What is Developmental Psychology?

• It has 2 aims

1. To understand the origins and development of behavior within the individual; this focus concerns the study **ontogeny** or **intraindividual** change.

   - Most of the research compares groups of individual of different age.
   - Studies describing the differences between different age group have implications for average individual development.
What is Developmental Psychology?
- cont...

2. DP – study age relate **interindividual differences**.
   - How individuals develop & change as they grow older
   - How different people show different patterns of development and changes

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Developmental Psychology

- DP can define as age-related interindvidual differences and age related intravidual change
- Main goals to - describe, explain, predict and improve or optimize age-related behavior change
  *behavior is the focus of the study
  *the term development applies to changes in behavior that vary in predictable and orderly way with increasing age
  *Nowdays DP also focus on thoughts and emotions
Terminology

Life Span
Total number of years for a species to live – approx. 110 years for the human species

Longevity
Average expected length of life

Life Expectancy
Average number of years an individual has remaining to live

Life-span Approach

• Relatively new approach to understanding development
• Suggests positive developmental change occurs throughout the life-span
Development vs. Change

- **Change**
  - Measurable alterations in particular skill, ability, or function
    - Give an example of change in your life/world

- **Development**
  - Form of change that is organized and adaptive (positive) – children ideal learning machines, adaptive
  - Cannot be solely equated with steady incremental change
  - Development is a life long process
    - Give an example of development in your life/world

---

**What makes us an adult?**

- How many of you define yourself as an adult?
- How many of you define yourself as an adolescent?
- How do you know which one you are?
- What defines one as an adult?
  - Brainstorm characteristics of adulthood
What makes us an adult

Age is used to define “adult”

• Age is simply the difference between the our birth date and the current date.
• Age is just a number – a human invention, like ‘time’
• There are many contradictory definitions of age and thus, there exist difficulties in defining adulthood.
Defining adulthood (what’s the x factor here?)

- **Biological dimensions**
  - Biological or physical maturation
  - e.g. pregnancy for women

- **Social dimensions**
  - Responsible, mature & rational person

- **Emotional dimensions**
  - High emotional stability including good impulse control, a high frustration tolerance and freedom from violent mood swings

- **Legal dimensions**
  - Give rights and responsibilities for certain people
  - e.g. In US when you’re 18, you can vote
  - Other e.g. “age of consent” – a person can marry without parental consent, legal age to drink alcohol or drive a car.

- Havighurst (1972) divided the life span into 6 age periods, each with its own developmental tasks
  - Birth to 6 yrs of age: Infancy and early childhood
  - 6 to 12 yrs of age: Middle childhood
  - 12 to 18 yrs of age: Adolescent
  - 18 to 30 yrs of age: Early adulthood
  - 30 to 60 yrs of age: Middle age
  - Over 60 yrs of age: Late adulthood
The meaning of age

The concept of age is multidimensional

• Chronological Age
• Biological Age
• Psychological Age
• Functional Age
• Social Age

Chronological age

• Refers to the number of years that have elapsed since a person’s birth.
• Chronological age per se is often not an accurate index of psychological development.
• Age is merely a rough marker for the processes that influence behavior over time
Chronological age

Biological age

- Has been defined as an estimate of the individual’s position with respect to his or her potential life span (Birren & Schroots, 2001)

- This concept of age involves measuring the capacities of individual’s vital organ system.

- Age is an index of biological health

- An individual’s biological functioning and physical appearance may differ from other persons of the same chronological age
Biological age

Psychological age

• Refers to an individual’s adaptive capacities – his/her ability to adapt to changing environmental demands.

• Individuals adapt to their environments by drawing on various psychological characteristics: learning, memory, intelligence, emotional control, motivational strengths, coping styles etc.
Psychological age

- Is an index of one’s level of competence in carrying out specific tasks.

Functional age

- Is an index of one’s level of competence in carrying out specific tasks.
- Competencies can range from performance on a particular job to the condition of various organ systems in the body
  - Examples:
    - cardiovascular system – age 40s similar to 30s
    - Worker who is 60yrs of age to perform adequately on the job as person who is 20 yrs of age
Functional age

Refers to the social roles and expectations people hold for themselves as well as those others impose on them.

Each society has its own expectations about roles to play and goals to attain in young, middle, and older adulthood.

We normally based our own and other people’s progress on a social clock to decide whether it is ‘on time’ or ‘off-time’ (Neugarten, 1977).

However it is later argued that age is no longer relevant in predicting needs, lifestyle and accomplishments.
4 Principles of adult development and aging

1. Continuity of changes over the life span
   - Life span is continuous – changes that occur in later adulthood are based on what happened earlier in your life. (what would be the implications of this principle?)
2. Old age is for survivors (obviously!)

- In order for people to become old, they have to not die (survived many threats to life like car accidents, natural disasters, genetic vulnerabilities to diseases, and risky behaviors).
- Survivors have some special characteristics (relate to assignment) such as having good genes, made wise lifestyle choices, managed to avoid misfortunes.
- As people get older they become a more selective group in terms of physical functioning, health, intelligence, and even personality style.

3. Individual differences must be recognized

- Myth: as people age their individuality fades because of the workings of aging on the body and the mind.
- As people grow older they become more different, not more alike.
- Middle age – a diverse group in terms of physical functioning, psychological performance and conditions of living.
• People become different because of their experience (individuals have different choices and make different choices).

• The principle that people become more different from each other with age relates to the notion of inter-individual differences.

Intra-individual differences, on the other hand, refers to differences within the individual.

• Intra-individual differences principle explains that development is multidirectional – not all systems develop at the same rate within a person (+/- changes over time), gains and losses in the same function e.g. intelligence

• Therefore, it is possible to find older people who can perform better than younger people. (Compare healthy and active middle age/older adult with inactive younger person). No such thing as all systems ‘going downhill’ once you get older.
4 Principles of adult development and aging

4. “Normal” aging is different from disease

- There is a need to differentiate among normal, impaired and optimal aging (Rowe & Kahn, 1987).
- Normal aging changes are inbuilt in organisms and happen (at different rates) to all individuals. Also known as primary aging.

- Impaired aging implies that some changes are the result of diseases and these changes do not happen to all individuals. Also known as secondary aging.
- Optimal aging is also called “successful aging”. Implies that the individual has avoided changes that would otherwise occur with age through preventive and compensatory strategies.
The Forces of Development

• Why do some people develop gray hair in young adulthood?
• Why do some older adults continue to perform well on intelligence test?
• Why are some older adults very active whereas others withdrawn?
• Why might reactions to an unplanned pregnancy be different for a 26 yr old woman compared to a 46-year-old woman?

Developmental psychologists typically consider 4 interactive forces:
  – Biological forces
  – Psychological forces
  – Sociocultural forces
  – Life-cycle forces
Biological forces

• Include all genetic and health factors that affect development.
  – Menopause
  – Facial wrinkling
  – Changes in the major organ systems

Psychological forces

• Include all internal perceptual, cognitive, emotional and personality factors that affect development
  – Provide the characteristics we notice about people that make them individuals
Sociocultural forces

• Include interpersonal, societal, cultural and ethnic factors that affect development
  – Provide diversity and the network of people with whom we interact
Determinants of Adult Development and Aging

3 general categories of determinants of developmental change

1. Normative age-graded factors
2. Normative history-graded factors
3. Nonnormative life events

Normative Age-graded Factors

• Predictable & universally experienced events closely tied to individual’s age.
  – Example: reach puberty – ages 12-14
  menopause – late 40s & early 50s
• Term normative implies development is highly similar across individuals and cultures. The developmental events are often to be biological.
• Age graded influences may also take the form of social customs.
  – Example: first marriage, retiring etc.
Normative History- Grade

- Some developmental influences are closely related to specific historical eras or events
- Produce dramatic effects on the individual who experience them — may persist for a lifetime
- Example: war, economic crisis, technological advances
- Personality differences that exist between adults of different age.
- The term cohort effect — the effect of year of birth

Nonnormative

- Some changes are unique to the individual
- Nonnormative life events do not happen at any predictable time in a person’s life.
- Positive events (winning first prize in a multimillion dollar program, getting land)
- Negative events (accidents, illnesses, business failures, a job transfer).
- These events contribute to the increasing diversity seen among adults as they age.
Guiding Perspectives for the course

- Life span developmental psychology
- Bioecological Model of Development
Life span developmental psychology

- Development is lifelong, multidimensional, plastic, contextual, and multiple causal (Baltes, 1980)

Table 1.1: Life Span Developmental Psychology: Concepts, Proposition and Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Life span development | Human development is a lifelong process. No single age is more important than another. At every age, various developmental processes are at work. Not all developmental processes are present at birth. | - A 38-year-old single women makes plans to adopt a child.  
- A 52-year-old bookeeper becomes less satisfied with her job now that her kids are grown and she has more attention to give to her work.  
- A 75-year old Civil War buff becomes uninterested in attending re-enactments and begins taking a class in memoir writing. They are all experiencing development. |
Table 1.1: Life Span Developmental Psychology: Concepts, Proposition and Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multidirectionality</td>
<td>We develop in different direction and at different rates. Developmental</td>
<td>▪ Some intellectual abilities increase with age, and some decline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>processes increase and decrease. At one time of life, we can change in</td>
<td>▪ Young adults show independence when the complete college and start a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>some areas and remain stable in others.</td>
<td>career, but show dependence at the same time when they remain in their</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>parents’ home.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.1: Life Span Developmental Psychology: Concepts, Proposition and Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Development as gain and</td>
<td>Development is a combination of gains and losses at every age, and we need</td>
<td>▪ Middle-aged adults whose parents die often often report gaining a new</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and loss</td>
<td>how to anticipate and adapt to both.</td>
<td>feeling of maturity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Young adults add a baby to their family, but may lose some equality in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>their marriage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Workers start losing speed and precision as they age, but they gain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>expertise.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concept</td>
<td>Proposition</td>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Plasticity      | Many aspects of development can be modified. Not much is set in stone, but there are limits. | - Young people who enter adulthood with behavior problems can overcome them and become responsible, successful adults.  
- Couples with a lot of conflict in their marriages during the child rearing years can be happy once the children are grown.  
- Fathers can stay home with kids and be nurturing and attentive while mothers work outside the home.  
- Older parents can change their values as a result of their young adult children’s life. |
| Historical embeddedness | Development is influenced by historical and cultural conditions | - People who grew up in the 1970s have more open attitudes toward legalizing drugs than earlier or later cohorts.  
- Those who lived through the Great Depression have different attitudes toward work than members of other cohorts. |
**Table 1.1: Life Span Developmental Psychology: Concepts, Proposition and Examples**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Proposition</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contextualism</td>
<td>Development depends on the interaction of normative age-graded, normative history-graded, and nonnormative influences.</td>
<td>Each of us is an individual because of the interaction of influences we share with other adults in general, those we share because of the times we lie in, and those that are unique to us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multidisciplinary</td>
<td>The study of human development across the life span does not belong to psychology alone. It is the territory of many other disciplines, and we can benefit from the contributions of all.</td>
<td>Contributions to the study of development come from the field of psychology, but also from sociology, anthropology, economic, public health, social work, nursing, epidemiology, education, and other disciplines. Each brings a different and valuable point of view.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bioecological Model of Development

• Based on the premise that the interaction between a person and his/her environment results in some level of adaptation.
• Adaptation levels can be measured in terms of a person’s emotional (affective) well-being and behavior.
• This model can be used to consider successful aging in many domains – physical, sensory, perceptual, cognitive, personal and social.

• Bronfenbrenner’s theory and systems
  • Microsystem
  • Exosystem
  • Macrosystem
  • Mesosystem
  • Chronosystem
Older people in Malaysia

- The demographic and social trends of population aging in Malaysia is moving at a quicker pace than observed 10 years ago.

- Overall trends show an increasingly aging population (both in numbers and proportion).

- Because of this we need to plan, prepare for the well-being, as well as optimizing the potential of future senior citizens in the country.
Older people in Malaysia

- Older people in Malaysia is growing at a faster rate than the rest of the population.

- Their size will increase from 1.4 million persons in 2000 to 3.4 million in 2020.

- Females are the majority among the elderly, as in most countries of the world.

Older people in Malaysia

- Education levels of the Malaysian population are increasing. This will implicate the possible economic involvement of future elderly.

- Previously a majority of older people are involved in agriculture (traditional pattern of occupational trend).

- However, the occupation trends are changing with older people participating in more varied occupations.
Percentage distribution of employed senior citizens by occupation, Malaysia, 1991-2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>1991</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>Total population (15-59 years) 2000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, Senior Officials &amp; Managers</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians &amp; Associate Professionals</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical Workers</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service Workers and Shop &amp; Market Sales Workers</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>13.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled Agricultural &amp; Fishery Workers</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>51.0</td>
<td>13.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft &amp; Related Trades Worker</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant &amp; Machine-operators &amp; Assemblers</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary Occupations</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Older people in Malaysia

- Nuclearization of households, greater participation of women in the labor force (lesser role as a caregiver) are changing social characteristics that contribute to the future scene of aging in Malaysia.
Population aging: More Developed vs. Less Developed Countries

- Demographic transition – reshaping the age structure of the world’s population.
  - mortality and then fertility decline from higher to lower levels. Fertility decline has been the primary factor of population aging.
  - increasing life expectancy (people are living longer)
  - international migration is less important as a factor in the changing age distributions.

