

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT AND FAITH



Second Edition

**LIFE-CYCLE STAGES
OF BODY, MIND, AND SOUL**

Edited by
FELICITY B. KELCOURSE

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ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI

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*To my family, Paul, Rosalind, Jon, and Paul
To my parents, Gioia and Mitchell
To my students and colleagues at Christian Theological Seminary
With gratitude for all I have learned from you*

Preface

What does it mean to be “normal”—to have a “good enough” life? Human development confronts us with these questions. What does it mean to “have faith,” to be a person of faith? The answers we find will influence our sense of self, others, and God. These answers necessarily depend on the physical and mental aptitudes, personality, life circumstances, and culture of individuals and their families. Each generation promotes implicit norms. To live outside these norms can be painful, alienating, or dangerous, requiring a search for new meanings.

How This Book Began

In my mid-thirties I faced a developmental roadblock. A “Baby Boomer” (chapter 2), raised in an extended family with 10 aunts and uncles and 21 first cousins, I saw marriage and parenthood as predictable stages of young adulthood. I married a fellow seminarian at the age of 25. Ten years and three pregnancy losses later, I was told that I would never give birth. I was angry. How was it possible that my life was not unfolding as I believed it should?

Across time and culture, people make meaning of their lives in relation to embodiment, with its stages of maturation, and in response to the formative power of society, within group norms. Our experience of embodiment is dictated in part by biology; we approach life differently depending on whether we are female or male, old or young, healthy or ill, physically average and neurotypical or differently abled. Acculturation begins with our family of origin and extends its influence at the interface between individuality and society through the barriers and expectations attributed to gender and sexuality, ethnicity, economic class, religion, community, nationality, and generation.

People who have experienced culture shock know that the cocoons of predictable behavior our home culture takes for granted are only “normal” until they are challenged. In the 21st century, cultures once separated by geographic distance are increasingly at odds, conflicts fueled by disparate worldviews. The possibility of peace begins with a sincere attempt to understand the “otherness” of those who oppose us—to be genuinely curious about our differences, even though we may profoundly disagree. But there is a prior step. We are not ready for dialogue with other cultures until we have taken a good look at our own. Having a deeper appreciation of ourselves is a prerequisite for understanding the “other” (Cooper-White, 2011).

There is more than one kind of culture shock. When I was told at the age of 35 that I would never give birth, I felt shock, anger, and disbelief. Marriage and children went hand in hand—that was the way life should be, or so I thought. For some women and men there is no shock in being childless because they have

consciously chosen that path. Our desires and expectations are influenced by the contexts of persons, places, and times that surround us, combining with our own inner awareness of calling to shape the narrative of our lives.

The distress I experienced at being a childless young adult can be observed in parents when a child dies, in couples when marriages end in divorce, in single people who never find the mate they hoped for, or in workers “downsized” from jobs they had hoped to keep until retirement. We grieve these losses in part because they don’t fit our sense of the way life should be. We feel wrong or out of place, and we envy those around us who live in the “normal” world where children live, marriages endure, everyone finds a mate, no one gets fired—a world in which our sense of who we are as valued persons is reflected back to us by the culture at large (Mitchell & Anderson, 1983; Graham, 1992; Stevenson-Moessner & Snorton, 2010).

In truth, no one lives a “normal” life. Every life has unexpected losses, painful experiences of exclusion, events that do not conform to our preconceived plans. Students struggling with the pressures of familial and cultural expectations sometimes get angry in a human development class. They will say, “Are you telling me I’m not normal because I’m single at 40; gay; voluntarily childless; a full-time dad or a mom with a demanding career; physically, mentally, or emotionally challenged; or culturally or ethnically ‘other’? Sure, my life is more complicated than some people’s, but I’m happy. Who are you to say that the way I live my life is wrong?”

Labeling each other “normal” or “wrong” is not the point. What *is* important is that we become conscious of the realities within us and around us. Women who choose to give birth have a finite biological window within which natural conception can occur. We all grow old and die—if we’re lucky enough not to die young. Our limits, biological and temporal, are a fact of life. Recognizing these limits will not change them, but it does encourage us to make a conscious, deliberately chosen response to the questions life brings.

Culture also limits us. In prior generations it was not acceptable for women to earn advanced degrees and maintain professional careers, especially when married with children. In North America it was not acceptable for people of color, male or female, to attain leadership positions in a predominantly white society. Until recently it was considered unacceptable for men to be full-time parents while their wives worked outside the home to support the family. Heterosexual women, gay men, and lesbians are still barred from congregational leadership in many religious groups. Transgender youth too often find themselves at odds with family and society when those around them can’t imagine what it’s like to have a body that doesn’t match one’s sense of self. Those whose lives do not conform to the dominant cultural template—whether because they are single, disabled, an ethnic minority, homosexual, or transgender—cannot take social acceptance for granted. That a few individuals in every generation have been exceptions to the rules only makes the rules more obvious to the rest of us. We defy the conventions of our generation and society

at our peril. The costs include ridicule, harassment, intimidation, implacable oppression, even death. It takes faith—the ability to hope for things unseen (Heb. 11:1)—to follow a calling our culture has not condoned.

Studying human development has helped me to understand why my experience of not being “normal,” not living life as I expected it to unfold, was so distressing for me at the time. Given the traditional family context in which I was raised, being barren might have called the meaning of my life into question, had it not been for faith. Through the affirmations of my Quaker faith I knew that my life—and all life—has intrinsic worth; every person on earth is created in the image and likeness of a loving God (Gen. 1:26–27). Because I had faith, I also had hope that out of my personal young adult dilemma new opportunities might appear. And they have. By faith I knew that love is stronger than blood; at the age of 38, I became the mother of an adopted baby girl who remains a source of wonder as a young adult. The sorrow I experienced in my thirties drew me to my present vocation as a pastoral psychotherapist and theological educator, teaching pastoral care and counseling.

The first edition of *Human Development and Faith* was published in 2004, the year I received tenure at Christian Theological Seminary. What made that year momentous in the life of our family was the birth of our twin sons, Jonathan and Paul, conceived in my late 40s—too old, some would say, even for a woman whose grandmother lived to be 102. What I have lost in not being a young mother I hope to have gained in wisdom. I celebrate our boys—a belated answer to prayer.

