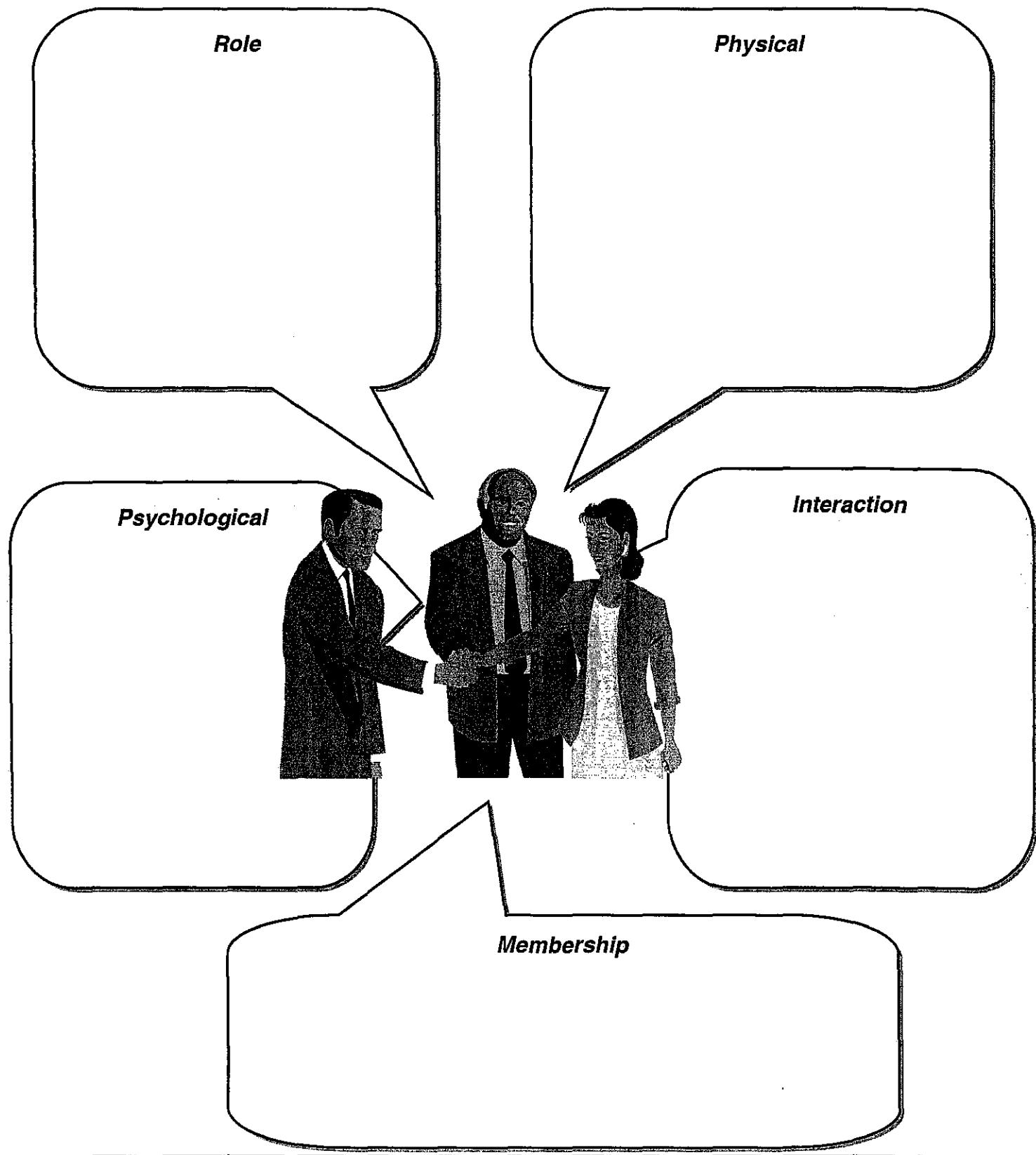
Judgements/Decisions



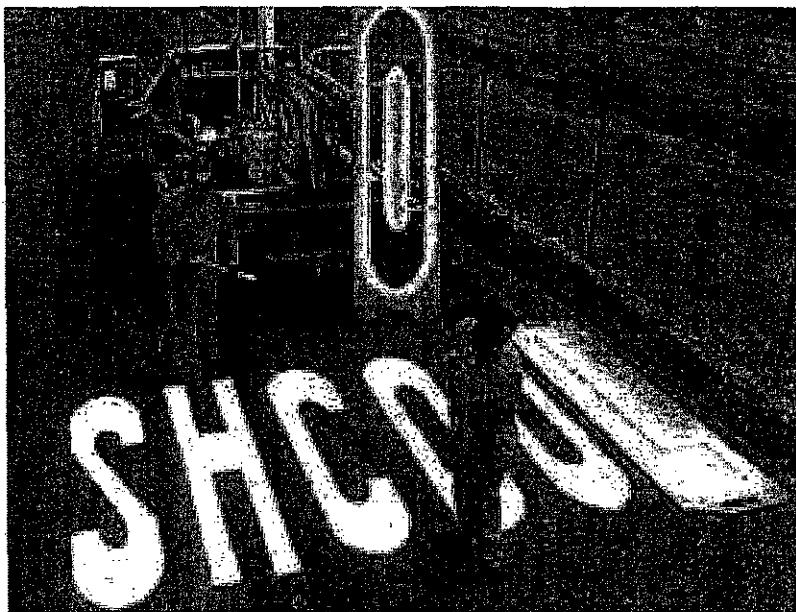
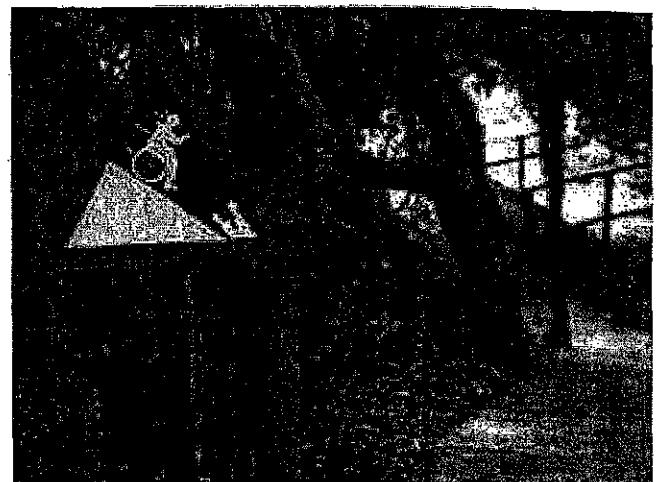