Population aging: Developed countries

- Fertility is well below the replacement level in more developed regions, which include almost all industrialized countries.
- By 2025, life expectancy will increase, on average, to 80 years.
- Average life expectancy at age 80 is projected to increase by 27% over the next 50 years as compared with 19% at age 60 and 9% at birth → more people survive to old age and tend to live longer.
- Women outlive men by 7.4 years.
- The proportion of older people above 80 years old now live in more developed regions (but this will soon change to less developed regions).
- The great majority of centenarians (78% in 2000) live in the more developed regions.
- Sex ratios at older ages are significantly lower.
More developed countries

Population aging: Developing countries

- Fertility rate is higher than developed countries (average total fertility rate=5.2/woman). Fertility reduction only happened later than developed countries.

- By 2025, life expectancy will increase, on average, to 71 years.

- Average life expectancy at age 80 is projected to increase by 28% over the next 50 years as compared with 22% at age 60 and 17% at birth → more people have a good rate at survival at birth due to improvements in mortality levels.

- Women outlive men by 3.2 years (trend is rising).
Less developed countries

Population pyramids

Population Division, DESA, United Nations
Lecture 2

EARLY ADULTHOOD
Between 20s and 30s years old

OUTLINE

1) Transition to Adulthood
2) Developmental Task
1. TRANSITION TO ADULTHOOD
   • Difficulties
   • Passages and Rites
   • Socialization

DIFFICULTIES

• Becoming an adult is a complicated process
• One is denied adult membership in that society until the preparatory requirements of a group are fulfilled
PASSAGES & RITES

- Primitive societies have definite rites of passages through which children become adults.
- Example: driver’s license test, school graduation ceremony, working and have own financial, living separately, marriage
- Someone would through the event at the same time or sequentially

SOCIALIZATION

- An important part of becoming an adult is the accompanying socialization.
- Involves learning and adopting the norms, values, expectations, and social roles required by a particular group.
- Part of socialization is anticipatory: preparation for certain task
- Resocialization may be necessitated by role changes, occupational transfer, changes in family structure, relocation, retirement etc.
- Preparation for new experience
2. DEVELOPMENTAL TASK

Developmental Task

“a task which arises at or about a certain period in the life of an individual, successful achievement of which leads to his happiness and to success with later tasks, while failure leads to unhappiness in the individual, disapproval by the society, and difficulty with later tasks” (Havighurst, 1952).

- Each society defines what task must be accomplished and at what ages.
1. Achieving Autonomy

• Detaching oneself from parents is one important step in becoming an adult.
  – During their teens, adolescents turn to their peers for companionship, emotional fulfillment and guidance.
• Establishing a separate residence helps in achieving autonomy
• Achieving emotional autonomy is even more important than physical separation.

2. Molding an Identity

• In detaching themselves from their families, adolescents gain an opportunity to form their personal identities.
• Identity formation is lifelong process of selection and assimilation of parental, peer, social and self-perceptions and expectations.
• Establishing identity requires an individual to evaluate personal assets and liability and learn how to use them.
2. Molding an Identity

(cont..)

• Involves integrating various aspects of identity, resolving conflicts among them, and developing a complete personality.
• Some aspects of identity take shape more easily than others.
  – Physical & sexual identities are established earliest; vocational, ideological & moral identities evolved more slowly

“Identity formation is the process of gaining authenticity; that is, arriving at a stage of inner expansion in which we know our potentialities and possess the ego strength to direct their full reach” (Scheely, 1976)

3. Developing Emotional Stability

• Developing the capacity to tolerate tensions and frustrations without undue upset or anxiety
• Emotions is recognized as apart of life and are either overcome or accepted.
• The ability to control emotions is one measure of the degree of maturity achieved.
• Defense mechanisms are used to help control emotion
4. Establishing And Consolidating A Career

- This task involves making:
  - An occupational commitment
  - Completing one's education
  - Entering the work world
  - Gaining proficiency in one's work
  - Becoming economically independent
- Have an emotional as well as a social and economic need to achieve
- Career success provides a sense of fulfillment and worth

5. Finding Intimacy

“Intimacy includes the ability to experience an open, supportive, tender relationship with another person” (Newman & Newman, 1984).

- Suggest the capacity to give oneself, to share feelings and thoughts, and to established mutual empathy.
- Theory of love by Sternberg (1988)
In the Table below, for each type of love, a plus sign indicates the presence of each dimension of love, and a minus sign indicates that the dimension is not present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intimacy</th>
<th>Passion</th>
<th>Commitment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nonlove</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liking</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infatuated Love</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty Love</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romantic Love</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionate Love</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatuous Love</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumate Love</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Becoming A Part Of Congenial Social Groups

- Participation in congenial social group is a psychosocial need
- This process, begun in childhood and continued during adolescence, is consolidated during young adulthood

7. Selecting A Mate And Adjusting To Marriage

- Late marriage
- The earliest years of marriage the most difficult, requiring extensive adjustments and readjustments as couples learn to live together harmoniously.
- Seriously committed to making their marriages work
8. Establishing Residence And Learning To Manage Home

• Must decide where and in what type of housing to live.
• Must choose between urban, suburban, or rural areas
• Select an apartment or other rented unit, condominium, single-story etc.
  – Try to save money toward to purchase of their own home

9. Becoming A Parent And Rearing Children

• The number of persons remaining voluntarily childless are increasing
• Others turn attention to becoming parents and raising a family
• Requires major economic, social and emotional adjustments as family responsibilities increase and marital roles are realigned
LECTURE 3
MIDDLE ADULTHOOD
Between 40s and 50s years old

OUTLINE
1) Who is Middle Aged?
2) Transition to Middle Adulthood
3) Developmental Task
WHO IS MIDDLE-AGED?

- When does middle age begin and end?
  - There are no generally accepted ages
- Chronologically, the mid-thirties is the midpoint of life
- Underdeveloped society with poor health care, the midpoint of life is mid twenties.
- Many government census reports define middle age as the ages 45 through 64
- Most people would not accept the 44 year old as young adult nor 64 yr old as middle age

WHO IS MIDDLE-AGED?

- Biologically, some consider middle age begins when reproductive potential ends, but this occurs 20 to 30 yrs earlier in women than men.
- Other people consider themselves middle-age when children leave home.
- Levinson et al. (1978) describes - mid-age 40 to 59 yrs of age and late adulthood as age 60 onwards
- However for our discussion middle age begins between 40s and 60 yrs of age.
TRANSITION TO MIDDLE ADULTHOOD

- There are 3 approaches of development in middle adulthood
  - Crisis Model
  - Transition Model
  - Personal Narrative Model

CRISIS MODEL

- Development happens in fixed stages, and each stage is tied to age.
- Individual must through same stage.
- Specific crises lead to growth.
- Erikson, Levinson and Gould.
- Critics of this model suggest that this model is no longer applicable due to its traditional models of family and roles.
## Comparison of midlife personality development theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Erikson</th>
<th>Levinson</th>
<th>Gould</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Psychosocial Crisis</td>
<td>• Stages of Midlife Development</td>
<td>• Irrational Assumptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Generativity vs. Stagnation (Self-Absorption)</td>
<td>1. Midlife transition (40-45)</td>
<td>• The illusion of safety can last forever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Entry life structure for middle adulthood (45-50)</td>
<td>• Death cannot happen to me or my loved ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Age 50 transition (50-55)</td>
<td>• It is impossible to live without a partner in the world.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Culminating life structure for middle adulthood (55-60)</td>
<td>• No life or change exists beyond the family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• I am innocent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### CRISIS MODEL: Erik Erikson

- Suggests that middle adulthood comprises the period of Generativity vs Stagnation
- People think about what they have contributed for their family, community, work and society
- Generativity is about providing guidance and encouragement for future generations (leaving a mark on this world).

- Generativity can be achieved through leaving an enduring contribution to the world through creative and artistic output (cf. pahala yang mengalir selepas mati)

- Generativity is looking beyond oneself and that your mission in life can be continued through others.

- Stagnation is when people focus on the less important things in their life, and feel that they have made very little contribution to the world and their existence/presence has little meaning.
CRISIS MODEL: Roger Gould

- Psychiatrist Roger Gould (1972, 1978) reported based on cross-sectional observations of psychiatric outpatients divided into seven age-homogeneous groups

- Agrees that people develop through a series of stages and face potential crises
CRISIS MODEL: Roger Gould

- Different from Erikson’s view in terms of:
  - Adults go through a series of 7 stages (see next table) associated with specific ages

- Has a weaknesses – not supported by research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages group</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ages 16-18</td>
<td>Desire for autonomy, to get away from parents, close relationship with peers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ages 18 to 22</td>
<td>Desire not to reclaimed by family, for intimacy with peers, to recreate with peers the family they are living; real living is just around the corner</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ages 22 to 29</td>
<td>Engaged in work of being adults, in proving competence as adults; now is the time for living as well as growing and building for future; on guard against extreme emotions</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ages 29 to 35</td>
<td>Role confusion; question self, marriage, career; begin to question what they are doing; weary of devoting themselves to the task of doing what they are supposes to; desire to be what they are, to accept their children what they are becoming</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ages 35 to 43</td>
<td>Increasing awareness of time squeeze; realignment of goals, increasing urgency to attain goals; realization that control over children is waning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ages 43 to 50</td>
<td>Acceptance of finite time as reality, settling-down stage, acceptance of one’s fate in life; desire for social activities and friends, need for sympathy and affection from spouse; watch-full of young adult children’s progress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age 50 to 60;</td>
<td>Mellowing warming, more accepting of parents, children, friends, past failures; also renewed questioning about meaningfulness of life; hunger for personal relationships</td>
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CRISIS MODEL: Daniel Levinson

• Levinson suggests that early 40s are marked by transition and crisis.

• Proposed the concept of midlife crisis or a period of extreme psychological confusion.

• Levinson studied 40 men (therefore not necessarily applicable to women), and suggested that adult men pass through a series of stages starting from early adulthood (at age 20) and advancing into middle adulthood.

CRISIS MODEL: Daniel Levinson

• Early adulthood – men leaving the family and having “the dream” (goals and aspirations) and make long-term decisions about career and family.

• Early adulthood – people make and sometimes abandon career choices when they become conscious of their capabilities and decide on their long-term decisions (“settling down”).

• Midlife transition happens at 40-45, a time of questioning which contributes to midlife crisis.

• Even though Levinson has over-generalized this model, some parts of this theory has been supported by research in some populations.
CRISIS MODEL: Daniel Levinson

Men’s Stages of Adulthood (Levinson)
TRANSITION MODEL

- Life span developmental is a progressive process that can be expected and sequentially happened.
- Transition might be crisis like, when demands of some transition overwhelm the individual’s social support system and internal resources.
- Contrary to Levinson’s model, there is no single age in the middle years that is designated time of transition.
PERSONAL NARRATIVE MODEL

• Rosernberg- crisis phenomenon in middle life should be viewed as a narrative.
• This allow people to understand events and experiences which is a part of individual life
• Individual try to give definitions to experiences and try related it with their world
• Organizing personal history around life structure and crisis in middle age is a main narrative or plot where personal narrative is formed at certain time in adult life span
• Self understanding depends on context.

DEVELOPMENTAL TASK

1. Adjusting to the physical changes of middle age
2. Finding satisfaction and success in one’s occupational career
3. Assuming adult social and civic responsibility
4. Launching children into responsible, happy adulthood
5. Revitalizing marriage
6. Reorienting oneself to aging parents
7. Realigning sex roles
8. Developing social networks and leisure-time activities
9. Finding new meaning in life
1. ADJUSTING TO THE PHYSICAL CHANGES OF MIDDLE AGE

• The day comes when some adults realize they are paunchy and out of shape
  – cannot run as fast, lift as much, perform as much physical work without tiring
• Some women equate their loss of reproductive capacity at menopause with a loss of sexuality and youthfulness
• Physical changes of aging require psychological adjustments.

2. FINDING SATISFACTION AND SUCCESS IN ONE’S OCCUPATIONAL CAREER

• Ordinarily, middle age is the most fruitful period of professional and creative work
• Middle-agers become the senior persons at the office, due a certain amount of respect & deference because of experience & seniority
• Middle age may be a time of unfulfilled expectations
• A more positive awareness may also develop
3. ASSUMING ADULT SOCIAL AND CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

- Adults 40 to 60 yrs old has been called “the ruling class” or ‘the command generations’
- Although they make one-fifth of the population, they control our society and social institutions
- They are the norm bears, the decision makers & the office holders
- Their participation in community life is essential for society’s progress

4. LAUNCHING CHILDREN INTO RESPONSIBLE, HAPPY ADULTHOOD

- Parents preparing dependent children for independent adult living and it takes for a long period.
- Ordinarily, children’s dependency on parents gradually lessens and parental control slowly wanes
- Occasionally, the children are dependent because the parents will not let go
- Some parents pushing their teenagers out of the house before they are ready for independence
- Part of the developmental task at this point is to let go of the responsibility, as well as the control and not feel guilty when the children make mistakes
5. REVITALIZING MARRIAGE

- Marital needs depend on what the marriage has experienced over the years.
- It is common for marital satisfaction to decline during the early and middle years of the life cycle.
- If partners have been busy with personal career advancements, raising children or separate community affairs and social activities and have neglect one another, the marriage may be in trouble.
- A couple whose children are independent now have only one another.
- They face the task of working out problems, eliminating resentments, getting reacquainted and being close again.