Without faith, our lives are incomplete. What is the point of being born if mere “normalcy” is the best we can hope for on the way to death? In the presence of faith, all of life takes on meaning, including events that call our present meanings into question. With faith we refuse to despair, wrestling the angel of death to find answers even in the midst of what could be seen as the ultimate defeat, the end of life (chapter 14).

Welcome to the Second Edition

This newly revised second edition will prove useful to students of human development, parents, pastors, chaplains, theological educators, and psychotherapists. All chapters contain updated references. The Introduction and chapters 1, 2, 5, 8, and 9 have been extensively rewritten to include new material about family systems theories, generational cohorts, pre-natal and infant development, as well as the needs of school age children and young adolescents. New authors Denise Senter, Jacqueline Braeger, and Arthur Canales present their distinctive expertise (see “About the Authors”). This text, though limited to a North American cultural perspective, strives to be mindful of differences related to ethnicity, culture, and class, as well as to LGBTQ¹ concerns. While most authors write from Protestant or Catholic faith perspectives, a broad definition of faith as the search for hope and meaning is intended to welcome those of all faiths and none.

My own understanding of what it means to be human is necessarily limited by my social location as a middle-class, Anglo-American woman. But it has been my privilege to spend seven years living outside my own country—in France, England, and Jamaica. As a foreigner I learned what it’s like to be the “other.” I am grateful for the diverse perspectives the contributors to this collection represent based on their various ethnic, religious, theological, and theoretical perspectives. While this book emphasizes what we have in common as human beings, our biological, cultural, generational, and individual differences demand to be honored. Each one of us is both fully human and fully unique. The contributors write from their distinct experiences about aspects of life recognizable to us all.

Notes

¹The acronym LGBTIQ stands for lesbian, bi-sexual, gay, transgender, inter-sex and questioning in an attempt to name the varieties of human sexuality and gender expression that have existed through human history. See (Kraus & Schertz, 2011).

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Jon Berquist's initiative as former academic editor for Chalice Press launched the 2004 edition of *Human Development and Faith*. His successor, the late Jane McAvoy, brought the original project to completion. I'm grateful that Brad Lyons, current publisher for Chalice Press, readily embraced the need for a second edition given the proven usefulness of the first.

As I continue to work at the interface between psychology and faith, members of the Society for Pastoral Theology, the American Association of Pastoral Counselors, the Psychology Culture, and Religion Group of the American Academy of Religion, the American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy, Spiritual Directors International, and the Association for Clinical Pastoral Education have provided encouragement and inspiration. Contributors to this project—including Pamela Cooper-White, Edward Wimberly, Ron Nydam, Alice Graham, Monica McGoldrick, and Russell Davis—are all persons whose work I have come to know and appreciate in the context of these professional organizations. The contributions of Karen-Marie Yust, Terrill Gibson, Vivian Thompson, Bonnie Cushing, Bernie Lyon, and Claude Barbre have stood the test of time. I am particularly grateful to Denise Senter, Arthur Canales, and Jacqueline Braeger for contributing their respective expertise to this new edition.

In terms of professional growth and development I have benefited immensely from support and encouragement received from the faculty, staff, and trustees of Christian Theological Seminary (CTS). Our former Dean, Edwin Aponte, made it possible for me to continue to rely on the excellent editing services of Joyce Krauser, our former faculty assistant. Joyce was a faithful and meticulous collaborator through the necessary revisions. I thank Andrea Barbour for her help in preparing the table of MFT theories (based on the work of Dr. Thorana Nelson and her students) that appears in chapter 1. Raymond G. Mills supplied new images to represent the play therapy sand trays in chapter 8. Ellen Corcella and Maureen Sweeney contributed timely final revisions. While I have learned from all my faculty colleagues since joining the CTS faculty in 1996, I am especially grateful for my present collaborators in the Pastoral Theology field: K. Brynolf Lyon, Suzanne Coyle, Matthias Beier, Jacqueline Braeger, and Christina Davis.

Gratitude begins at home. My parents, Mitchell and Gioia Brock, have offered faithful support over the years. My students, who continue to read and respond annually to *Human Development and Faith*, are the direct beneficiaries. As this book attests, one grows to maturity in an interpersonal context; I give thanks for family, friends, teachers, colleagues, students, and clients who create the context for lifelong learning.

Paul, my husband of over 30 years, the father of our three children, knows that love is spelled T-I-M-E. Without his faithful presence in our lives we would not be the family we are today. Rosalind is now a young adult, Jonathan and Paul are in middle school. I hope we will have many more years to learn from one another. All is well that love and faith inspire.

Felicity Brock Kelcourse
Indianapolis, October 2014

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INTRODUCTION

Human Development and Faith

Felicity Brock Kelcourse

I have nothing to offer except a way of looking at things.

ERIK ERIKSON, *CHILDHOOD AND SOCIETY*

"Daughter, your faith has made you well; go in peace."

MARK 5:34

To live is to change, ready or not. Individuals, communities, and societies continually adjust their ways of looking at things in response to changing contexts. Counterbalancing the forces of change is a hunger for continuity, for principles to live by—discernment that leads beyond mere survival to a good greater than ourselves, a faith that makes us whole.

Psychological theories attempt to bring order to the comparative chaos of lived experience. Theories of human development consider the predictable physiological and psychological changes that attend growth, maturation, and aging. In this book, 20th- and 21st-century theories provide a “way of looking at things.” Equally important, however, are the lives of individuals, including contributors to this volume, whose diverse histories and personalities inform both their points of view and their concern for faith as a foundational dimension of life. Faith is the ground on which we stand to face life’s challenges and mysteries; it is both an attitude of trust and a way of finding meaning in life as it unfolds. Faith as the capacity to hope, the ability to find and make meaning, grounds our awareness of self, others, and God.

This book aims to address two central questions. First, in each phase of life, from birth to death, what are the “good-enough”¹ conditions of parenting,

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family, and community that support the growth and development of persons? Those who receive what they need to thrive from their environment are capable, in turn, of forming loving families and resilient neighborhoods, perpetuating the beneficent contexts that brought them into being. The theoretical task of human development is at once normative and idealistic—to describe, define, and advocate for the conditions of “good-enough” growth and health, individually, interpersonally, and for all persons regardless of gender, age, race, ability, sexuality, ethnicity, culture, or other differences. In practice, however, differences matter. Readers are invited to interrogate any theory that does not fit their life experience.