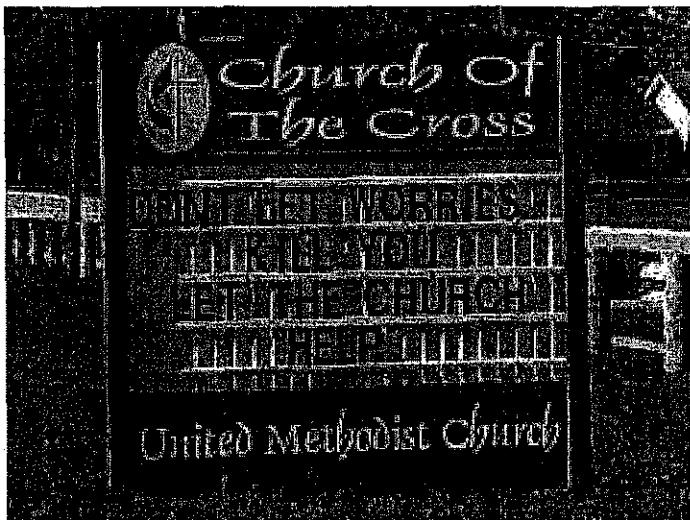
Overconfidence
bias

Thoughts/Feelings/Actions

Constructs and Impression Formation



Communication Bloopers!