6. REORIENTING ONESELF TO AGING PARENTS

- There are several challenges to middle aged adults.
- Watching parents grow old is a sad and often upsetting experience.
- Adjusting to their death is even more difficult.
- Become more responsible for providing assistance to aging parents: economic support, personal care, transportation, food, medical help, housekeeping etc.
- Living together or near from parents.
- Middle-aged adults have been called the “sandwich generation”
7. REALIGNING SEX ROLES

- Once children are independent, there are more opportunities to develop those personal aspects that were neglected during years of parental responsibility.
- Crossing of sex roles is more apparent.
- Women become more assertive and men become more affiliative
- Realigning masculine-feminine roles is quite common during middle adulthood

8. DEVELOPING SOCIAL NETWORKS AND LEISURE-TIME ACTIVITIES

- Middle age brings a shift in the focus of social activities.
- Parents previously involved in family centered social activities find an increasing need for couple-centered activities.
- Adult friendship assume greater importance
- Increased interest in having fun, in pursuing one’s own interests and hobbies & developing entirely new leisure-time pursuit.
9. FINDING NEW MEANING IN LIFE

• The overall goal of the middle is to find new meaning in life.
• This should be a period of introspection, in which to examine oneself in term of feeling, attitudes, values and goals.
• There is a need to redefine one’s identity and to answer the question: Who am I? Where do I go from here?
• Erickson (1959) – it is a period of generativity or stagnation
LECTURE 4
LATE ADULTHOOD

OUTLINE

1) Issues of Late Adulthood Development
2) Developmental Task
ISSUES OF LATE ADULTHOOD DEVELOPMENT

• Erikson’s Theory – the stage he propose for late adulthood is ‘ego integrity vs despair’
  – The older must think back over her life and try to come terms with who she has been and who she now is
• Butler proposed that in old age, all of us go through a process he called a life review
• Several studies show that a process of structured of reminiscence may increase the life satisfaction or self esteem of older adults.

DEPENDENCE

• Main issue to overcome
• Dependence in terms of:
  • financial
  • physical
  • emotional
FINANCIAL DEPENDENCE

- Saving for future
- Most of older people don’t have insurance
- Income sources: children, pension, investment, rent, business, work & etc.
- Financial protection is needed

PHYSICAL DEPENDENCE

- Decreased physical ability
  - loss of ability to live alone
  - loss of energy
  - loss of control over daily routine
  - possible inability to do favorite things
- Older people need attention especially from family members.
- Social welfare program for older people
Perceptual Decline in Old Age and Late Old Age

- Hernia of abdominal cavity
- Hay fever
- Corns and callouses
- Disease of urinary system
- Frequent constipation
- Hemorrhoids
- Varicose veins
- Diabetes
- Arteriosclerosis
- Orthopedic impairments of the back, extremities, etc.
- Visual impairments
- Chronic sinus problems
- Heart conditions
- Hearing impairments
- Hypertension
- Arthritis

Percentage of age range afflicted

Key: Ages 45 to 64 Ages 65+

Percentages of Older Adults Who Needed Help with Daily Activities

- 85 and over: 50%
- 80-84: 31%
- 75-79: 20%
- 70-74: 11%
- 65-69: 9%
- 15-64: 2%

Percent needing help with everyday activities
EMOTIONAL DEPENDENCE

- Older people need love and social interaction
- Feel lonely because of death event and community involvement decrease can disturb mental illness
- Friendship network decrease and only have interaction with adult children.
DEVELOPMENT TASK

1. Staying physically healthy and adjusting to limitations
2. Planning finances to ensure adequate means of support
3. Learning and adjusting to revised work roles
4. Learning to use leisure time pleasurably
5. Finding companionship and friends
6. Establishing new roles in the family
7. Achieving integrity through acceptance of one’s life

STAYING PHYSICALLY HEALTHY AND ADJUSTING TO LIMITATIONS

- The task of staying healthy becomes more difficult as people age
- This is one of the important challenges of late adulthood
- It involves good habits and preventive medicine – getting regular medical and dental checkups
- Many of illness in later years develop into chronic problems because of neglect not because of aging
- Older adults should also attend to their physical appearance
- Physical health depends partially on mental attitude
PLANNING FINANCES TO ENSURE ADEQUATE MEANS OF SUPPORT

• Financial planning should be implemented early and this requires careful long-term planning
• Good planning will help older people have financial independence
• The disable who depend on others need to investigate what resources might be able from children or other relatives, pension, public old assistance programs etc.
• Many adults have to consider revising their life style to cut down on expenses

LEARNING AND ADJUSTING TO REVISED WORK ROLES

• Ordinarily, government or non-government workers are retired at this stage and do an adjustment
• They have to consider a major change in work roles & learn new types of work
• Retirement for them means retraining, changing jobs or going into business for themselves.
• Retirement offers the opportunity to do their own activities.
LEARNING TO USE LEISURE TIME PLEASURABLY

• As work decline, more leisure time is available for preferred pursuits
• Pleasure is the feeling of being pleased and happy; it is gladness and joy
• Many of older adults have not learned to enjoy themselves because of they are the work generation.

FINDING COMPANIONSHIP AND FRIENDS

• Loneliness is one of the most frequent complaints of older people
• Their challenge is to find meaningful relationships with others
• Require joining formal organizations or groups in the community or extending oneself to others to cultivate friends
• Involves personal initiative in contacting others, extending invitations or making phone calls.
ESTABLISHING NEW ROLES IN THE FAMILY

- Several events bring about the adjustment of family roles
  - Children marrying & moving away
  - Grandparenthood
  - Retirement
  - The death of spouse
  - Becoming dependence on one’s children

- All of these circumstances require major adjustment and realignment of family roles and responsibilities

ACHIEVING INTEGRITY THROUGH ACCEPTANCE OF ONE’S LIFE

- Erikson (1959) says that the development of ego integrity is the chief psychosocial task of the final stage of life
- This includes life review, being able to accept the facts of one’s life without regret, being able to face death without great fear
- It entails appreciating one’s own individuality, accomplishments, and satisfactions as well as accepting the hardship, failures and disappointment
LECTURE 5

RESEARCH METHODS IN ADULT DEVELOPMENT

OUTLINE

1) Research Method in Developmental of Adult and Ageing
2) Study Type
3) Designs for Studying Development
4) Three types of Research Design
5) Strategies for Collecting and Analyzing Data
RESEARCH METHOD IN DEVELOPMENTAL OF ADULT AND AGEING

- Research process is important to understand adult development
- All research begins with a question
There is a set of decisions when we want to do a research

- The questions that dealing with basic research methods
- The questions of research measures
- The questions of research analysis
- The questions of research design

Study Type

- The type of study that is used determines what conclusions can be formed.

1. Experimental studies
2. Correlational studies
3. Case studies
1. Experimental design

• An experiment involves manipulating a key factor that the researcher believes is responsible for a particular behavior and randomly assigning participants to the experimental and control groups.

• The researcher is most interested in identifying differences between two groups of people:
  – Experimental group receives the manipulation
  – Control group does not receive manipulation

• The researcher exerts precise control over all important aspects of the study including the variable of interest, the setting and the participants.

• Researchers can infer cause-and-effect relations about variables due to systematic manipulation of key variables.

• **Independent variables**: variables manipulated by the experimenter.

• **Dependent variables**: behaviors or outcomes that are measured.
• Age cannot be an independent variable because we cannot manipulate it.

• Therefore, we cannot conduct true experiments to examine the effects of age on a person’s behavior. At best, we can find age-related effects of an independent variable on dependent variables.

2. Correlational design

• In a correlational study, investigators examine relations between variables as they exist naturally in the world.

• In the simplest correlational study, a researcher measures two variables, then sees how they are related.

• The results of a correlational study usually are measured by computing a correlation coefficient (r).
Correlations can range from -1.0 to 1.0, reflecting three different types of relations between the two variables:

- When $r = 0$, the two variables are unrelated.
- When $r > 0$, the variables are positively related.
- When $r < 0$, the variables are inversely related.

Correlational studies do not imply cause-and-effect relations.

However they do provide important information about the strength of the relation between variables (reflected in the absolute value of the correlation coefficient).

Correlational techniques are used a great deal because developmental researchers are interested in how variables are related to factors that are very difficult, if not impossible, to manipulate.

Most developmental research is correlational at some level because age cannot be manipulated within an individual.

This means we can describe many developmental phenomena, but we can only explain some of them.
3. Case study design

- Used when researchers cannot obtain measures directly from people and are able only to watch them carefully.

- In certain situations, researchers may be able to study a single individual in great detail in a case study.

- Case study is especially useful when researchers want to investigate a rare phenomena, such as uncommon diseases or people with extremely high ability.

- Case studies are also useful for opening new areas of study which can be followed by larger studies using other methods (e.g. experiments).

- The primary limitation of this method is whether the findings from one individual can be generalized to others.
Designs for studying development

• Developmental researchers need to be sensitive of developmental differences in choosing a research design.

• Three key variables in developmental research design:
  – Age
  – Cohort
  – Time of measurement

**Age**

• **Age effects** reflect differences caused by underlying processes, such as biological, psychological or sociocultural changes.

• Although usually represented by **chronological age**, age effects are inherent changes within the person and are not caused by the passage of time per se.
Cohort

- **Cohort effects** are differences caused by experiences and circumstances unique to the generation to which one belongs.

- In general, cohort effects corresponds to the *normative history-graded* influences.

- However, it is not easy to define a cohort as it can be **specific** such as in all people born in one particular year or **general** as in the baby-boom cohort.

- Each generation is exposed to different sets of historical and personal events e.g. World War II, home computers, or opportunities to attend college.

- Cohort effects can have significant implications on research.
Time of measurement

- **Time-of-measurement effects** reflect differences stemming from sociocultural, environmental, historical or other events at the time data are obtained from the participants.

- The point in time in which a researcher decides to do research could lead him or her to different conclusions about the phenomenon being studied.

- Example: Data about wage increase may be influenced by the economic conditions of that year (economic recession vs. boom)

- The three building-block variables (age, cohort, and time of measurement) can be represented in a single chart.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time of Measurement</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cohort</strong></td>
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</table>
• Cohort is represented by the years in the first column.

• Time of measurement is represented by the years across the top.

• Age is represented by the numbers in individual cell. Computed by subtracting the cohort year from the time of measurement.

• Confounding is any situation in which one cannot determine which of two or more effects is responsible for the behaviors being observed.

THREE TYPES OF RESEARCH DESIGN

• Cross-Sectional Design
• Longitudinal Design
• Sequential Design
Cross sectional design

- subjects are tested only once
- subjects are from different ages & groups
- would tell us about age differences but not change over time
- Example: 100 people (1/4 are 20, 1/4 are 30, 1/4 are 40, 1/4 are 50) are given a one time survey about education.

Cross-Sectional Diagram

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Cross-Sectional Design

• Advantages
  – Popular because they are relatively in-expensive, easier to manage & less time consuming.
  
  – Avoid the problems of subject attrition (subjects dropping out of the study) and practice effects (subjects being repeatedly tested) that plague longitudinal studies.

Cross-Sectional Design

• Disadvantages
  – Drawbacks include the confounding of age and cohort differences—i.e. differences among the groups maybe due to their historical/environmental events and not because of development process.

  – The results are thus contaminated by generational differences.
Longitudinal design

- Follow the same subjects over time
- Allowing change or consistency to be evaluated within the same group
- Issues specific to Longitudinal Design:
  - Selective Attrition & Drop-out
  - Time of Measurement Effect
Longitudinal Design

• Advantages
  – Provide a good picture of individual changes over time and developmental differences among individuals
  
  – One can look for the long-term effect of earlier events, make predictions and observe outcomes and do retrospective analyses of developmental events to look for patterns

• Disadvantages
  – Time consuming & expensive
  
  – Subject attrition is a significant problem because if too many subjects drop out (due to disinterest, moving away, death and so on) the sample become less and less representative
  
  – Failure to respond a survey is correlated with severe disability, institutionalization & death
  
  – Lead to bias in findings
Sequential design

- A combination of Cross-sectional & Longitudinal
- Five types of Sequential Design:
  - Time-lag
  - Time-sequential – treat age & time as IV
  - Cohort-sequential – treat age & cohort as IV
  - Cross-sequential – treat cohort and time as IV
  - Panel studies

**Time-Lag Diagram**

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**Time-Sequential Diagram**

**Time of Testing**

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**Cohort-Sequential Diagram**

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### Cross-Sequential Diagram

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* Same individuals over time
Sequential Design

• Advantages
  – combine some strengths of both the cross sectional and longitudinal approaches, while at the same time attempting to minimize the confounding of age, cohort and time of measurement influences
  – provide greater internal validity than either the traditional single-cohort longitudinal or the single-time-measurement cross-sectional designs
  – Represent an important contribution of adult dev. To research in developmental psychological

• Disadvantages
  – Its too expensive and need high commitment
  – The complexity has probably hindered their widespread use to date
Time-Lag Design

- Advantages
  - Provides a picture of the effects of sociohistorical change at a particular point in development
  - We see how the same age group behaves in different historical periods and contexts

- Disadvantages
  - Cohort and time-of-measurement influences are confounded
  - Expensive and time consuming
  - Only one age is studied
Knowledge of strategies for collecting and analyzing data is important to understand research on adult development:

• Subject Selection
• Data Collection
• Data Analysis

Subject Selection

• Goal is sample that enables depth and generalizability of findings.

• Small samples increase depth of study but limit generalizability.

• Larger samples (if representative) can increase generalizability, but often limit depth due to practical considerations (time, expense, etc.).
Data Collection

• Observation
• Interviews
• Questionnaires
• Standardized Tests

Data Analysis

• The two most common ways of looking at the results of studies of adult change and stability are: comparison of mean scores and correlational analysis.
SOCIAL RELATIONSHIP, FRIENDSHIP AND FAMILY DEVELOPMENT

ADULT RELATIONSHIP

- Two relationship - emotional relationship with others and social relationship with friends.