The second question is equally fundamental. What gives life adequate meaning as development proceeds? When we face the inevitable changes that life brings, what perspectives encourage commitment, enthusiasm, or *joie de vivre* (LaMothe, 2005)? What imparts the strength of will to endure present deprivation in hope of a future good? Faith informs the lives of those who meet life’s inevitable sorrows with determined courage, even joy. In many religious traditions, including but not limited to Christianity, faith is the attitude of trust in the One who first loved us. Trust makes possible an abiding confidence in the face of fear, anxiety, doubt, and death (Tillich, 1952). In the words of Job, “Though God slay me, yet will I trust God” (Job 13:15 KJV, paraphrased).²

If human development describes the normative and hoped-for passages of life, then faith provides the necessary components of meaning—the foundational structures of experience and belief that allow us to weather the storms of change with fortitude and grace. Throughout the various perspectives offered in this volume, we present this theme: faith is that quality of living that makes it possible to fully live.

What Is Human Development?

Human development can be briefly defined as the physical, mental, and relational changes that occur as human beings are born, mature, age, and die. This definition includes those aspects of human experience that can be objectified by one person observing another. But human beings also have inner lives. Intrapsychic, or inward and subjective, changes are more difficult to identify and are by definition unique to individuals, even though they may have much in common with the experience of others. Not all developmental theories attend to the inner lives of persons.

Because questions of faith necessarily address human interiority, this volume focuses on *depth psychologies* that consider the inner lives of persons as interpersonally expressed and on theories of *cognitive-structural-constructive development* that describe individuals’ interpersonal expressions of meaning in the context of community.³ Too much focus on individual experience gives the false impression that individuals exist in a vacuum, apart from the constant presence of external influence. To counter this individualistic tendency in

depth psychology, *family systems theory* reminds us to think systemically about the interpersonal, temporal, cultural, and environmental contexts in which individual lives unfold.

Basic Assumptions of Human Development

The study of human development has evolved in relation to basic principles or formative questions that are often presented as dichotomies. In this volume the emphasis will be on the dialogue between understandings of human life that may be distinct but that need not be understood as separate.

Nature versus nurture: Which came first, the chicken or the egg? Theorists who favor nature, following Darwin (1809–1882), would say that since it contains the DNA required to become a chicken, the egg must come first. The nature argument is similar to an essentialist perspective, which says that differences between humans, including gender and ethnicity, are biologically based. Such an approach could be used to support racism or sexism, but the mere fact of recognizing basic biological differences and their impact on our personhood need not be negative. One could argue, for example, that women do, in fact, experience the world differently from men due to their different physiology and biochemistry (S. E. Taylor et al., 2000). John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth, cited in chapter one, are influenced by ethological theories derived from Darwin's work.⁴

On the chicken, or nurture side, are those who point out that the chicken's contribution to laying the egg and hatching it is imperative for the egg's existence and survival. This theory parallels the approach of *constructivists*, who say that groups of individuals develop as they do and express themselves differently from other groups primarily due to their socialization in families and in culture. This approach, when applied to gender, class, and ethnicity, describes and defines the ways in which humans may or may not be considered different from one another. From this perspective, biology is not destiny. Rather, as human beings, we are all products of our social context (Stevenson-Moessner & Snorton, 2010). Family systems theorists are constructivists, since they emphasize the importance of family and societal nurture for healthy development.

When these two perspectives – nature/essentialist and nurture/constructivist—are so starkly contrasted it becomes clear that, far from being discontinuous, they are necessarily interdependent—no chicken without an egg; no egg without a chicken. In human terms, we might say that while individuals are born with a distinct *personality* that constitutes their basic individual nature, the way that nature finds expression in the world is likely to be distinctively influenced by the kinds of nurture—or neglect—that individuals receive from the families, communities, and cultures around them.

Other dichotomies are similar: organism versus environment (ontogeny), or the developmental history of an individual versus phylogeny—the

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evolutionary journey of a species (K. Richardson, 2000). In each case above, either the experience of individuals is subsumed by the emphasis on a group or on the species as a whole (phylogeny), or, alternatively, the emphasis on general human experience is largely ignored in favor of the development of individuals (ontogeny). Once again, these are clearly not categories that can or should be separated. Individuals are dependent on *both* their biology *and* their environment; the development of an individual during one lifetime builds on the evolutionary and cultural accomplishments of prior generations. Learning takes place both because we are “hardwired” to develop in certain ways, as in our predisposition to acquire language as children (Singleton, 1989), and because our families and cultures encourage us to learn, hopefully in ways that are responsive to our individual gifts and abilities (Gardner, 1983).

Schemas, phases, and stages: Schemas represent the basic patterns of awareness we develop beginning in infancy and throughout life. A baby will smile with fresh delight each time a red ball is rolled across a sunny room. An adult will look at the ball rolling once, then turn away. Schemas are essential in making sense of the world. They can also categorize experience so rigidly that there is no room left for a new way of seeing things. Clearly a balance between the baby’s open-minded wonder and the adult’s structured alienation from present sensation is desirable. Daniel Stern (2000) describes schemas as RIGS, or Representations of Interactions that have been Generalized. He notes that language is a “double-edged sword”: while it facilitates our communication with others using socially recognized thought structures, it also has the potential to alienate us from the vividly “amodal” quality of preverbal experience (see chapter 5).

Developmental “phase” sounds less rigid than “stage.” Erikson’s (1950/1963) stage theory has been criticized for implying that human development is necessarily linear rather than cyclical or episodic (Knefelkamp, 1990; chap. 3). Robert Kegan’s (1982) emphasis on the developmental spiral of “evolutionary truces” between independence and inclusion serves as a necessary corrective to an overly linear understanding of stages (chap. 1). The point to remember here is that stages are simply ways of describing observable shifts in the life cycle, some of which, like menarche (the onset of menstruation), are based on human physiology. Other changes—the transition from middle to late adulthood, for example—are more subtle and dependent on factors such as individual health and cultural expectations.