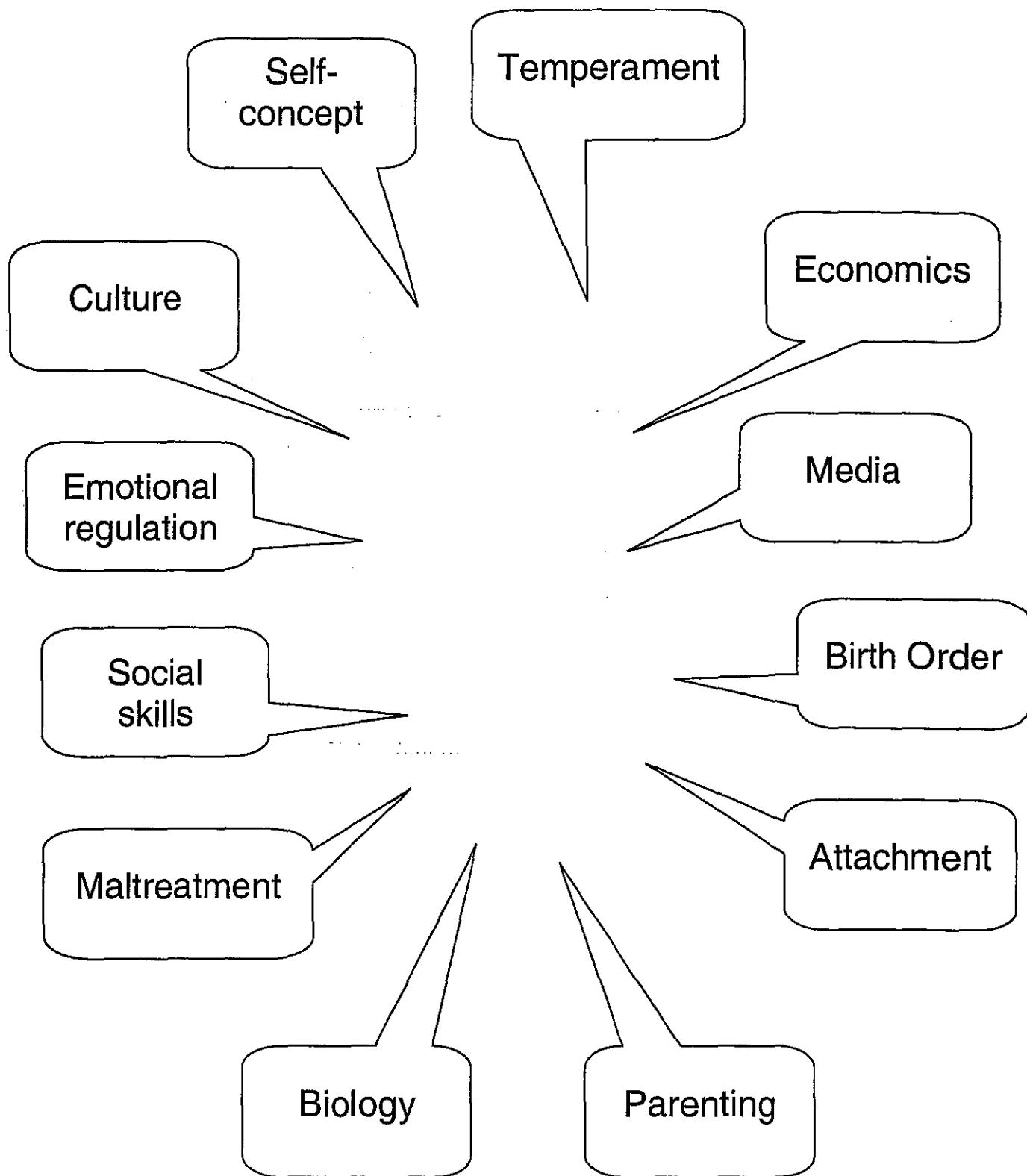


Life's Lessons

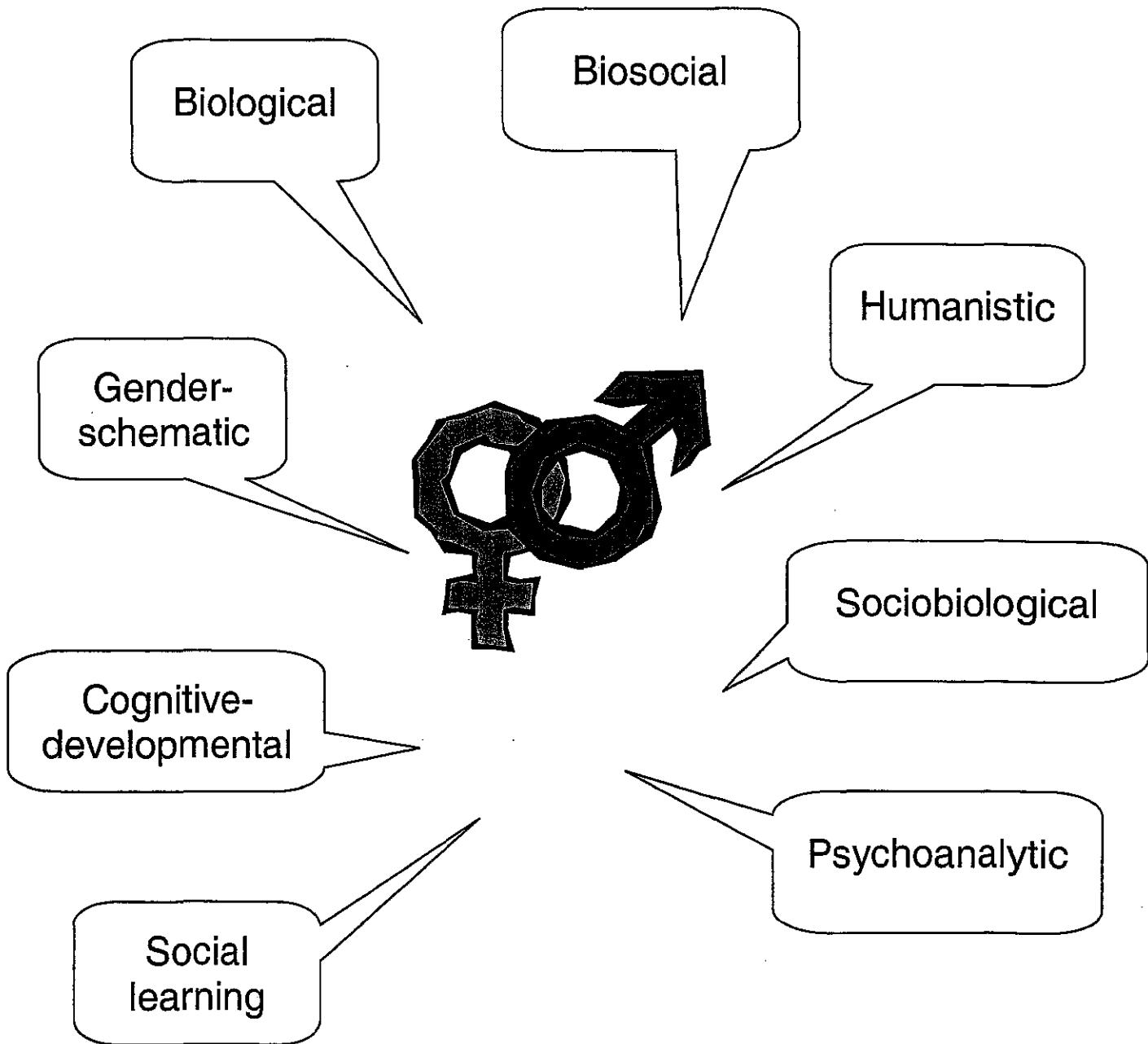
I have just three things to teach:
simplicity, patience, compassion.
These three are your greatest
treasures. Simple in actions and in
thoughts, you return to the source
of your being. Patient with both
friends and enemies, you accord
with the way things are. Be
compassionate towards yourself,
you. Reconcile with all beings in
the world.

Tao Te Ching, Verse 67

Personality Development



Theories of Gender Development



The Chinese Zodiac

According to traditional Chinese legend, ages ago Buddha summoned all of the animals and honoured those who came by naming a year for them; each animal in turn gave its characteristics to people born in its year:

Pig 1971, 1983, 1995, 2007

Gallant and chivalrous, you have great inner strength and make few but lasting friendships. Choose the hare, ram or horse, and avoid the serpent

Dog 1970, 1982, 1994, 2006

Loyal and honest, you are generous and work well with others though are sometimes critical. You are well-suited to the horse, the tiger and the hare, and ill-suited to the dragon and the ram.