- Nature of relationship
  - Need for affiliation
  - Reciprocity and interdependence.
Need for affiliation

• Human beings are social animals
• Beginning with the earliest interactions between infant and mother, the individual’s development is shaped by the social world
• Social relationship affect how we live and how we feel about the experience.
• Our ties to others originate in an innate need to establish relationship
• This strength of this need varies from person to person and in relationship to aspects of the situation

RECIPROCITY AND INTERDEPENDENCE

• The basic unit of the social system is the dyad, or 2 person relationship (Bronfenbrenner, 1979)
• A dyad is reciprocal in nature, a two way street: that is each person in the relationship pays attention to and participates in the activities of other
• Dyads with a high degree of reciprocity and mutual positive feelings are especially potent forces in development
Close relationships are characterized by **interdependence**: the individuals in the relationship rely on and influence each other and participate together in many kinds of activities over an extended period.

Dyadic relationships are the building blocks of the microsystem, out of which larger and more complex interpersonal networks are formed.

Example: husband & wife dyad becomes a triad with the birth of baby.

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**THE BASIS OF ADULT RELATIONSHIP**

- Attachment Theory
  - Behavioral system
  - Quality of attachment
  - Working models
  - Affectional bonds
Attachment Theory and Romantic love
- secure attachment style
- anxious/ambivalent attachment style
- avoidant attachment style
- reorganization of mental models

Attachment Theory

- This approach offers a life span perspective on the development of bonds affection
- Attachment refers to an emotional bond between 2 or more people
- It “is essentially being identified with, having love for, and desiring to be with the other person, and represents an internal state within the individual
- Bowlby (1972) – attachment behavior of human beings spans from the cradle to the grave
Behavioral system

• The concept of behavioral system comes from the field of ethology, which deals with bioevolutionary bases of behavior.

• Bowlby viewed attachment as rooted in such system, called attachment behavioral system, which he believed was universal to the species.
QUALITY OF ATTACHMENT

• The attachment object fulfills two primary functions, in being a haven of safety to which the infant can run when distressed as well as a secure base for exploration.

• Attachment relationship vary in quality, depending on the extent to which they accomplish these goals.

Cont...

• Ainsworth et al (1978) have described 3 attachment
  – secure
  – anxious/ambivalent
  – avoidant
SECURE

• The development of a secure attachment relationship with the caregiver is the norm in our society
• Securely attachment infants have experienced available and responsive caregiving
• They generally appear to be happy and secure and are comforted by the present of the attachment object

ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT

• Infants have experienced inconsistent and inappropriate caregiving.

• They seem drawn to the caregiver but unable to trust her
AVOIDANT

• The results of unresponsive, sometimes even rejecting, caregiving.

• These infants appear to derive no comfort or security.

WORKING MODELS

• The attachment behavioral system has an inner, cognitive component in addition to the overt behaviors that it directs.

• Infants develop inner mental representative of the attachment object and of themselves as a result of their experience during the attachment process.

• Bowlby (1982) refers to these as working model
Ainsworth (1989) describes the attachment relationship to the mother as one of important ties formed with others over the life span.

These ties collectively is an affectional bonds.

“a relatively long-enduring tie in which the partner is important as a unique individual and is interchangeable with none other. These relationship are characterized by a need to maintain proximity, distress upon inexplicable separation, pleasure or joy upon reunion, and grief at loss”
ATTACHMENT THEORY AND ROMANTIC LOVE

• Romantic love has become an increasingly popular topic of empirical study
• The application of attachment theory to romantic love relationships has been most fully developed by Cindy Hazan and Philip Shaver (1987)
• They maintain that attachment styles originating in infant-mother interaction influence these relationships in important way

SECURE ATTACHMENT STYLE

• The majority of subjects classified their adult attachment style as secure.
• Adult people described their important love experiences as happy, friendly, trusting, accepting & supportive.
ANXIOUS/AMBIVALENT ATTACHMENT STYLE

- Respondents described their important love relationship as involving jealousy, emotional ups and downs, desire for reciprocation and intense sexual desire
- They view their parents as unpredictable and unfair
- Lack self-confidence and viewed others as unwilling to commit to a long-term relationship
- Typically fall in love quickly and easily but find the relationship unsatisfying

AVOIDANT ATTACHMENT STYLE

- Typically feared intimacy & described important love relationships in terms of jealousy and lack of acceptance.
- Viewed their parents as demanding & uncaring
- Themselves as dislike by others and independent
- Described romantic love as hard and rarely lasting
• Table 7.1 illustrates between infant attachment behavior and adult romantic love.
• Adult romantic love differs from the attachment seen in infant behavior in at least 2 important ways (Shaver & Hazen):
  – sexual attraction & behavior
  – Reciprocal caregiving
• These features reflect the activation of 2 additional behavioral systems: reproductive & caregiving system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7.1</th>
<th>Some Features of Attachment and Adult Romantic Love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attachment</td>
<td>Romantic Love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formattion and quality of the attachment bond depend on the attachment figure’s perceived sensitivity and responsiveness.</td>
<td>Romantic love includes an intense desire for the partner’s (real or imagined) interest and reciprocation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant’s feelings of joy and distress depend on the attachment figure’s perceived availability and responsivenes.</td>
<td>Adult lover’s moods depend on his or her current perceptions of the partner’s reciprocation or rejection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When the infant’s attachment relationship is secure, she or he is happier, has a higher threshold for distress, and is more willing to explore unfamiliar environments and interact with strangers.</td>
<td>When adults are in love, they often report feeling more relaxed, less worried, less defensive, more creative and spontaneous, and more courageous.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attachment behaviors include: maintenance of proximity and contact—holding, touching, caressing, kissing, rocking, smiling, making eye contact, following, and so on.</td>
<td>Adult romantic love is indicated by holding, touching, caressing, kissing, rocking, smiling, making eye contact, following, and so on.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separation from the attachment figure causes intense distress, initiates vigorous, attention-consuming reunion efforts, and results in despair if reunion proves impossible.</td>
<td>Unchosen separation from the partner causes intense distress, initiates attention-consuming reunion efforts, and results in grief if reunion is impossible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intense desire to share discoveries and reactions with the attachment figure.</td>
<td>Intense desire to share discoveries, feelings, opinions, and so on and to give gifts to one’s love partner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infant’s coo, “sigh,” talk baby talk, and so on; and attachment figures talk “motherese.”</td>
<td>Adult lovers coo, sing, talk baby talk, and use affectionate babylike names for each other.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

REORGANIZATION OF MENTAL MODELS

- Empirical studies have demonstrated that an attachment story leading to an anxious/ambivalent or avoidant social style is associated with impaired adult relationships
- There is evidence of continuity between attachment story and the relationship one develops with one’s own children
- This continuity effect is thought to be mediated by inner mental representations of self, other and the nature of relationship
• Negative attachment experiences seem to teach people that they are bad & undeserving of love & that others cannot be trusted or depend on
• Some people are able to overcome their negative parent-child relationships - occur through a process whereby working models of attachment are reorganized
• Are models plastic?-gaining access to resolving the emotional pain associated with childhood experiences are important in overcoming these patterns, while repression leads to their repetition

THE UNDERLYING NATURE OF ADULT RELATIONSHIP
Table 8.1 lists the 3 types of attachment, the three internal working models, that main identifies with his method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secure/autonomous/balanced</td>
<td>The adult values attachment relations, views those relationships as having been influential in her current personality. The subject speaks freely and coherently about her early experiences, and has thought about what had motivated her parents’ behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dismissing or detached</td>
<td>The adult minimizes the importance or the effects of his early experience. He may idealise his parents but have poor recall of his childhood, often denying negative experiences and emotions or calling them normal or typical. His emphasis is on his own personal strengths.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preoccupied or enmeshed</td>
<td>The adult often talks about inconsistent or role-reversed parenting. She may be confused about her experiences or about what had been expected of her. As adults, those in this group are still caught up in their family and in their relationships, either still struggling with anger or with the desire to please.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Main & Hesse (1990); Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy (1985).
• Weiss (1982, 1986) agrees with Ainsworth that key ingredient in an attachment that makes it different from other forms of bonds is the sense of comfort and security that is part of being with the favored person
• Weiss determined 6 types of nonattachment social relationship listed in table 8.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attachment</td>
<td>Key feature is a feeling of enhanced security in the presence of the special person, and a sense of loss or distress when apart.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliation</td>
<td>Feelings of mutuality, affection, respect, and loyalty based initially on recognition of shared interests or shared life circumstances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nurturance</td>
<td>Sense of commitment to, or investment in, the care of someone seen as weak or needy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Feelings of shared commitment to reaching some goal. A relationship of colleagues or partners, usually accompanied by sense of mutual respect.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persisting alliance</td>
<td>Feelings of identification or overlapping identities, independent of goals or aims. Accompanied by sense of obligation to help the other if needed. Characteristic of many kinship ties, but also of marriage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help obtaining</td>
<td>Bond to someone seen as wiser who is looked to for guidance—perhaps an aspect of the bond of younger worker with a mentor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Robert Sternberg (1987) has taken the basic distinction a step further.

Proposes that love has 3 key components – intimacy, passion & commitment

Weiss’s and Sternberg’s categories are clearly not the same, but there are types that seem similar. What?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8.3</th>
<th>Sternberg’s Eight Varieties of Love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nonlove</td>
<td>When none of the three components are present, there is no love. Most casual relationships are of this type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liking</td>
<td>Intimacy is present, but passion and commitment are not. Many enduring friendships have this quality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infatuation</td>
<td>Lack of intimacy or commitment, passion without intimacy or commitment. May characterize some stagnant marriages or friendships that have gone on for years but have lost mutual involvement and mutual attraction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empty love</td>
<td>Commitment without passion or intimacy. May characterize some stagnant marriages or “friendships” that have gone on for years but have lost mutual involvement and mutual attraction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romantic love</td>
<td>Both passion and intimacy are present, but no commitment. May be characteristic of the early stages of a relationship.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Companionate love</td>
<td>Both intimacy and commitment are present, but passion is not. May describe long-term committed friendships, relationships with parents or other kin, or with a partner with whom passion has waned.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fatuous love</td>
<td>Passion and commitment, but no intimacy, as in a whirlwind courtship; the commitment is based on passion rather than on intimacy, though intimacy may come later.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consummative love</td>
<td>All three components are present. The attainment of consummative love is no guarantee that it will last.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

THE CONVOY MODEL

• Toni Antonucci – uses the term convoy to describe a network of social relationship that each of us carries forward through our adult life.
• Convoy provides social support
• Social support describes what one receive and give.
• 3 elements – affect, affirmation and aid.

FRIENDSHIP

• 1OF 2 major social domains
• Ainsworth (1989) - can connote many different kinds of associations from acquaintanceship to more intimate & enduring bonds.
• Studies of the development of friendship in adulthood are rare
• Definition of key terms such as friend and intimacy vary widely among studies.
NATURE OF FRIENDSHIP

• Why do we make friends?
  – Marvin (1977) calls it the sociable system - which motivates them to seek & maintain relationships with peer because there is survival value in doing so.
  – Group membership offers protection as well as assistance with task that have traditionally required cooperation

• UNIQUE QUALITIES OF FRIENDSHIP
  – Friendship is a voluntary association between equals who are high in similarity and whose primary orientation in the relationship is toward enjoyment and personal satisfaction.
  – Friendship is distinct from other social relationship:
    • The role of friend is present from early childhood to old age
    • Friendship are voluntary & are less regulated by societal & legal rules
    • Friendship is based in similarity
    • Primarily oriented toward enjoyment & personal satisfaction
    • Trust is a important element of most close relationship
• Casual vs close friends
  – Friendship is dynamic and evolving
  – A number of studies have examined differences between casual friends and those that have developed into closer, more intimate association.
    • Early stages, friendship may have a sort amorphous, unstructured quality
    • Characterized by greater independence, contact & support than casual friendships
    • Close friends offer greater benefits, they also entail higher cost - conflict, dissatisfaction, inconvenience

FUNCTION OF FREINDSHIP

• Serves many purpose & may vary by life stage or particular circumstances
• Different friends may play different roles
  – serve as confidant, models of coping, buffers against stressful life experiences
  – Harmonious peer relationship in adolescence were correlated with positive mental health in middle adulthood
• Studies- friendship have a significant positive effect on morale, happiness & life satisfaction among older adults
• Friends may have stimulation value, adding interest and opportunities for socializing to life, expanding the individual’s knowledge, ideas & also perspectives
• Friends- have utility value, contributing assistance and resources to help the needs or reach goals

GENDER DIFFERENCES

• Friends relationship pattern is differently according to gender
• Women’s relationship are generally described as closer, deeper more intimate, offering more support, more commitment and involvement
• Male relationship tend to be more group and activity oriented, more guarded, less self-closing & less intimate
• Same-sex friendship are consistently more common in adulthood, because of social norms that discourage non romantic cross sex relationship
FRIENDSHIP DEVELOPMENT
OVER LIFE SPAN

• Friendships are often durable, lasting over many years
• Women’s friendships are more likely to be continuous from childhood & adolescence, while males who maintained friends are more likely to have done so since midlife
• The individual has more friends in early adulthood compared to late adulthood.

Cont..