Erikson’s stage theory serves as a template for this book because it considers the life cycle from birth through old age and clearly places individual experience within the context of culture. Erikson’s stages should not be seen as hierarchical; each stage has its own value. In many respects the earliest stages are the most important, the foundation for later stages (Capps, 1983). Erikson’s work also has been criticized by feminists (Stevenson-Moessner, 2000b; Cross & Madson, 1997; Gilligan, 1993), who hold that his stages do not reflect the

normative developmental crises and opportunities of women's lives, and by others who see his work as primarily applicable to Western societies (Sue & Sue, 2012; Markus & Kitayama, 1993). Despite these shortcomings, Erikson's stages have proven their usefulness for a basic understanding of developmental issues relevant for pastoral care and counseling in many North American and United Kingdom settings (Watts, Nye, & Savage, 2002; Capps, 1983; and E. & J. Whitehead, 1982). The critiques just cited apply to developmental theory in general. Erikson's contribution to developmental theory is noted in chapter 1.⁵

Developmental lines: Anna Freud (1963) is credited with the concept of developmental lines. Virtually anything we consider as an aspect of human experience—sexuality, aggression, separation, individuation, etc.—can be represented as a developmental line. Sexuality, for example, broadly defined to include all aspects of love—affiliative, compassionate, and erotic—exists in age-appropriate forms throughout life. The infant, in its tiny body, is able to passionately love his or her mother and father, as expressed through need, joy in greeting, and mourning in separation. The widower in a nursing home may decide to remarry at 90 because the need to express physical affection is a human urge that accompanies us from birth to death. The concept of developmental lines lends continuity to the apparent discontinuity of developmental transitions. In chapter 7, for example, the Oedipal theory of male gender identity is expanded to include the story of Electra, considering the Oedipal/Electral experience as an element of every person's journey through life.

We are all the ages we have ever been. Students new to developmental theory sometimes express disinterest in the earliest stages of life. They reason that if they can't remember anything that happened to them before the age of 4 and don't have immediate plans to work with preschoolers or raise children, there is really no point in attending to early human development. On the contrary, it is precisely the early experiences of which we are least conscious that play the most forceful role in structuring our view of the world. It is not until problematic early memories are made conscious that we can truly say we have a choice about the meanings we make. For this reason psychoanalytic theories, including Erikson's stage theory, treat the earliest pre-Oedipal (prior to age 3) dimensions of human experience as foundational. In this view, problems in later life can result from early, unresolved developmental challenges; conversely, the healing of early and later wounds can take place in adulthood. Both faith communities and psychotherapy provide opportunities for reparation and redemption. Parents, schools, and religious educators can support the future physical, emotional, and spiritual health of children by understanding and attending to their present developmental needs. Because we are "all the ages we have ever been," adult children of widowed or divorced parents planning to remarry should not be surprised to find their aging parents behaving like giddy adolescents when they find a new love.

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Critiques of Human Development

Theories of human development are not without their detractors. Feminists and Womanists rightly point out that many developmental theories are based on studies of middle-class Caucasian males who are assumed to represent “normal” human development in global terms (Miller & Scholnick, 2000). Carol Gilligan (1993) and Mary Field Belenky (1997) have endeavored to correct this imbalance by attending to women’s experiences and articulating the meanings implicit in what women say. Robert Coles (1972) has reported the life experiences of persons living in minority, poor white, and migrant worker communities whose voices are not often heard in academic discourse.

Other scholars aver that many developmental theories presented as being universally true do not translate well cross-culturally (Sue & Sue, 2012). This book does not purport to address the cross-cultural critique of developmental theories beyond passing allusions to the problem, but the reader is hereby reminded that cultural contexts influence all our ways of seeing and being in the world. That said, it does appear that certain structures of human experience, such as the incest taboo on which Sigmund Freud (1905/1953) based his Oedipal theory, exist in cultures worldwide.⁶

Studies have criticized the theoretical assumptions of developmental psychology (Morss, 1996) and the field of developmental psychology as a scholarly discipline (Broughton, 1987). In *Deconstructing Developmental Psychology*, Erica Burman (1994) notes that developmental theory can be negatively used to pathologize those who do not conform to its models. The authors of chapter 11 in this volume consider the ways in which mothers have carried the burden of developmental expectations in relation to their children, while the father’s role in parenting has been devalued. These are crucial concerns to bear in mind when we venture to describe the “good-enough” family.

Since the present book is intended as an introduction to the subject of human development from the perspective of faith, these critiques are not considered at length. The fact that developmental theories are not without flaws attests to the difficulties inherent in self-observation. The subject of human development is us—humankind. While we share much in common, any attempt to generalize about human experience from the perspective of one group (in this case, primarily North Americans) is bound to appear inadequate to others. Social power remains a factor as well. Privileged groups are more likely to speak and be heard, and in so doing claim the power to name reality. The impact of racism and all forms of discrimination on individuals and families is considered throughout our presentation of development (see especially chapters 3, 4, 10, and 11).

While this book covers three broad spectra of developmental theory—depth psychology, cognitive-structural-constructive, and family systems theories—the full theoretical spectrum is far more diverse (Crain, 2011). The theories presented here have been chosen both for their breadth and for their

relevance to questions of faith. Suggestions for further readings can be found at the end of this Introduction.

What Is Faith?

Theories of human development and faith development seek to address essential aspects of our lives. Having reviewed basic theoretical assumptions in human development, it makes sense to consider definitions of faith before asking the question: “Does faith develop?” It is beyond the scope of this book to consider in their full range the philosophical and theological dimensions of faith. In this context it is sufficient to approach faith from the standpoint of theological anthropology. How does the presence or absence of faith affect human relationships, whether with oneself, others, or God?

*Basic Assumptions about Faith*⁷

Faith as trust versus faith as cognition: When we consider the etymology of the word *faith* two separate Latin meanings appear. *Fiducia* refers to a trusting and confident attitude toward God and others. *Fides* is defined as a cognitive state in which people are said to know God or have knowledge of God (Hick, 1966). *Fides* could include those who, like Einstein, believe in God because they see creation as too sublimely ordered to be random. *Fides* might also refer to non-ordinary religious experiences such as miracles or visions reported in biblical narratives and by mystics of all times and places, since such experiences are noetic, conveying a strong sense of meaning (James, 1900/2013). Although James Fowler (1981/1995) and other structural developmental theorists tend to speak of faith primarily in intellectual terms, the fonts of faith are deeper and broader than conscious thought. The trusting confidence of *fiducia* can be understood as an aspect of faith that is our human birthright, one that can be nurtured, damaged, or destroyed by our families, through our own actions, or by the communities in which we live.