Rooster 1969, 1981, 1993, 2005

You are directed to work and seek knowledge, a pioneer who tends to be selfish and lonely. Choose the ox, serpent or dragon, never the hare.

Monkey 1968, 1980, 1992, 2004

Clever and skilful to the point of genius, practical and given to detail, you generally have a low opinion of others. Your best relationships are with the dragon, rat and ram and worst are with the tiger.

Ram 1967, 1979, 1991, 2003

Elegant and artistically creative, yet timid or puzzled, you seek the guidance of others. Seek the hare, pig or horse, and avoid the ox and the dog.

Horse 1966, 1978, 1990, 2002

Extremely popular as you are attractive, cheerful, friendly and flattering to others whose company you seek. Seek the tiger, dog and ram, but beware the rat.

Serpent 1965, 1977, 1989, 2001

Very wise and very strong-willed, physically beautiful yet vain and high-tempered. The ox, rooster and dragon are fine, but the tiger and pig will bring trouble.

Dragon 1964, 1976, 1988, 2000

Passionate and soft-hearted, but somewhat stubborn, very healthy and energetic. You are well-suited to the rat, serpent and monkey, but ill-suited to the dog.

Hare 1963, 1975, 1987, 1999

Talented and affectionate, yet shy, you work well with people and do well in business. Most compatible with the ram, pig and dog, and least compatible with the rat and rooster.

Tiger 1962, 1974, 1986, 1998

Aggressive, courageous, sensitive and considerate, yet short-tempered, often entering into conflict with others. For happiness seek the horse, dragon or dog, and leave both the serpent and monkey be.

Ox 1961, 1973, 1985, 1997

Bright and patient, you are a good listener, but disdainful of failure. You are attracted to the serpent, rooster and rat, and should avoid the ram.

Rat 1960, 1972, 1984, 1996

Ambitious, honest, sincere, generous and able to maintain self-control, but often find it difficult to maintain lasting friendships. Your best will be with the dragon, monkey and horse, and worst with the horse.

Gender Differences

Males value power, competency, efficiency and achievement. They are always doing things to prove themselves and develop their power and skills. Their sense of self is defined through their ability to achieve results. Males are solution-oriented. They experience fulfillment primarily through success and accomplishment. Males are more concerned with outdoor activities, like hunting, fishing and racing cars. They are interested in the news, weather and sports and couldn't care less about romance novels and self-help books. Males are more interested in "objects" and "things" rather than people and feelings. While women fantasize about romance, men fantasize about powerful cars, faster computers, gadgets, gizmos, and new more powerful technology. Men are preoccupied with the "things" that can help them express power by creating results and achieving their goals.