• Older adults risk losing friends through death, illness or geographic mobility.
• Social isolation among older adults may be due in part to deficiencies in social skills such as assertiveness, empathy and role-taking which are necessary to initiate & maintain new friendships.
HUSBAND & WIFE RELATIONSHIP

• Successful marriages?
• Marriages quality
• What is more important for future of partnership is the nature of the relationship the partners create together

PARENT-CHILD RELATIONSHIP

• When a child is born it’s change couple to family relationship
• Attachment between adult children and their parents
  – In early adulthood, the young adult must transfer her most central attachment from the parents to one or more peers
  – But an attachment to the parent remains, even while the attachment behavior have changed
• Attachment between parents and their adult children
  – For adult parents, their children and grandchildren represent continuity
  – It is not clear that the presence of one’s adult children brings with it that sense of security and comfort that is the central feature of an attachment

VIOLENCE IN RELATIONSHIP

• Sometimes social relationships have negative elements.
• Family violence is viewed as a public concern, a serious social problem with the potential to significantly affect not only the victim but the entire family system and ultimately society as a whole
• Violence signals a breakdown in one the most basic of purposes of family life
• Violence and abusive older people in family
Factors implicated in abusive behavior

• Environmental stress, such as poverty or unemployment
• social isolation
• masculine gender role
• situational stress such as marital conflict
• social attitudes

Abusive and victim profiles

• Abuser
  – male
  – traditional gender roles
  – either experienced or witnessed abuse as a child
  – low self esteem
  – high need for dominance and control
  – problem with alcohol
  – history of head injury
Victim

- Female
- traditional gender roles
- history of experiencing or witnessing abuse
- low self-esteem
- passive, compliant

Consequence of violence

- Nature and extent of intergenerational transmission of violence
- Cognitive effects of victimization
- Developmental effect on attachment and later relationship among children
- Vulnerability to future abusive relationships
- Developing of coping strategies by the victim that enhance survival
WORK, LEISURE & RETIREMENT

Why Work?

• material needs
• self-esteem, self aspect
• social acceptance
• social status, respect from others
• entry to the adult world
• source of fulfillment, challenge, autonomy, satisfaction, enjoyment
• activity and structure in life
• social contact
• generativity
MEANING OF WORK

• Work means different things to different people, partly on their own characteristics, but also based on the nature of the work itself.
• Work may symbolize independence, financial security, living up to social expectations and paying one’s dues & personal well being

MEANING OF WORK

• Work allow people to express and develop aspects of the self and to meet personal needs and aspirations
• The meaning of work apparently changes with age
• Work also plays a major organizing role in society, structuring both time and activities
Occupation & Careers

• The term occupation is applied to all forms of work
• Career is sometimes reserved for prestigious occupation
• Ritzer (1977)- people who have careers stay in one occupational field and progress through a series of stages to achieve upward mobility, greater responsibility, mastery, financial compensation

SOCIAL STATUS AND OCCUPATION

• Workers are not all viewed as equally valuable
• Occupational status is correlated with intellectual ability and achievement, although not perfectly
Five general levels of workers can be identified:
- marginal
- blue-collar
- pink-collar
- white-collar
- executives & professional

MARGINAL WORKERS

- Work occasionally, but never long enough with one employer to establish a continuous occupational history.
- Unstable work patterns are due to several factors, such as the lack of necessary language or abilities, discrimination, a criminal record or physical & mental disorders.
BLUE-COLLAR OCCUPATION

- Do not require formal education past high school and may be based more on physical than intellectual skills.
- Offer little mobility; moves typically reflect changes for better pay or job security or result from unemployment.

PINK COLLAR OCCUPATIONS

- Are held primarily by women
- do not pay high wages
- example:
  - office & clerical worker
  - bank teller
  - receptionist
WHITE COLLAR OCCUPATIONS

• Are in offices rather than in factories or outdoors
• Skills are required
• require formal education beyond high school

EXECUTIVES AND PROFESSIONAL

• Have the highest status as well as the highest education
• In the optimal position to control their own occupational development and to obtain the rewards that most workers cannot.
• Comparisons among them are usually not in terms of salaries but in how far and how quickly they progress.
THE CHANGING NATURE OF WORK

• Traditional view of work assumes that one’s job consists of certain set task that need to performed
• The view of work has changed because of globalization
• Occupational flexibility and learning continuity
• Organizations must respond rapidly to market conditions that change quick

OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

• Our work life serves as major source of our identity, provides us with an official position, influences our lifestyle and social interaction
• The decisions people make occupations may change over time
OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE

• 2 issues in deciding on occupation are important:
  – Personality and Interest
  – Self Efficacy
Personality and Interest

• Holland (1973, 1985), developed a theory of choosing work.
• People choose occupations to optimize the fit between their individual traits and their occupational interests.
• Categorizes occupations in two ways:
  – By the interpersonal settings in which people must function
  – By their associated lifestyle

Personality and Interest

• Holland identified 6 personality types that combine these factors; see table 9.1
• The congruence between traits and occupational selection in Holland’s Theory exist at the level of interest not at the level of performance requirement.
• Holland Theory’s doesn’t mean that personality completely determines what occupation on choose.
Personality and Interest

- Men and women are differentially represented in Holland’s type.
- Holland’s Theory ignores the context in which the decision is made.
- In short, we must recognize what occupation we choose is related not only to what we are like but also to the dynamic interplay between us and the social institution we are in.

SELF-EFFICACY

- Occupational choice is strongly influenced by what we think of ourselves.
- Regardless of age, we evaluate our abilities in terms of our strengths and weaknesses – self efficacy (Bandura,1986).
- Self-efficacy theory also helps us understand differences between men and women in occupational choices.
Self-efficacy is belief in one's capacity to succeed at tasks.

General self-efficacy is belief in one's general capacity to handle tasks.

Specific self-efficacy refers to beliefs about one's ability to perform specific tasks (e.g., driving, public speaking, studying, etc.)

THEORY OF DEVELOPMENT CAREER

• Super’s Theory
• Ginzberg’s Theory
Super’s Theory

- Donald Super (1980, 1994), maintained that occupational choices are influenced mostly by self-concept.
- Suggests that occupational choice is a continuous developmental process from adolescence to old age.

- Super’s theory suggest the presence of five stages in vocational choice becomes more or less successful
  - Implementation
  - Establishment
  - Maintenance
  - Deceleration
  - Retirement
Implementation

- Adolescents simply try out a number of part- or full-time jobs to explore the world of work.
- Involves finding the boundaries of acceptable work-role behavior: dress, communication, social networks, supervisors expectancies.
- Exploration is healthy and a reflection of self-concept.

Implementation

- Mentor-mentee relationship
- 4 phase
  - Initiation
  - Cultivation
  - Separation
  - Redefinition
Establishment

- Involves the transition to a specific career choice.
- Increasing commitments to career and advancement as well as greater stability in personal life
- Greater congruence between self concept and occupational roles

Maintenance

- Retaining achievements in career and stability in self concept
Deceleration

• Disengagement from work, preparation for retirement, and development of new images of the self.

Retirement

• The individual physically separates from work and begins to function in life without a career or vocation.
GINZBERG’S THEORY

- Eli Ginzberg (1971, 1972), has also developed a stage theory of occupational choice.
  - Fantasy
  - Tentative
  - Realistic
Fantasy

- Occurs as a child imagines and practices various occupations for a few hours, days or weeks.

Tentative

- Begins in early adolescence
- Adolescents may closely monitor (models) in various careers
- They also read about and discuss occupations with family members and friends.
Realistic

- Begins as the young adult carefully and rationally analyzes careers choices.
- This stages involves a realistic assessment of the necessary educations, apprentice period, and personal qualities (values, attitudes and aptitudes) required to pursue particular careers.

GENDER & WORK

- Adult women & adult men have experienced difference of work because of social and education factors.
- Work pattern between women & men are difference
- Gender issues in work place
AGE & JOB SATISFACTION

• Job satisfaction is the positive feeling that results from an appraisal of one’s work.
• Older workers tend to have more positive feelings about their jobs than younger workers do.
• Midlife – low satisfaction

WORK PERFORMANCE & AGING

• Findings from many studies show no relationship between age and the quality of work or effectiveness of work performance.
• Older people hold highly responsible.
• With age-people improve in the skills required for some kinds of work and decline in other kinds of work behavior.
RETIREMENT

• Definition of retirement in 3 ways
  – As a process
  – As a paradox
  – As a change
RETIREMENT AS A PROCESS

• The process of retirement begins as soon as one thinks about what life after employment might be like.
• Usually leads to some sort of planning

AS A PARADOX

• Retirement involves the loss of two very important things that we derive from work: income & status
• Assume that losing these key aspects of one’s life would be reflected in poor adjustment
• They like and enjoy being retired
AS A CHANGE

- Involves change in almost every aspect of life
- Retirees have an advantage that is often overlooked
- They have already experienced several disruptive life transitions such as marriage, children leaving home, or moving
- They have learned from previous events provides the basis for adjusting to retirement

DECIDING TO RETIRE

- The decision to retire is an intensely personal one that involves carefully weighing several factors
- More workers retire by choice when they feel financially secure
- Others do not retire by choice because of work history, health, financial status, and attitudes toward retirement.
DECIDING TO RETIRE

- Married woman’s decision to retire is predicted by her age and her husband’s working, not by the characteristics of her occupation (George, Fillenbaum and Palmore, 1984)

PLANNING FOR RETIREMENT

- Preretirement education cover a variety of topics
  - Finances
  - Attitude
  - Health
  - Expectations
- Realistic expectations toward retirement are important predictors of future satisfaction
ADJUSTMENT TO RETIREMENT

• People who are highly work oriented usually have a more difficult time with retirement than people who are less work oriented
• Reorientation of values and a need for continuity
• Most people are satisfied with retirement

FAMILY, FRIENDS AND COMMUNITY

• Affects all types of relationship
• Disrupt long-term friendship and produce stress
• Contacts are maintained with children and may even increase
• Community participation options are increasing for retirees
PHASE OF RETIREMENT

- Social scientists believe that many people go through a series of phases before and during retirement.
- Developed by Robert Atchley (1983)
- He reports that people’s attitudes toward retirement are generally positive regardless of sex or age.
- Lists 7 phases of retirement

**Remote phase**
**Near phase**
**Honeymoon phase**
**Disenchantment phase**
**Reorientation phase**
**Stability phase**
**Termination phase**

Preretirement | Retirement event | Retirement | End of retirement
REMOTE PHASES

• Begin work with the vague belief that they will enjoy the fruits of the labor at some point in the distant future
• Do nothing to prepare themselves for retirement
• They often deny that they will eventually quit working

NEAR PHASE

• Participate in preretirement programs. Preretirement planning programs help workers make the transition to retirement
• Helps people understand the benefits and pensions they can expect to receive as well as discussing more comprehensive issues – physical and mental health
HONEYMOON PHASE

• Occurred just after retirement
• Be able to do things they never had time for before
• Gives way to a routine – if satisfying adjustment is successful

Disenchantment

• Preretirement fantasies about the retirement years may be unrealistic
• The experience of loss (power, prestige, status, income & purpose)
• Also experience the loss of specific work roles, loss of routine & work-related friendship
REORIENTATION PHASE

• Most individuals who become disenchanted with retirement begin to reason realistically about how to successfully cope with it.
• The major purpose of this reorientation phase is to explore, evaluate & make some decisions about the type of lifestyle that will enhance life satisfaction.

STABILITY PHASE

• Is attained when individuals decide on a set of criteria for evaluating choices in retirement.
• How they will perform once they have made choices.
• For some, this phase may occur after honeymoon phase.
TERMINATION PHASE

• The autonomy and self-sufficiency developed in the stable phase may begin to decrease

RETIREMENT ADJUSTMENT STYLES

• Hornstein & Wepner (1985)
• In depth-interview of 24 individuals obtained one month prior to & 6 to 8 months after following retirement
• Identified 4 distinctive retirement styles
  – Transition to old age
  – New beginning
  – Continuation
  – Imposed disruption
TRANSITION TO OLD AGE

• Retirement was a time to disengage or wind down rather than undertake new activities.

• Retirement marked a transition to old age, much as rites of passages mark transition at other periods of development.

• Retirement meant shedding pressure-filled work roles and the adoption of a restful and enjoyable lifestyles.

NEW BEGINNING

• Retirement as a welcome opportunity

• Retirement was marked by feelings of renewal, revitalization & enthusiasm
CONTINUATION

• Retirement carried no major personal impact
• Were able to continue working
• Change position, shifted careers or devote greater time to a special skill, hobby or interest
• Individuals differentiated preretirement & retirement not by activity, but by the lessened pace and intensity of the work role

IMPOSED DISRUPTION

• Represented a significant role loss
• Saw retirement in largely negative terms
• Work was a role in which they had invested significant parts of their self-identity.
Effects of Retirement

• The Individual
  – Some individuals experience difficulties in retiring, while others not.
  – Experience of loss self esteem or depression
  – Retirement is a stressful event (Bosse et al., 1991)
  – Responses to retirement vary as a function of number factors: the importance of work for the person, retirement was chosen or forced, occupational level, the extent of psychological & economic preparation

• Society
  – The allocation of economic resources
  – Affects one’s industry or company both positively and negatively
    • Positive – replacing higher-paid
    • Negative – must provide economic support – pension plan, medical insurance, life insurance
Definition of leisure

• Defining leisure adequately is difficult
• One’s person’s leisure activity may be an occupation to another (Burrus-Bammel & Bammel, 1985)
• Define as any activity in which individuals engage during free time (Kubanoff, 1980)
• This definition does not distinguish between activities that are related to a job and those that are not, nor whether activity involves purely self-enjoyment or earning money

TYPES OF LEISURE ACTIVITIES

• 4 major categories
  – Cultural- attending sporting events, religious meeting, movies, club
  – Physical- bowling, camping, fishing, golf, hunting
  – Social-visiting relatives, friends, neighbors
  – Solitary-reading books, magazines, newspaper, listening to radio
DEVELOPMENTAL CHANGES IN LEISURE

• The main reasons leisure activities change over adulthood are health or ability changes and self-perceptions
• The variety of leisure activities also differs with age

Correlates and Consequences of Leisure Activities

• Men are more likely to engage in outdoor and sports
• Women are more likely to engage in cultural or home-based activities
• People in retirement communities engage in more leisure activities
• Leisure activities produce positive well-being
ADULT PERSONALITY

What do you see?