In anthropological terms, a trusting faith is foundational. Without a prior orientation of trust toward God, knowledge of God would be unlikely. In chapter 2, faith as basic trust is presented as a red thread that links all our experiences of receptivity to self, to others, and to God. Yet without reflection on experience, basic trust may remain static and mute, unable to mature in response to changing circumstances (Fowler, 1996; chap. 1).

Propositional faith versus religious experience: It is not necessary to have *fides* in the sense of felt religious experience to live a life of faithful commitment to a good that is greater than ourselves. Faith is not only a product of religious experience; in theological terms, faith is also relational. Like the hemorrhaging woman, we intuitively reach out to God as a source of health and healing (Mk. 5:25–34). But God also reaches toward us. Persons whose religious experiences, often arising in times of crisis, have proven fruitful in their lives will agree with Carl Gustav Jung’s answer when asked if he believed in God: “I don’t believe, I know” (Meany, 1990).

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Without the eternal light of religious experience, there would be no sacred texts, no saints, and no history of faith. Yet propositional faith, as expounded in the foundational statements and creeds of faith communities, provides the language through which religious experience can be shared and expressed. Propositional faith also establishes norms for fruitful faith. If faith is entirely individual, subjective, and egocentric, it will generally fail to communicate well as a source of inspiration for others, and it may even result in beliefs or behaviors destructive to self and others. Fruitful faith proves its value not only to individuals but also to the faith communities that surround them.

Nature versus grace: Faith is recognized in community by its fruits; yet it is ours by grace, not by works. Questions about the relationship between faith and grace are comparable in some ways to the “chicken and egg” question of nurture versus nature. Is there something inherently divine within us, wisdom deeper than the individual ego’s voice, available to guide us if we will listen? Or are human beings incapable of seeing beyond our own immediate experiences of alienation and brokenness unless an Other—God, the Holy One—initiates contact and offers comprehension of faith through the gift of grace? Simone Weil (1951) writes that our desire “draws down God.” Even theologians who favor divine transcendence over immanence also emphasize our freedom before God (Barth, 1928). In this respect, faith is ours to claim or reject; it is never coerced.⁸

Belief versus disbelief: If faith is our ability to trust in the reality and goodness of things not seen, it is also important that we practice discernment in relation to what we refuse to believe. Many faith traditions are based on hierarchical dualisms that elevate one aspect of human experience or humanity by debasing another. Such dualisms—soul⁹ versus body, male versus female, Christian versus Jew or Moslem, humanity versus the rest of creation—have often contributed to atrocities committed in the name of religion. In *Not Every Spirit: A Dogmatics of Christian Disbelief*, Christopher Morse (1994) makes the case that what we refuse to believe, and why, can be as important as what we choose to affirm (M. Miller, 2013). Statements of disbelief can help us recognize our own “shadow”—those disavowed parts of ourselves that we so easily project and persecute in the person of the rejected “other.”

Because faith can take toxic as well as beneficial forms, the nature and tenets of our faith need to be constantly re-examined. Without openness to new experience, any expression of faith can become at best limiting and at worst deadly rather than life affirming. When faith is beneficent it draws us into closer, trusting, more loving and just relationships with ourselves, others, and God (LaMothe, 2001).

FAITH AND GOD

Faith is still faith whether it deliberately calls on God or not. When one professor of religion hears students say they don’t believe in God, he replies, “Tell me about the god you don’t believe in—I probably don’t believe in that

god either” (James Jones, personal communication, 1994). God images can be problematic if they are based on negative experiences with one’s parents, who represent the love (or neglect) of God to a small child, or on theologies that instill fear, hatred, or rejection of self and others (Beier, 2006; Armistead, 1995; Rizzuto, 1979. See chap. 2).

The religious imagination of many Christians is thoroughly steeped in biblical and theological traditions that seek God through the way of abundant life (Jn. 10:10; C. Williamson, 1999). Abundant life is known by its fruits: we feel more courageous, loving, and connected; better able to share our talents; and respectful of other persons and of the living systems that sustain us.¹⁰ These are useful criteria by which the meaning adequacy of any faith or representation of God may be judged (Buber, 1936/1970; H. R. Niebuhr, 1962; Morse, 1994; Brock, 1988; McFague, 1987).

There are no atheists in foxholes.¹¹ Even those who do not normally address God except to swear are likely to utter heartfelt prayers when their lives are threatened. All traditional human cultures point to some form of higher power. While the elephant-headed Ganesh of Hinduism might superficially bear little resemblance to the crucified God of Christianity or the no-god of Theravada Buddhism, world religions are like wells that draw from a common underground river of faith (M. Fox, 2000). In an age when Teilhard de Chardin’s (1969) “noosphere” has found concrete expression through the Internet, it behooves us to be respectful of those whose statements of faith may take different forms from our own.

Yet the differences we find in religious traditions are also significant. If the freedom and courage for all persons to express their God-given sense of vocation for the benefit of their communities are criteria for fullness of life in faith, we may be inclined to judge some traditions as more faithful than others. Many religious traditions still limit the vocations of women and enforce a heterosexual male norm. Religion and other traditions form cultural templates, structures of perception within which the potential raw material of faith can either thrive or be thwarted. From the perspective of liberation theology, a God of love cannot condone oppression in any form (Freire, 1972; Lartey, 2003).

In the considerations of faith that follow in this chapter and in chapter 2, the living, available presence of God is assumed, based on the human tendency to imagine, desire, and seek the God of our understanding and the way of abundant life for ourselves and others (A. Ulanov, & B. Ulanov, 1991). This is not meant to imply that God is only a projected wish or an illusion, as Freud (1927/1953) maintained. Nor do I mean to suggest that God is a passive, distant entity that winds the universe up like some immense clock and then withdraws. By grounding this presentation of faith in human experience, I recognize that the fullness of God in God’s-self is essentially unknowable to humankind. This is hardly surprising; even human beings in intimate relationships remain in many ways unknown to themselves and each other. Yet we recognize ourselves and those around us through memory and predictable

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patterns of behavior. In like manner, religious traditions seek to remember and represent patterns of experience in the lives of individuals and communities that reflect and personify their knowledge of the divine. In the religious traditions of Judaism and Christianity, for example, two salient attributes of God include *hesed* (steadfast, abiding love), and God's concern for justice, or *shalom* (peace, prosperity, well-being, completeness), both implying a preference for harmony in creation based on the value of all life. As one might search for a familiar face in a crowd, faith communities identify God's presence in history by seeking evidence of God's love and justice.