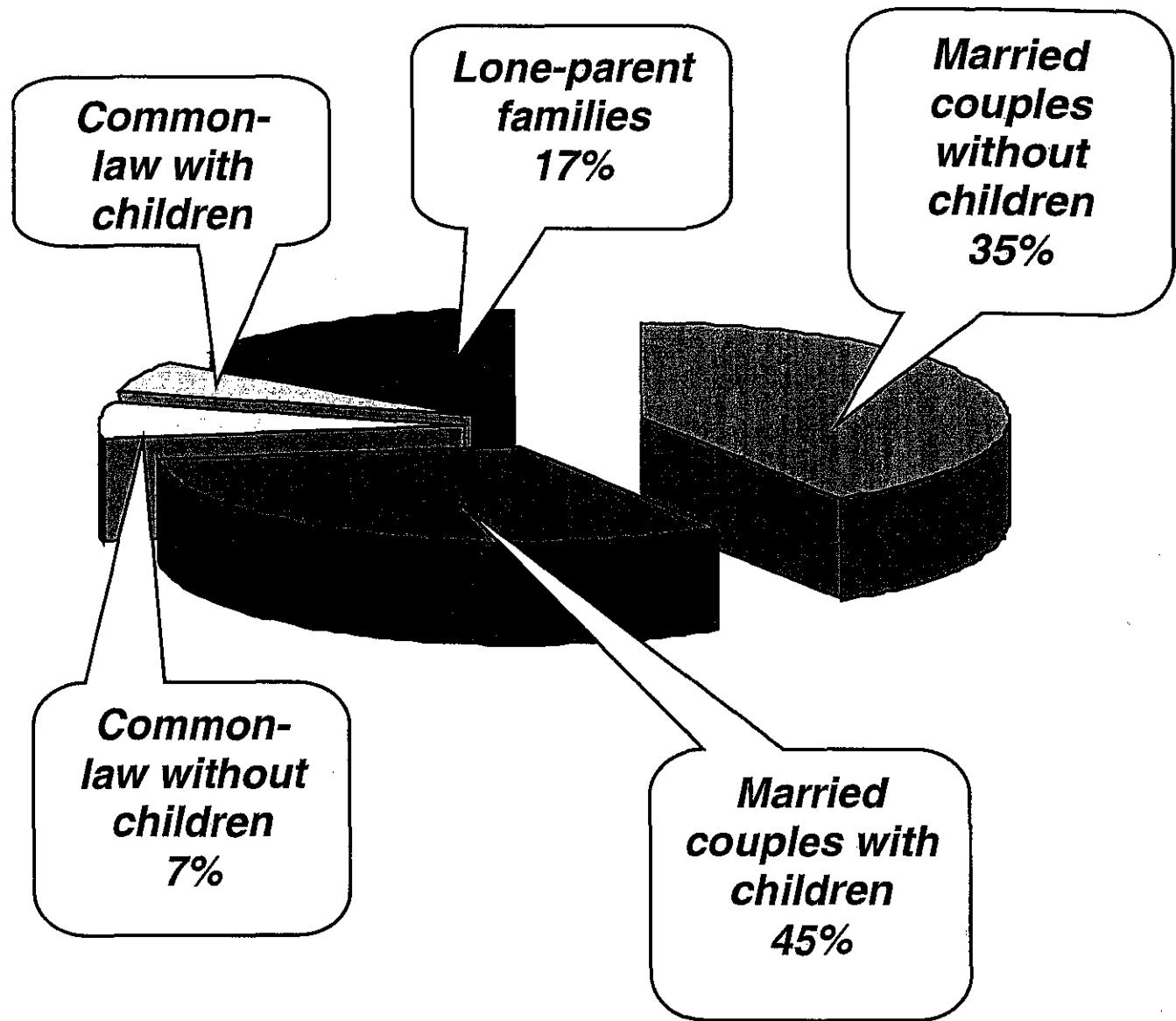
Achieving their goals is very important to a male because it is a way for him to prove his competence and thus feel good about himself. For males to feel good about themselves, they must achieve these goals by themselves. Males pride themselves in doing things all by themselves. Autonomy is a symbol of efficiency, power and competence.



Females value love, communication, beauty and relationships. They spend a lot of time supporting, helping and nurturing one another. Their sense of self is defined through their feelings and the quality of their relationships. They experience fulfillment through sharing and relating. Rather than building highways and tall buildings, females are more concerned with living together in harmony, community and loving cooperation. Relationships are more important than work and technology. Personal expression, especially of feelings, is very important. Communication is of primary importance. To share their personal feelings is much more important than achieving goals and success. Talking and relating to one another is a source of tremendous fulfillment.