We don’t see things as they are
We see things as we are

- Anais Nin
DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

• Refers to a person’s distinctive patterns of behavior, thought & emotion
• Used to refer to a person’s most unique characteristics
• Sigmund Freud – emphasized the important of unconscious motives outside the adult’s awareness as determinants of personality development
• B.F Skinner – stressed the importance of learning and reinforced experiences

THE STAGE APPROACH TO ADULT PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

• Erik Erikson
• Jane Loevinger
• Daniel Levinson
Erik Erikson’s Eight Stages

• Emphasis on the lifelong relationship between developing individuals and the social systems

Trust vs. mistrust

• The caretaker is the primary representative of society to the child
• Developing trust in a world it knows little about
• With trust comes feeling of security and comfort
Autonomy vs. shame and doubt

• Reflects children’s budding understanding that they are in charge of their own actions
• The child may develop a healthy sense of self-control over his/her actions
• Develop feelings of shame and doubt because of failure in self-control

Initiative vs. guilt

• Once children realize that they can act on the world and are somebody, they begin to discover who they are
• They take advantages of wider experience
  – to explore the environment on their own
  – to ask many questions about the world
  – to imagine possibilities about themselves
Industry vs. inferiority

- Children’s increase interest in interacting peers, their need for acceptance, their need to develop competencies
- If children vies themselves as incompetent, particularly in comparisons with peers, they develop feeling inferiority

Identity vs. identity confusion

- Major focus during this stages is the formation of a stable personal identity
- The struggle in adolescence is choosing from among a multitude of possible selves one we will become
- Identity confusion results when we are torn over the possibilities.
Intimacy vs. isolation

• Involves establishing a fully intimate relationship with other
• A feeling of isolation results if one is not able to form valued friendship and an intimate relationship

Generativity vs. stagnation

• Generativity refers to caring about generations
  – Parenthood
  – Teaching
  – Providing goods and services
Ego integrity and despair

• Begins with growing awareness of the nearness of the end of life
• Life review
  – People who have progressed successfully through earlier stages of life face old age enthusiastically and feel that their life has been full
  – Those feeling a sense of meaninglessness do not anxiously anticipate old age and they experience despair

Jane Loevinger’s Theory of Ego Development

• Emphasizes that personality development involves an increasingly more differentiated perception of oneself.
• The EGO is the chief organizer of our values, goals and views of ourselves and others
• Development of the ego comes about because of:
  – Basic feelings of responsibility or accountability
  – The capacity of honest self-criticism
  – The desire to formulate one’s own standards and ideals
  – Unselfish concern and love for others

CONFORMIST

• obedience to external social rules
• Preoccupied with appearance, belongingness and superficial matters
CONSCIENTIOUS-CONFORMIST

- Increased awareness of one’s own emerging personality
- Increase realization of the consequences of one’s actions on others

Conscientious

- Intense and complete realization of one’s action on others
- Self critical
Individualistic

• Recognition that one’s efforts and actions on behalf of others are more important than personal outcomes

Autonomous

• Respect for each person’s individuality
• Acceptance of ambiguity
• Continued coping with inner conflicts contributes to an appreciation the actions and approaches of other individuals
INTEGRATED

• Resolution of inner conflicts
• Renunciation of the unattainable for oneself
• Cherishing the individuality of others

LEVINSON’S THE SEASON OF LIFE

• The individual’s life structure - underlying pattern or design of a person’s life at any time given
• A person’s life structure is revealed by the choices he or she makes and one’s relationship with others
• The human life cycle consists of 4 different eras
PREADULTHOOD

• 17-22 years of age
• The individual grows from being dependent infant to beginning to be an independent
• The developing person to start to modify his relationships with family and friends to help build place in the adult world

EARLY ADULTHOOD

• 22-40 years of age
• This is an era characterized by the greatest energy, contradiction & stress
• The major tasks are forming and pursuing youthful aspirations, raising a family & establishing a senior position in the adult world
• This era can also be marked by conflict
MIDLIFE TRANSITION

• 40-45 years of age
• They realize they have not accomplished what they set out to do during early adulthood.
• This lead to feelings of disappointment

• Levinson suggested that the midlife transition is a time of crisis and soul searching that provides the opportunity to either become more caring, reflective and loving or more stagnated
• The transition’s success depends on how we accept and integrate the following polarities of adult existence
  – being young vs. old
  – being masculine vs feminine
  – being destructive vs constructive
  – being attached vs separated from others
MIDDLE ADULTHOOD

• 45-60 years of age
• Individuals have the potential to have the most profound and positive impact on their families, professions and their world.
• Individuals no longer concern themselves with their own ambitions
• Become mentors to younger individuals

LATE ADULTHOOD TRANSITION

• 60-65 years of age
• Older adults experience anxiety because of the physical declines they see in themselves and their age mate
• The individual must develop a way of life that allows him or her to accent the realities of the past, present and future
THE TRAIT APPROACH TO ADULT PERSONALITY

- Characteristics of traits
  - Thoughts, feelings and behavior
  - Dynamic & motivating tendencies
  - Highly interactive

THE FIVE FACTOR MODEL

- Although many different trait theories of personality have been proposed over the years, few have been concerned with or have been based on adults of different ages
- Proposed by McCrae and Costa (1990)
- Their model is strongly grounded in cross-sectional, longitudinal & sequential research
• The five factor model consists of five independent dimensions of personality
• OCEAN
  – **Openness** to experience (vs. Conservatism)
  – **Conscientiousness** (vs. Undirectedness, Spontaneity)
  – **Extraversion** (vs. Solitary, Quiet)
  – **Agreeableness** (vs. Antagonism)
  – **Neuroticism** (vs. Emotional stability)

**NEUROTICISM**

• The six facets of neuroticism are
  – Anxiety
  – Hostility
  – Self-consciousness
  – Depression
  – Impulsiveness
  – vulnerability
EXTRAVERSION

• The six facets of extraversion can be grouped into:
  – Interpersonal traits
    • Warmth
    • Gregariousness
    • Assertiveness
  – Temperamental traits
    • Activity
    • Excitement seeking
    • Positive emotions

OPENNESS TO EXPERIENCE

• The six facets of openness
  – Fantasy
  – Aesthetics
  – Action
  – Ideas
  – Values
  – Feelings
AGREEABleness-Antagonism

- Antagonistic people tend to set themselves against others
  - mistrustful, callous, unsympathetic, stubborn and rude
- Scoring high on agreeableness, the opposite of antagonism
  - Not always be adaptive
  - Overly dependent

Conscientiousness-Undirectedness

- Scoring high on conscientiousness indicates that
  - One is hardworking
  - Ambitious
  - Energetic
  - Scrupulous
  - Persevering
- Undirectedness is viewed primarily as being lazy, careless, unenergetic and aimless.
COGNITIVE PERSONALITY THEORY

• One’s perception of the environment or one’s experience is critical
• Proposed by Thomae (1980)
• Personality is one of many factors that mediate one’s response to life events or role changes
• How we think about or interpret what happens to us is the focus of the cognitive approach to personality

• Refuses to provide a list of adaptive personality traits or personality types, due to the complexity of the cognitive or process approach to personality
• Pattern of successful aging are best understood in terms of a complex interaction of a number of subsystem
• Personality processes play an important role in helping us adapt to such changes.
THE LIFE EVENT APPROACH

• Contextual model
• Emphasize the factors that mediate the influence of life events
  – Physical health, intelligence, personality, family supports, income
• Life event as highly stressful or a challenge
• Sociocultural circumstances

• Nuegarten (1968) – the social environment that the members of a particular generation evolved in can alter social clock
• Social clock – the time table according to which individuals are expected to accomplish life’s task
• Social time clocks changed dramatically – during the letter part of the twentieth century
• Figure 7.1 shows how a life course perspective might apply to life events
• This figure considers variations in the probability of certain events, their timing and sequencing, the motivational factors the events stimulate, the coping resources available for dealing with them and adaptive outcomes

• Figure 7.1 describes 4 main components
  – Antecedent life events stressor
  – Mediating factors
  – A social/psychological adaptation process
  – Consequent adaptive or maladaptive outcomes

• Factors that mediated the effects of life event
  – Internal (physical health or intelligence)
  – External (salary, social support network)
• Figure 7.1 indicates, it is also important to consider both the life stage and the sociohistorical context in which life events occurs.
The Development of Gero-Transcendence

• Larn Torstan (1994)
• Ego integrity truly describes the personality changes that are characteristic of older people
• Suggests that the basic distinctions between ‘self vs. other’ and ‘present vs past’ reflect an orientation to reality more representative of younger and middle-age adults.

• Gero-transcendence – individuals experience a fundamental paradigm shift
• Significant features of Gero-Transcendence
  – Decreased concern for one’s personal life and the increased emphasis on the flow of life
  – Decreased emphasis on the distinctions between self-other and the past-present-future
  – Increased time spent in mediation and decreased interest in social interactions and material objects
Kansas City Studies of Adult Personality

- Neugarten
- Used measure of personality tapping the inner world of the individual
- Projective techniques
- Involvement in variety of daily activities and performance in various roles

- The Kansas City Data yielded 4 cluster of personality types
  - Integrated — well functioning, complex people, high in life satisfaction
  - Armoured or Defensive — very achievement-oriented, hard driving individuals who experience anxiety about aging that must be controlled by defenses, moderately life-satisfied
— **Passive-dependent** – less highly life-satisfied, letting others care for and make decision about them
— **Unintegrated** – physically and emotionally incapacitated, low level of life satisfaction

- The study of personality styles measures personality at the level of socioadaptational processes

### SPESIFIC ASPECS OF THE ADULT PERSONALITY

- **SELF-CONCEPT**
  - is the organized, coherent, integrated pattern of self perceptions
  - Having a positive self concept can also help reduce the negative effects of relocation from one’s home to a nursing home
  - Markus and Herzog (1991) feel that self-concept is dynamic
  - Self-concept is composed of many domain specific self schemas (Cross & Markus, 1991)
• Our roles are influenced by the self schemas we bring to them and these same schemas are in turn influenced by how we are carrying out these roles (Markus & Herzog 1991)

LOCUS OF CONTROL

• locus of control is domain specific – intellectual & health
• Internal & external locus of control
• Transition of life effects people’s feeling about the control
MORAL DEVELOPMENT

• Morality is conceptualized in terms of 3 interrelated aspect:
  – Moral reasoning
    • How do people think about the rule of ethical conduct?
  – Moral behavior
    • How do people behave in real-life situations where moral principle is at stake?
  – Moral emotion
    • How do individuals feel after making a moral decision and engaging in a behavior that is ethical or unethical?

KOHLBERG’S THEORY

• 3 different levels of moral with 2 different stages within each level
  – Preconventional level
    – The individuals interprets moral problems from the point view of physical or material concerns
    • Heteronomous mortality
      – Avoidance of punishment and the superior power authorities
    • Individualism, Instrumental purpose and exchange
      – Following the rules only when it is to someone’s immediate interest; acting to meet one’s own interest and needs and letting others do the same
• Conventional level
  - Individual’s understanding of morality depends on her of the expectations other individual
    – **Interpersonal orientation**
      • The need to be good person in your eyes and those for others
    – **Social system & conscience**
      • To keep the institution going as a whole, to avoid the breakdown in the system

• Postconventional level
  – The individual become capable of distinguishing between basic human rights and obligations
    • **Social contract orientation**
      – Being aware that people hold a variety of values and opinions
    • **Universal ethical principles**
      – The belief as a rational person in the validity of universal moral principles and a sense of personal commitment to them
LEARNING & MEMORY

DEFINITION OF LEARNING & MEMORY

• **Learning** is often understood in terms of the acquisition of stimulus-response (S-R)
• In order to be effective in bringing about a response, stimuli must first evoke an internal connection
• **Memory** requires some effort, is also dependent on experience but not necessarily tied to a specific situation
• Learning involves the acquisition over time of S-R association
• Forgetting is defined as the breakdown or loss of S-R association

• Information-processing approach stresses that learning & memory are best understood in terms of cognitive processes of
  – Registration
  – Encoding
  – Storage
  – Retrieval of material
• Other approach – the integrity of the network of cells in the brain termed neuron
TYPES OF LEARNING

• **Instrumental learning** – requires learning a sequences of responses that lead to a goal
• **Motor skill learning** involves either discrete or continuous responses
• A precise **bodily movement** of some kind must be learned
• **Age deficits** have been found in both instrumental learning & motor skill learning

• **Deals with verbal material**
• **Learning in adulthood**
  – **Rote learning**
    • Where an association is acquired repetitively
  – **Mediated learning**
    • The learner utilizes a visual or verbal mediator acquired in the past
MEMORY

• Memory Stores
  – Sensory memory - retains information just long enough for you to process it
    • Iconic memory - is a type of sensory memory that is based on the visual system
    • Echoic - is based on the auditory system
  *Echoic memories last somewhat longer than iconic memories

– Short term memory (primary)
  • Function - to hold sufficiently small amount of information for conscious processing

– Long term memory (secondary)
  • stores information in terms of abstract symbols and their relationship, and is capable of retaining data from one or two minutes to a great many years.
Figure 8.1: Three Stage Model of Memory
• Figure 8.1 outlines processes that transfer information from one store to another.
• Transfer from sensory to short-term memory entails attention
• Whereas transfer from short term to long term memory requires rehearsal and elaboration

• In this model, 3 different types of forgetting correspond to the three memory stores
  – Forgetting from sensory stores is thought to result from simply decay
  – Forgetting from short term memory results from replacement
  – Forgetting from long term memory results from interference. Interference doesn’t destroy information in long term memory but simply impairs its retrievability
– Working memory
  • Central executive - responsible for making decisions about what information is processed & how that information is to be processed
  • Articulatory loop - auditory mechanism that temporarily hold speech based information
  • Visuospatial scratch - Performs the same function in regard to visual and spatial information