DOES FAITH DEVELOP?

Faith is an intrinsic element in our lives. But faith as an attitude of trust is not equally available to all people at all times. People experiencing severe panic attacks fear that the ground might open up and swallow them. Most of us have never known such an extreme loss of faith, but many have known a transitory or chronic loss of hope and meaning. In chapter 2, an exploration of faith across the life cycle, faith is considered as a birthright, the voice of the soul available to us throughout life if we will heed it (Kelcourse, 2001). Faith can also be understood as conscious rational assent. This aspect of faith may change as we are exposed to new ideas. While on their way to new theological worldviews, conservative students in liberal seminaries typically experience a transitory loss of faith when their views are questioned. Whatever our theological orientation, we can choose to be open to God's call or closed to it, voluntarily enhancing or diminishing our access to a confident awareness of faith as God's gracious presence.

James Fowler (1981/1995) encourages reflection on the significance of faith when he asks, "On what or whom do you set your heart?" (p. 14). Fowler notes that faith is deeper and more personal than religion or belief. Faith is the orientation of the whole person to "the dynamic, patterned process by which we find life meaningful" (p. 3). In a more formal definition, Fowler (1996) states:

Faith...may be characterized as an integral, centering process, underlying the formation of beliefs, values, and meanings, that (1) gives coherence and direction to persons' lives, (2) links them in shared trusts and loyalties with others, (3) grounds their personal stances and communal loyalties in a sense of relatedness to a larger frame of reference, and (4) enables them to face and deal with the limiting conditions of human life, relying upon that which has the quality of ultimacy in their lives (p. 56).

Drawing from the work of H. Richard Niebuhr (1962), Paul Tillich (1957), C. G. Jung (1930/1969, 1932/1954), Jean Piaget (1937/1954), Erik Erikson (1950/1963), Lawrence Kohlberg (1981), and Daniel Levinson (1978), James Fowler (1981/1995) identifies six stages (and one pre-stage) of faith, summarized in chapter 1.

To their credit, Fowler's (1981/1995) stages of faith are powerfully descriptive of the ways in which we make and articulate meaning in relation to self, others, and God. Yet, as conceptual categories, they may or may not predict the behavior of persons at any given time. In *Primary Speech: A Psychology of Prayer*, Ann and Barry Ulanov (1982) encourage us to bring all that we are before God, even the parts of us that seem to be relatively immature and egocentric. Ultimately we cannot draw ourselves up to God by our own conceptual bootstraps; rather, we assent to being drawn toward God by grace.

Faith, whether based in thinking, feeling, or both, can and does develop as we undergo change throughout our lives, though typically not in a linear or predictable way. Our orientation to faith changes in response to lived experience. Regardless of our conceptual stage of faith, we can be surprised and transformed by joy at any moment of our lives (C.S. Lewis, 1955). Ignatian spirituality speaks of "consolation without prior cause," the experience of being arrested by joy that is spontaneous and undeserved (Fogarty, 1987). Faith may also develop through suffering. It would not be compassionate to wish suffering on one's self or another. Yet, if we are open to the idea that God can be present to us in the midst of pain and loss, not as an accuser but as one who mourns with us and cares for us when we are most in need, then suffering itself can be transformative, showing us not only deeper reaches of doubt and confusion but also broader shores of clarity and light (Moseley, 2011). In sum, faith can develop throughout life if we allow its unfolding and do not resist the changes in meaning and commitment that a deepening faith can bring.

Why Human Development and Faith?

Theories of human development seek to describe and understand the intrapsychic (inward), familial, and social conditions under which health may prevail over illness, relationship over isolation, love over hate. This is precisely where human development, as the study of "good-enough" living, and faith traditions, as the guardians of religious wisdom, claim common cause. The Ten Commandments can be seen as a moral structure that safeguards fullness of life and gives it meaning. The commandment to "love the Lord your God with all your heart, and with all your soul, and with all your might/mind" (Deut. 6:5; Mt. 22:37) and "your neighbor as yourself" (Mt. 22:39) enjoins us to explore the interdependence of self-acceptance, empathy for others, and gratitude for the essential goodness of Being (Eigen, 1981).

Human development teaches us that our individual lives—our expectations and perceptions of what is good, right, and desirable—are embedded in the meanings we make in our original family constellations and in the ways families mediate the expectations of their immediate community and broader culture. To come to terms with these influences and to gain a measure of independence from them while allowing them to support our own growth and development is the work of a lifetime. The free expression of a sense of calling or vocation frequently requires the ability to differentiate from one's social context. It is also

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true that our time and place in history will necessarily influence our sense of what is meaningful (see chapters 2, 3, and 4).

Theological and Philosophical Antecedents of Developmental Theory

In *The Religious and Romantic Origins of Psychoanalysis: Individuation and Integration in Post-Freudian Theory*, Suzanne Kirschner (1996) traces three stages of developmental psychology's earlier cultural forms. She identifies goals generally found in Western developmental theory as well-established cultural themes: self-reliance, authenticity, and intimacy. She finds in these themes parallels to earlier Judeo-Christian images of salvation, noting that "images of the idealized self are secularized versions of Protestant ascetic and mystical visions of the soul's election" or reunion with God (p. 5). In her reading, developmental psychology's older cultural forms include:

- Christian doctrines of humankind's fall and ultimate redemption;
- The Neo-Platonic vision of radical Protestant mystics such as Jacob Boehme;¹²
- Secularized narratives of fall and redemption articulated by English and German Romantic philosophers during the 19th century.

Kirschner sees all three of these earlier cultural developments contributing to the story of development as told by contemporary Anglo-American psychoanalytic theorists, including the schools of ego psychology, object relations, and self psychology. Much of the psychoanalytic language of the idealized self, or ego ideal, can be meaningfully correlated to earlier theological understandings of soul. One thinks of Kohut's (1984) nuclear self (p. 152), Winnicott's (1960/1965) true self, and Jung's (1934/1943) understanding of individuation recently popularized by Hillman (1996) as the soul's code, to name a few.