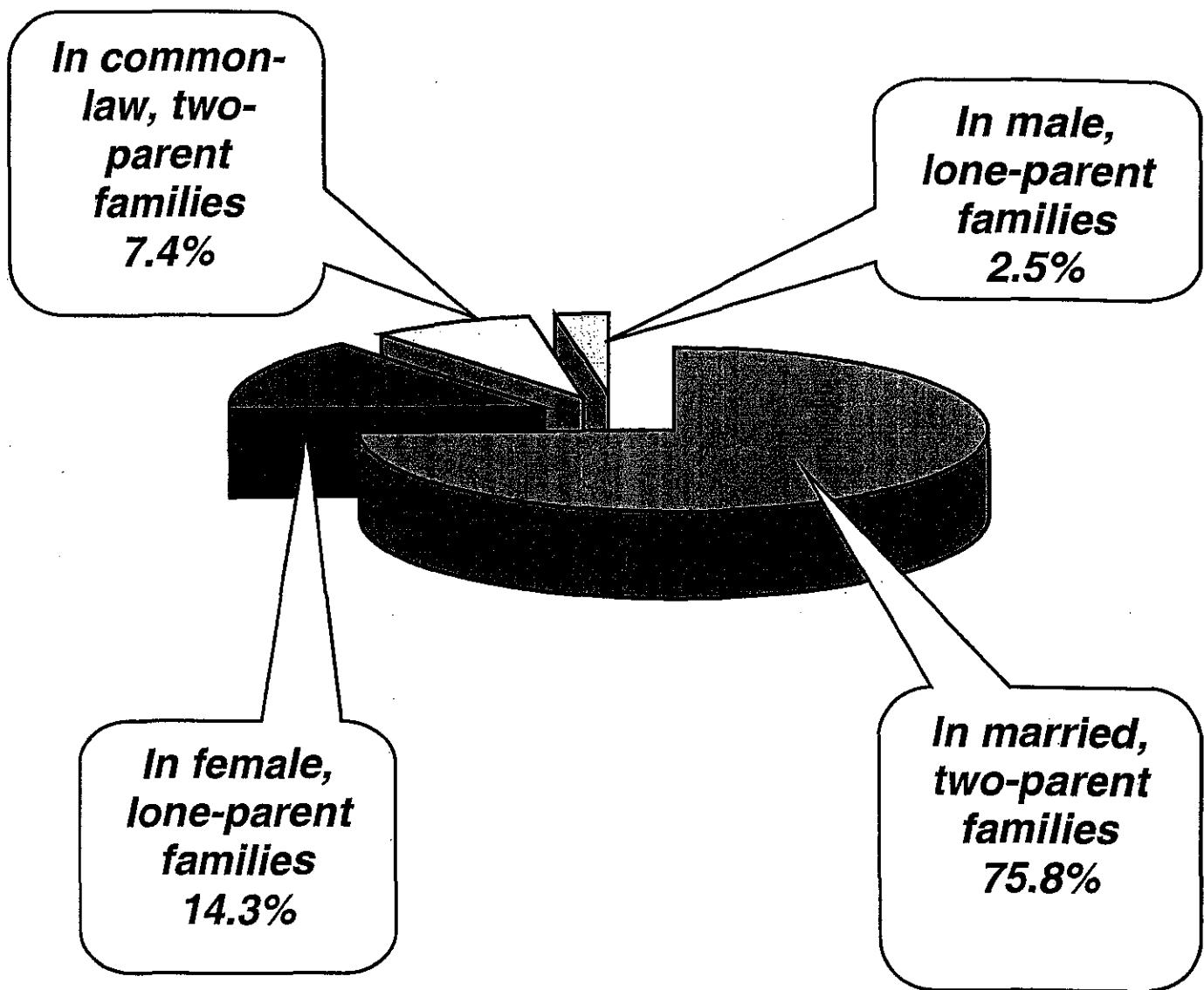
Instead of being goal oriented, women are relationship oriented; they are more concerned with expressing their goodness, love and caring. Females are very involved in personal growth, spirituality, and everything that can nurture life, healing and growth. Females are very intuitive. They have developed this ability through centuries of anticipating the needs of others. They pride themselves in being considerate of the needs and feelings of others (Gray, 1992).

Family Types In Canada (1996)



Over the last thirty years, Canada has seen increased rates of separation and divorce, the declining popularity of marriage, a growing number of common-law unions, an increasing recognition of same-sex couples, and more blended families. These changes have resulted in more complex lives for many children who will grow up in a number of different family environments during their childhood and adolescence. The variety within families means that young people are growing up among peers whose family lives often differ markedly from their own.

Where do children live in Saskatchewan? Statistics Canada, 1996 Census



Canadian Data

In married, two-parent families	74.3%
In common-law, two-parent families	8.4%
In male, lone-parent families	2.7%
In female, lone-parent families	14.5%