THREE COMPONENTS OF WORKING MEMORY
• Memory
  – Generic or semantic – general rules or basic meaning
  – Episodic – specific events
  – Procedural – the influences of previous experiences on present performance
  – Explicit – involves conscious recollection of previous experiences
  – Implicit – may exist without an awareness of remembering

Table 6.2  Procedural, Semantic, and Episodic Memory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Memory</th>
<th>Analogy</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Procedural</td>
<td>A &quot;how-to&quot; manual</td>
<td>Knowing how to tie a necktie or ride a bike.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Knowing how to prepare to write a paper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic</td>
<td>Encyclopedia and dictionary</td>
<td>Knowledge of the Civil War.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Knowing what the word over means.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Episodic</td>
<td>Personal diary</td>
<td>Memories aroused when a particular song is played.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Recollections of your first childhood friend.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• Long term memory consists of two major systems that are functionally and neurologically distinct
  – declarative memory - involves the conscious recollection of the past
  – nondeclarative/procedural memory- reveals itself by the influence that past events have on a person’s current behavior

The division of long term memory

- Memory
  - Declarative
    - Episodic
    - Semantic
  - Nondeclarative
    - Skills
    - Priming
    - Simple Stimulus-Response Associations
LEARNING AND MEMORY APPROACH

• The information processing approach
• Computer metaphor
• Information processing involves
  – perception
  – attention
  – memory
Effects of aging on learning and memory

• Three different approaches to the study of age-related memory and learning deficits
  – neuroscience
  – information-processing
  – contextual
NEUROSCIENCE APPROACH

- Age-related memory deficits may be traced to change in brain function
- Structural changes occur at the neural level as we age, such as the emerge of senile plaques and neurofibrillary tangles
- Concentrations of neurotransmitters diminished with age
- These changes, along with cell death and atrophy, occur in varying degrees throughout the brain, but are specially prominent within the frontal cortex
• There are several ways in which age related deterioration of the frontal cortex explains the most prominent losses in explicit memory.
• The hippocampus and frontal cortex are involved in the automatic retrieval of declarative memories.
• Automatic retrieval occurs when an individual perceives a specific environmental cue so that a memory spontaneously pops into a person’s mind.
• Strategic retrieval occurs when a person is not provided with external cues to prime memory
• Retrieval of declarative memory requires a conscious, deliberate strategy
• Generating and using a retrieval strategy requires working memory
• Frontal cortex regulate working memory
INFORMATION-PROCESSING APPROACH

• Emphasizes the kinds of cognitive processes
• Some researchers have focused on the nature of age differences in the encoding, storage and retrieval aspects of memory
• Encoding refers to the registration or pick up of information
• Storage refers to the retention of information in memory
• Retrieval refers to finding or using information in memory

• Age-related encoding deficit
  – Elderly person are less capable of engaging in the organizational, elaborative and imagery process that are helpful in memory task
• Age related retrieval deficit
  – Older adults cannot develop the strategies that would help them find stored information
• Smith and Earles (1996) found that noncognitive mediators such as years of education and self-reported health status did little to attenuate the relationship between age and memory
### CONTEXTUAL APPROACH

- Suggests that age differences in memory can be explained by understanding the relationship between the characteristics of the memory task and the characteristics of the individual performing the task.
- Many characteristics of the task and of the person apart from age can determine performance in memory task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Whether one is a superior learner or has a good memory is relative to</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– The nature of the information to be learned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– The needs, abilities and motives of the individual involved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– The requirements of the situation in which one uses learning and memory skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• To understand learning and memory deficits among adults learners, it would be advantageous to
  – Identify the nature of the memory store involved
  – Identify what processes need to be strengthens
• Willis (1985) has advocated studying the adult learner in terms of efforts to enhance performance
  – The learner’s characteristics: Factual knowledge and existing skills that may interfere with the learning process
  – Activities/behaviors the individual is expected to engage: asking more questions, more effective rehearsal
  – Nature of the training/intervention program regarding content and process
  – The specific goal/behaviors the learner is expected to acquire

NORMAL VS PATHOLOGICAL MEMORY LOSS

• Apparent memory deficits
• Genuine memory deficits
APPARENT MEMORY DEFICITS

• Memory problems resulting from ineffective encoding and retrieval strategies
• It can be overcome by inducing individuals to process information more effectively or providing them with effective retrieval aids
• Normal elderly and depressives would be more like to experience apparent memory deficits

GENUINE MEMORY DEFICITS

• Memory problems that persist even after individuals have carried out effective encoding and retrieval activities
INTELLIGENCE, CREATIVITY & WISDOM

Mozart & Einstein
IQ > 160
What about yours?

unsatisfactory intelligence 2.3%
low intelligence 13.8%
average intelligence 34.1%
above average intelligence 13.8%
high intelligence 34.1%
superior intelligence 2.1%
exceptionally gifted intelligence 0.13%
INTELLIGENCE

• Intelligence is derived from Latin word that mean “to choose between” and “to make wise choices”.

• Today, Spearman (g-factor) & Binnet (first first intelligence assessment 1906) would conceptualize intelligence as a computer program that could solve a wide variety of problems.
INTELLIGENCE

• It refer to the range of behavior from dull to bright, slow-witted to quick witted or stupid to clever.

• Highly intelligence presumably makes it easier to use words and numbers correctly, to remember substantial amounts of information and to reason out the solutions problems of various kinds.

• The meaning of intelligence may vary from culture to culture.

• **Crystallized intelligence**
  – the extent to which individuals have incorporated the valued knowledge of their culture
  – Primary mental abilities – verbal comprehension, concept formation, logical reasoning, induction.

• **Fluid intelligence**
  – represents an individual’s ‘pure’ ability to perceive, remember and think about a wide variety of basic ideas.
  – Primary mental abilities – spatial reasoning, perceptual speed.
Intelligence and adult development

• The neofunctionalist approach – some intellectual decline may be seen with age but that stability and growth in mental function also can be seen across adulthood
  – Plasticity
  – Multidirectionality
  – Interindividual variability

PLASTICITY

• The range of functioning within an individual and the conditions under which a person’s abilities can be modified within a specific age range
MULTIDIRECTIONALITY

• The distinct patterns of change in abilities over the life span, with these patterns being different for the different abilities
INTERINDIVIDUAL VARIABILITY

• Acknowledges that adults differ in the direction of their intellectual development

Measurement of adult intelligence

• The psychometric approach
  – measuring intelligence as performance on standardized test.

• Weschler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS-R)
  – Wechsler, 1958
  – This test consist of subtests with vocabulary, arithmetic, comprehension & similarities - tapping language & numerical skills
  – The remaining 5 subtests make up a performance scale - picture completion, picture arrangement, block design, object assembly, & digit symbol substitution.
• The Intelligence Quotient (IQ)
  – The first intelligence test were constructed solely for children and young adolescence.
  – These test computed IQ by multiplying the ratio of mental age to chronological age by 100
    \[ \text{IQ} = \frac{\text{MA}}{\text{CA}} \times 100 \]
  – A child’s mental age was measured by the number of items passed on the IQ test.

Intelligence approach

• Organismic approach
  – exponent by Jean Piaget
  – explain intelligence development at species level
  – emphasize on children’s intelligence development and ending at adolescence stage with formal operation thinking.
    • age-related abilities deficit
    • abstract reasoning
Multiple Intelligence

- Multiple Intelligence approach
  - Howard Gardner
  - 7 types of intelligences
    - linguistic
    - musical
    - logical-mathematics
    - spatial
    - bodily-kinesthetic
    - intrapersonal
    - interpersonal
Triarchic process model

- Robert Sternberg
  - The intelligence is divided into 3 categories
    - Components
    - Contexts
    - Experience
Dual process model

• Dual process model involves
  – mechanic intelligence
  – pragmatic intelligence

Three-phase system model

• Developed by Marion Perlmutter
• A model of integrated intelligence
  – Processing – attention, perceptual speed, memory, reasoning (i.e. fluid/mechanical intelligence)
    • Started during childhood and stabilized until affected by health problems. Affected by age.
  – Knowing – memory storage of knowledge about the world (i.e. crystallized/pragmatic intelligence)
    • Relates to one’s experiences throughout life, a lifetime record.
    • Allows the shaping of behavior and prediction of events.
  – Thinking – metacognition, higher level of information processing and mental function (~formal operation, postformal operation, postoperational/dialectic thinking)
    • Understanding that change is consistent.
Factors Responsible for Developmental Changes in Intelligence

• Cohort Effects
  – Cohort means the generation one is born into or the year of one’s birth
  – In a cohort-sequential analysis showed that adult’s intellectual performance changed as a function of both age & cohort
  – Schaie (1994) - illustrates the profound influence of cohort effects on five different primary mental abilities
  – Baltes (1987) -3 different ways in which cohort differences can boost intellectual performance: education, health & work
• Selective Dropout
  – The selective dropout of participants may mean that longitudinal studies provide an overly optimistic view of adult intellectual change
  – Sample attrition because of unhealthy, unmotivated etc.

• Health
  – Older adults tend to have chronic illness than younger people are
  – The relatively poor health of the elderly population can bias both cross-sectional & longitudinal studies
• Terminal Drop
  – It refers to the tendency for an individual’s psychological and biological abilities to decrease dramatically in the last few years prior to death
  – It occurs when individual have chronic illness
  – The intelligence test score of older adults are much more likely to reflect terminal drop

• Mental Exercise and Training
  – Cognitive plasticity
    • suggests that older adults have substantial cognitive reserve capacity and that training makes use of untapped reserve
CREATIVITY

• The ability to produce novel ideas that are high in quality and task appropriate (Sternberg, 2001)

• Is one of the most ambiguous and confusing terms in psychology (Ausubel, 1968). He believes the term creativity should be reserved for people who make unique and original contributions to society - exceptional creativity

• Robert Weisberg
  – ordinary creativity - refers to creative behavior of “ordinary” adults in “ordinary” real life situations.

• Guildford
  – Divergent thinking - refers to the ability to produce many different answers to a single question
  – Convergent thinking - is the ability to derive the one correct solution to a problem.
WISDOM

• Wise persons have a good intellect and superior reasoning ability
• Wisdom is virtue, or pattern of behavior that society values highly.
• Wisdom is a good: personally desirable condition

• Psychologist perspective: involving three cognitive processes
  – Practical & social intelligent
  – Insight into the deeper meanings underlying a given situations
  – Awareness of the relative, uncertain, reflected in postformal thinking
• Baltes & Straudinger (1993) describe 4 characteristics of wisdom:
  – Wisdom deals with important and/or difficult matters of life and the human condition
  – Wisdom is truly “superior’ knowledge, judgment and advice
  – Wisdom is knowledge with extraordinary scope, depth and balance applicable to specific situations
  – Wisdom, when use, is well intended and combines and virtue

• Baltes & Staudinger developed 5 specific criteria for determining whether a person demonstrates wisdom:
  – Expertise in the practical aspects of daily living
  – Breadth of ability to define and solve problems
  – Understanding of how life problems differ across the life span
  – Understanding that the right thing to do depends on the values, goals and priorities one has
  – Recognition of the complexity, difficulty and uncertainty in problems one faces in life
• Baltes (1993) identifies 3 factors that help one become wise:
  – General personal conditions – eg. Mental ability, cognitive style.
  – Specific expertise conditions – eg. Training and mentoring.
  – Facilitative life contexts – eg. Education, leadership experiences, social colla
BIOLOGY OF AGING

Biological Aging

- Biologist & gerontologist used concept of senescence to explain biological aging
- Senescence or normal aging refers to a gradual, time related to biological process that takes places as degenerative processes overtake regenerative or growth processes.
**Characteristics of senescence are as follows:**
- The universal process
- The changes come from the organism itself
- The process occurred slowly
- The process contributes to deficit

**According to biological approaches, biological aging can be divided into 3 types**
- **Primary aging**
  - Is the basic, shared, inevitable set of gains or declines governed by some kind of maturational process
- **Secondary aging**
  - Is the product of environmental influences, health habits, or disease and is neither inevitable nor shared by all adults
- **Tertiary aging**
  - Refers to quickly deficit in the last few years prior to death
### BIOLOGICAL THEORIES ON AGING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROGRAMMED AGING</th>
<th>RANDOM EVENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Genetic life-span theory</td>
<td>• Wear and tear theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Genetic predisposition theory</td>
<td>• Rate of living theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Telomere theory</td>
<td>• Waste product accumulation theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Specific system theories</td>
<td>• Cross-linking theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Neuroendocrine theory)</td>
<td>• Free radical theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Autoimmune theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Error theories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Order to disorder theory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### PROGRAMMED AGING
Programmed Ageing

- Aging and death are genetically determined and are ‘programmed’ in organisms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birth</th>
<th>Reproduction</th>
<th>Senescence</th>
<th>Maximal lifespan</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humans</td>
<td>13.5 yrs</td>
<td>&gt;40 yrs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monkeys</td>
<td>4.5 yrs</td>
<td>&gt;20 yrs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mice</td>
<td>0.12 yrs</td>
<td>&gt;1 yr</td>
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</tbody>
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Figure 1: The life history events of mammals, such as development, reproduction, and aging, typically occur in proportion to the entire lifespan.

Genetic Life-span Theory

- The length of life is genetically programmed.
- One example is the lifespan of organisms.
- An organism’s life span is part of its genetic makeup.
Telomere theory

• Telomere is the tail of chromosome that is made of DNA but has no genetic information.

• Telomeres protect the ends of chromosomes from being degraded and fusing with other chromosome ends.
Telomere theory

• Telomere theory is based on the fact that every time a cell replicate, it loses part of its telomere.

• The older the cell (the more time it has divided), the shorter the length of telomeres.