Other developmental theorists have identified moral and existential concerns implicit in secular literature that can be correlated with earlier religious themes. Crain (2011) finds an implicit ethical emphasis in developmental theory and cites Maslow's (1962) understanding of the "biological brotherhood" (p. 185) that developmental theory implies. The emphasis here is on our necessary interdependence as persons and the ethics of care that such interdependence requires (SteinhoffSmith, 1999). Jesus' saying, "[A]s you did it to one of the least of these who are members of my family, you did it to me" (Mt. 25:40, paraphrased), links religious devotion with loving action, as does the biblical emphasis on caring for vulnerable widows and orphans in covenant community so that all may experience shalom (Ps. 146: Acts 6).

Gibbs (1997), considering Kohlberg's (1973) stages of moral development, finds in developmental theory both a "naturalistic" argument—in which developmental phases link us to cycles of birth, maturation, aging, and death—

and an “existential” argument—in which the awareness and vocation of self is seen as key. In theological terms, one might say that attention to embodiment is intrinsically incarnational—it draws our attention both to the immanence of our ephemeral humanity and to the transcendence implied in religious understandings of the Imago Dei. One thinks of Jung’s emphasis on wholeness and balance as essential for individuation. This concern for wholeness can be understood as the psychological counterpart to Jesus’ injunction, “Be perfect [*teleioi*, whole-hearted, complete, on the right path], therefore, as your heavenly Father is perfect” (Mt. 5:48).

Kohlberg and Mayer (1972) find implicit within developmental theories the educational ideologies of romanticism, with its emphasis on personal transformation or conversion, and cultural transmission. The latter emphasizes both the importance of tradition and progressivism, which in turn frame the Christian eschatological hope for the Realm of God that is both coming and already present, through the redemptive action of Christ as Savior, in the “Eternal Now” (Tillich, 1963).

If developmental theories are adequate to lived experience, they must recognize and reconcile a variety of aspects of self and community life. The development of self has been studied by object relations theorists such as Donald Woods Winnicott (1971) and self psychologists such as Heinz Kohut (Ornstein, 1978). Jung’s depiction of individuation stages as adult maturation represents an understanding of persons that is culturally and intrapsychically informed (Jung, 1930/1969; Jacobi, 1973; see chapter 1).

Each of these approaches can be assigned lesser or greater degrees of adequacy in theological terms. Psychoanalytic theorists, most notably Freud, may appear overly pessimistic, presenting humanity as subject to the repeated blows of unconscious forces. But this state of being at odds with oneself echoes Paul the evangelist, “For I do not do the good I want, but the evil I do not want is what I do” (Rom. 7:19; Cooper-White, 2011), which can readily be correlated to Christian understandings of original sin. It may be Freud’s very pessimism about the human condition that endears him to pastoral counselors despite his avowed atheism. Jung is not at his best when he ventures into theological territory, but he writes with understanding and respect about religious experience, the Imago Dei, and vocation as God’s claim on, and gift to, our lives. Jung’s Self, not to be confused with our conscious sense of self, stands for a center of knowing that transcends the ego’s perspective—in essence, the soul’s eye view (Kelcourse, 2001, chap. 2).

In an essay entitled “Can Psychology Escape Religion? Should It?” Don Browning (1997) contends that psychology, as a discipline, would do well to give attention to its inextricable ties with religion. Browning (1987) notes that the psychological theories of Freud, Rogers, Maslow, Erikson, Kohut, and even Skinner are rife with religious themes, narratives, and metaphors.¹³ Browning

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argues for a religiously informed philosophical anthropology that can more adequately account for the human condition when religious metaphors are brought into conversation with psychology.

Conversely, both religion and contemporary understandings of faith do believers and seekers alike a disservice when insights into the human condition that have been identified using developmental theories are discounted or ignored. Science need never be the enemy of faith if we take seriously the idea that both are part of the seamless whole that we refer to in religious terms as God's Creation. There are predictable, recurring structures of being that can be identified in the human body and mind, just as there are patterns that repeat across time and space from the smallest observable wave or particle to the farthest known star. It is the intent of this volume to identify patterns of human experience and behavior that can help us better understand ourselves and others. Understanding, in turn, encourages acceptance, respect, love, and justice among people of all sizes, types, and conditions.

Overview of Chapters

This Introduction identifies an understanding of the human life cycle that is informed both by developmental theory and by an appreciation for the dimension of faith as essential to our humanity. Part 1 considers the context of development. Even though we are each born with patterns of behavior that tend to remain constant over time—our innate personality—it is clear that the familial, cultural, and temporal settings into which we are born are more than a mere backdrop for our individual lives. The forces of family, community, and historical context forge and form us in powerful ways of which we are often only dimly aware. Part 1 presents the basic assumptions of the three main schools of developmental psychology that inform the authors of this volume: depth psychology, cognitive-structural-constructive developmental theory, and family systems theory (chapter 1). Each theoretical school is considered in relation to its assumptions about faith, or its primary system of meaning.

Chapter 2, "Finding Faith: Life-cycle Stages in Body, Mind, and Soul," offers an overview of the stages covered in this book, including reflections on the soul's eye view as a developmental line and the significance of generational cohorts that do not appear elsewhere. The emphasis here is on challenges to faith throughout life—the successive ways in which we make, find, and recover meaning based on our embodied experience. Chapter 2 reflects the editor's commitments and experience as a Quaker minister, pastoral psychotherapist, parent, and theological educator.

In chapter 3, "Human Development in Relational and Cultural Context," Pamela Cooper-White presents the idea that development is best described as "complex, organic, and intrinsically relational." She addresses this subject out of her experience as a seminary professor, Episcopal priest, and pastoral psychotherapist. She begins with a psychoanalytic approach to the familial context in which our sense of self first forms, then turns to the wider cultures

and subcultures that continue to mold our identities as we move beyond the family circle. As a feminist she acknowledges that culture can deform as well as inform, especially for those with less power (Cooper-White, 2012). As a person of faith she recognizes that change is possible both in clock time, or *chronos*, and in God's time, through the *kairos* of in-breaking grace and hope for healing.