• As the length of a telomere decreases, changes may occur in patterns of gene expression that could affect both the functioning of the cell and the organ system in which it operates.
Neuroendocrine Theory

• Focus on changes in the hypothalamus and pituitary gland that lead to decreased function of the endocrine system and widespread aging effects.
BIOLOGICAL THEORIES OF AGING

• Wear and tear theory
  – Suggest that the body is much like a machine
  – The human body ages because it “wears out” over time in response to the stresses of life
  – Some kinds of exertion or activity promote vitality and are essential to long life
  – Other kinds of stressful activities are detrimental to longevity
• Cellular theories
  – Hayflick
  • Cells grown in laboratory culture dishes only undergo a fixed number of divisions at most before dying, with the number of possible divisions dropping depending on the age of the donor organism
- **Cross-linking**
  - In which certain proteins in human cells interact randomly and produce molecules that get linked in such way as to make the body stiffer

- **Free radical**
  - Aging is due to molecules which are highly reactive chemicals produced randomly in normal metabolism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rate of Living Theories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- People are born with a limited amount of same substance, potential energy, or physiological capacity that can be expended at some rate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Programmed Cell Death</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Appears to be function of physiological processes, the innate ability to self-destruct, and the ability of dying cells to trigger key processes in other cells</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
• **Metabolic Theories**
  – Focus on the relationship between metabolic rate and aging

• **Somatic mutation theories**
  – Maintain that damage to or mutations in the DNA of somatic cell impair protein manufacture and therefore alter the structure and functions of cells, tissues and organs

• **Immune theory**
  – Points to programmed deterioration in the immune systems as a cause of reduced resistance and increased incidence of autoimmune disorders
Changes in Physical Appearance

- **Hair**
  - Gradual thinning & graying of the hair results from a cessation of pigment production of both men & women
  - Hair loss is caused by destruction of the germ centers that produce hair follicles
  - Men usually do not lose facial hair as they age
  - Women develop patches of hair on their face especially on their chin
In women, especially near menopause age as the ovary functions slow down then there can be more DHEA or androgens produced thus causing an increase in facial hair or hirsutism. As the woman begins to produce more androgens rather than estrogens she may begin to experience an increase in facial hair.

• Skin

- Epidermis
- Dermis
- Fatty Tissue
- Oil Gland
- Nerve
- Follicle
- Sweat Gland
- Epidermis (outer layer of skin)
- Dermis (inner layer of skin)
- Subcutis (beneath the skin)
• **Body build**
  - 2 noticeable changes occur in body build during adulthood
    • a decrease in height
    • fluctuations in weight
• Changes in the Skeletal System
  – The loss of bone
  – Osteoporosis – defined as a decrease in bone mass & strength
  – Osteoarthritis – a degenerative joint disease

• Changes in the Cardiovascular System
  – The main function of heart is pumping blood
  – Age-related structural changes in the heart
    • the accumulation of fat deposit
    • the stiffening of the heart muscle due to tissue changes
– Cardiovascular diseases
  • Ischemic heart disease
  • Cardiac Arrhythmias
  • Angina
  • Myocardial infarction
  • Atherosclerosis
  • Cerebrovascular Disease
  • Hypertension

• Changes in the Respiratory System
  – Age-related to structural and functional
  – With increasing age, the rib cage and the air passageways become stiffer
  – Changes in the maximum amount of air we can take into the lungs in a single breath
  – Respiratory disease
    • Emphysema
• Changes in the Immune system
  – The immune system is a fascinating array of cells and process
    • lymphocytes
    • antibodies
    • autoimmunity
  – Older adults’ immune systems take longer to build up defense against specific disease

• Changes in the Reproductive System
  – Women
    • The major reproductive change in women during adulthood is the loss of the ability to bear children
    • Begins in the 40s, as menstrual cycles become irregular and by the age of 50 to 55 it is usually complete - menopause
    • A variety of physical and psychological symptoms
  – Men
    • Men do not have a physiological & cultural event to mark reproductive changes.
    • Do experience a normative decline in the quantity of sperm
• Changes in the Sensory System
  – Vision

• The major changes in visual functioning can be grouped into 2 classes:
  I. changes in the structures of the eye
     » disease: cataracts & glaucoma
  II. changes in the retina
     » usually begin 50s
     » disease: macular degeneration & diabetic retinopathy

- Age-related decrease in the ability to focus on nearby objects: presbyopia
- Age-related decrease in the ability to see detail and to discriminate different visual patterns: acuity
- **Hearing**
  - Hearing loss with age is greatest for high pitched tones - presbycusis
  - Tinnitus

- **Taste**
  - Taste ability changes with age
– **Smell**
  - The ability to detect odors remains fairly intact until 60s, when it begins to decline fairly rapidly

– **Touch**
  - Age-related changes in touch

• **Changes in Digestive System**
  – Intestine
  – Liver
  – Gall-bladder
• Brain
  – Age related structural changes in the neuron
  – Alzheimer’s disease
Defining Health

• Developmental health psychology is the study of the interaction of age, behavior and health

• World Health Organization (WHO)
  – Physical, mental and social well-being
Factors contribute to health

- Life style
- Diet & nutrition
- Exercise
- Stress and coping
- Environment

PHYSICAL HEALTH

- Acute – physical problem occur in short period
- Chronic – physical problem occur in long period
CHRONIC DISEASE ISSUES

• Loss abilities are not only due to chronic disease
• Majority can do daily activities
• The tendency to get other diseases are high
• 4 interactive forces of development can help to understand disease situations
TYPE OF CHRONIC DISEASE

• Arthritis
  – Osteoarthritis
  – Rheumatoid arthritis
• Cardiovascular and cerebrovascular
• Diabetes mellitus
• Cancer

TYPE OF CHRONIC DISEASE

• Incontinence
  – Stress incontinence
  – Urge continence
  – Overflow incontinence
  – Functional incontinence
  – Iatrogenic incontinence
MENTAL HEALTH

• Mental health reflects the ability of an individual to deal with the issues of life in an effective way

MENTAL HEALTH

• Mentally healthy people possess the following characteristics
  – a positive self-attitude
  – an accurate perception of reality
  – environmental mastery
  – autonomy
  – personality balanced
  – psychological growth or self-actualization
MENTAL HEALTH

• Psychopathology or mental disorders refers to the failure to achieve a satisfactory integration of one’s self into one’s usual social milieu

• The study of psychopathology in adulthood and aging is not much the content of the behavior as its context, that is, whether it interferes with daily functioning

A Multidimensional Approach to Psychopathology

• Interpersonal factors
  – the nature of a person’s relationship with other people is a key dimension in understanding how psychopathology is manifested in adults of different ages.
A Multidimensional Approach to Psychopathology

• Intrapersonal factors
  – include such as age, gender, personality and cognitive abilities
  – all of these variables influence behaviors that people exhibit and affect our interpretation

• Biological and Physical Factors
  – Various chronic disease, limitation on functioning and other ailments can provide an explanation of behavior
  – Physical problems may provide clues about underlying psychological difficulties
A Multidimensional Approach to Psychopathology

• Life cycle factors
  – How one behaves at any point in adulthood is strongly affected by one’s experiences and the issues one is facing
  – The meaning of particular symptoms may change with age.

A Multidimensional Approach to Psychopathology

• Issues in clinical Assessment
  – Identification of mental disorders rests on accurate evaluation
  – Very few tests have been standardized with the elderly
  – Primary diagnostics guide - Diagnostics and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition Revised (DSM-IV) does not provide different lists of symptoms for each disorder.
Types of psychopathology problem

• Organic Brain Syndrome
  ▪ Impaired Memory
  ▪ Impaired Intellectual Capacity
  ▪ Impaired Judgment
  ▪ Impaired Orientation
  ▪ Excessive or Shallow Emotions

• Dysfunctional acute brain
  – Metabolism disruption all over brain

• Dysfunctional chronic brain
  – Alzheimer’s disease
    • Changes in the brain that characterize Alzheimer’s disease are microscopic
  – Multi-infarct dementia
  – Parkinson’s Disease
Types of psychopathology problem

- Syndrome non-organic brain
  - Schizophrenia – impairment of thought process
  - Paranoid – delusional or hallucinatory persecutory ideas
  - Suicide
  - Hypochondrias
  - Alcoholic

Types of psychopathology problem

- Depression
  - Feeling down or blues
- Treatment
  - Antidepressant medication
  - Electroconvulsive therapy
  - Psychotherapy
  - Combined antidepressant medication and Psychotherapy
DIABILITY IN LATE LIFE

• One of the defining characteristics of a chronic condition is that it lasts a long time
• Chronic disease typically involve some level of discomfort and physical limitation
• In the context of chronic conditions, disabilities refer to the effect that chronic conditions have on people’s ability to engage in activities that are necessary, expected and personally desired in their society

EXTRA-INDIVIDUAL FACTORS
• Medical care & rehabilitation
• Medications & other therapeutic
• External supports
• Built, physical & social environment

THE MAIN PATHWAY
Pathology ↔ Impairments → Functional limitations → Disability

RISK FACTORS

INTRA-INDIVIDUAL FACTORS
• Lifestyle & behavior changes
• Psychological attributes & coping
• Activity accommodations
AGEING AND SPIRITUALITY: Death, dying and bereavement

Definition of Dying

- Clinical Death
- Brain Death
- Social Death
- Psychic Death
Clinical Death

• Having one’s heart and breathing cease spontaneously and there are no reflexes

Brain Death

• One’s brain cell is dying
• All electrical activity in the brain, as determined by an electroencephalogram (EEG), has ceased for a specified period of time
Social Death

- Occurs when a person is abandoned by or isolated from others
- Often is expected to dies is talked about as if he or she were not present
- Critically ill adults and older people who are severely impaired, social death reflects the fact that their lives are seen finished even though they quite alive by other criteria

Psychic Death

- Individuals accept their fate and regress, a very severe and personal form of withdrawal
PERSONAL MEANINGS OF DEATH

- Death as loss
- Death as punishment and release
- Death as transition
- Death and the use of time

DEATH AS LOSS

- As Kalish (1976, 1985) has observed, death may mean losses of several kinds to different people
  - Loss of ability to have experiences
  - Loss of ability to predict subsequent events
  - Loss of our bodies
DEATH AS LOSS

- Loss of ability to care for people who are dependent on us
- Loss of a loving relationship with our family
- Loss of opportunity to complete treasured plans and projects
- Loss of being in a relatively painless state

DEATH AS PUNISHMENT AND RELEASE

- Punishment for one’s sin
- This is presumably linked to one’s belief about an afterlife
- Reynolds and Kalish (1976) found that while older people generally equated moral goodness with a longer life span, a majority those surveyed saw, particularly accidental death as retribution rather than seeing a long life as a reward
DEATH AS TRANSITION

• The person sees death as a stopping-off point
• What may or may not happen afterwards is really more important
• Feeling of death is also influenced by religious view
• What is meaningful about life is highly subjective and varies by age

DEATH AND THE USE OF TIME

• Death is an event that makes the dimension of time meaningful, as well as helping us to order our lives
• Our goals and accomplishments, our sense of the past, present and future as well as our relationships with others become meaningful to the extent that we know we will not live forever
Cultural meanings of death

- In studies of adults (e.g., Kalish, 1981; Kastenbaum & Herman, 1997; Ross & Pollio, 1991; Tamm, 1996), death has often been viewed as a personification (such as a grim reaper, gay seducer, or gentle comforter) or as a metaphor (e.g., a failing curtain).

Stages of grief for a dying person
(Kubler Ross, 1969)
Denial and Isolation

• “This is not happening to me”

Anger

• “How dare ____ do this to me?”
• God/the person who died/anger directed at self
Bargaining

• “Just let me live to see my son graduate”

Depression

• “I can’t bear to face going through this, putting my family through this.”
Acceptance and Hope

• “I’m ready, I don’t want to struggle anymore.”

“Without miracles, there are many, many ways of helping somebody, without a cure. So you have to be very careful how you word it. And you never, ever, ever take hope away from a dying patient. Without hope nobody can live. You are not God. You don’t know what else is in store for them, what else can help them, or how meaningful, maybe, the last six months of a person’s life are. Totally changed around.”
(“On Death and Dying: An Interview with Elizabeth Kubler-Ross”, Redwood, 1995)

GRIEF AND BEREAVEMENT

• Most bereaved individuals successfully overcome their grief without professional assistance.
• Grief refers to the sorrow hurt, anger, guilt, confusion and other feelings that arise after suffering a loss.
STAGES OF GRIEF

• Initial phase
  – when death occurs and for a weeks afterwards
  – Survivor’s reaction is shock, disbelief and numbness

STAGES OF GRIEF

• Intermediate phase
  – Several weeks after death
  – Bereaved person thinks about the death a great deal
  – Survivors try to understand why the person died
  – People search for the decease
STAGES OF GRIEF

• Recovery phase
  – Often results from a conscious that continued dwelling on the past is pointless and that one’s life needs to move forward

HOSPICE CARE

• Hospice care for the terminally ill has emerged as viable alternative to hospital care
• Characteristics of hospice care include:
  1. Pain and symptom control
  2. Alleviating isolation
  3. Physician-directed services
  4. Treatment on 24-hour-per-day basis, for both patient and family
5. Involvement of an interdisciplinary team
6. Bereavement follow-up for the family after death
7. Use of volunteers
8. Opportunities for staff support of one another, to lessen burnout and facilitate their own grief when a patient dies

**EUTHANASIA**

- Euthanasia means “good death”
- Comparatively recent advances in medical technology that allow for the extension of human life indefinitely
Euthanasia

• **Active euthanasia** – defined as taking active measures to end someone’s life to relieve needless suffering or to preserve individual dignity.

• **Passive euthanasia** – defines as failing to use life saving measures that might prolong someone’s life, may be more acceptable