Chapter 4, "The Family Context of Development: African American Families," offers an overview of family life-cycle issues, including predictable rites of passage. While the chapter gives particular attention to the needs of African American families, based on Edward Wimberly's experience as a seminary professor, pastoral counselor, and United Methodist minister, the life structure perspective he presents, linking individuals to their social worlds, is instructive for families of all ethnic backgrounds (Levinson, 1978). Wimberly makes the case for a cross-generational and community-based spirituality that serves to reconnect couples and families to these broader contexts as a source of strength in changing times. He gives specific examples of approaches to pastoral care and pastoral counseling that meet the needs of individuals and families in transition.

Having established the context for life-cycle transitions in relation to developmental theory, faith issues, culture, and family, Part 2 describes life-cycle change in 10 stages, from infancy through death. This method represents an expansion of Erik Erikson's (1950/1963a) eight-stage template as found in *Childhood and Society*. Because change occurs so rapidly during adolescence, we include separate chapters on early adolescence (puberty through junior high age, chapter 9) and middle-to-late adolescence (high school to college age, chapter 10). Given this book's emphasis on the relevance of human development for faith, including pastoral care and counseling concerns, the inclusion of a final chapter that looks beyond late adulthood (retirement age) to the experience of death and dying and the hope of resurrection was essential (chapter 14). From a faith perspective, the reality of death need not be denied (Becker, 1973; Bregman, 1999), but can be squarely faced as the ultimate context for our ephemeral and meaningful journeys through life.

The authors for chapters 5 through 14 have brought their life experiences and various theoretical perspectives to bear in addressing the following interdependent topics as they relate to the developmental tasks for each stage of development:

- *Physiological and cognitive change*: Physical changes that affect the sense of self, such as changing body size and capacities for children, or diminishing physical abilities for the elderly, and cognitive changes including changing awareness of self, others, environment, and community.
- *Intrapsychic and interpersonal change*: Psychological changes that affect the sense of self and other, such as degrees of emotional dependence or independence from family and community; shifting awareness of self and other based on developmental transitions.

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- *Moral and faith development:* The development of conscience, superego, the capacity for integrity and moral discernment; faith, trust, and hope as “developmental lines” that exist in a variety of forms and expressions throughout the life cycle.
- *Social location:* The influence of family, community (including religious beliefs), setting in time (*Zeitgeist*), and setting in culture (*Sitz im Leben*)—including their positive and negative influences on the sense of self and others.

The first of the life-cycle chapters, chapter 5, “Infancy: Faith before language,” presents recent advances in brain research, as these inform our understanding of development *in utero* and during the first year of life. Denise Senter is a Mental Health Counselor and seminary graduate with certifications in infant and toddler mental health. Her chapter identifies secure attachment as the foundation for faith in infancy, noting the ways in which parental care may support or thwart the infant’s physical, mental, and emotional development during the first year of life. Her chapter concludes with personal accounts illustrating the influence of social context and culture on infant development from Latina/Latino, African American, and Jewish family perspectives. Appreciating the complexities of physical, mental, and emotional development in the months before and after birth leads us to awe and wonder at the necessary partnership between parents, families, and communities required to sustain each new child’s becoming.

From the ages of 12 months to 3 years, preschool-age children begin to experience a wider world beyond the family. In chapter 6, “The Toddler and the Community,” Karen-Marie Yust, a Christian educator, seminary professor, theologian, and minister in both the Christian Church (Disciples of Christ) and the United Church of Christ (UCC), identifies the significant ways in which faith formation begins for small children when communities give attention to their developmental needs. Toddlers absorb lifelong impressions of their faith traditions through stories, particularly when these are presented in ways that engage the toddlers’ senses and address their aptitude for kinesthetic (physically expressive) learning. Responding to these smallest members of our faith communities with the loving, informed attention they deserve creates a positive foundation for their sense of meaning in relation to self, others, and God.

During the Oedipal stage, identified by Freud as ages 3 to 6, a core sense of gender identity solidifies as our lifelong orientation to femininity or masculinity. In chapter 7, “The Oedipal Child and the Family Crucible: A Jungian Account,” Terrill Gibson, writing as a pastoral psychotherapist, marriage and family therapist, and Jungian analyst, brings a unique perspective to this stage of life by presenting the Oedipal/Electral cusp as a developmental line, tracing its implications throughout the life cycle. The incestuous longings we may experience at this age have significant implications for both our gendered

sense of self and our subsequent interpersonal and familial developmental challenges.¹⁴

Prior to her death in 2003, Vivian Thompson brought to the first edition of this book her understanding of latency age children and extensive background as a registered play therapy supervisor, licensed clinical social worker, and teacher of primary grades. The concerns of children this age, from grade school years up to puberty, are addressed in chapter 8, "Acculturation and Latency." As children absorb the lessons of their culture, they continue to require the loving attention of their families. The challenges to secure attachment experienced by children at this age are presented with illustrations from a play therapy case that demonstrates the mythic-literal character of school-age children's faith. Jacqueline Braeger, a marriage and family therapist and MFT supervisor, has added a family systems approach to Thompson's reflections, meeting the needs of latency age children by eliciting the contributions of all family members while empowering parents as family leaders. These two responses to a single case demonstrate alternate approaches to healing based on the commitments, aptitudes, and training of the therapist. Parents and teachers need to understand that when grade-school-age children misbehave at home or at school, they require the support of wise adults to address difficulties they cannot resolve on their own.

Early adolescence, typically occurring between 11 to 15 years of age, is the period in which individuals first experience the transition out of childhood toward adult sexual maturity. It is a confusing time for many youth; there are pressures of change from within, a rapidly changing sense of embodiment, and pressures from without in the form of social demands for which young people and their parents may be ill-prepared. Ron Nydam, in chapter 9, "Early Adolescence: Venturing toward a Different World," addresses the question so often posed in the news: Why do young adolescents turn violent? What are the challenges to their faith that must be addressed if they are to move toward the different world of adulthood with a sense of hope rather than despair? This author's understanding of early adolescence is informed by his experience as a theological educator, Christian Reformed Church minister, and psychotherapist specializing in the developmental challenges faced by relinquished and adopted children (Nydam, 1999). In addition, Arthur Canales, a Catholic university professor and authority on youth ministries, notes the multiple challenges faced by post-millennial young adolescents in relation to sexuality, social pressures, family context, and the digital age, as these factors influence their faith.

Alice Graham, the author of chapter 10, is a leader in the American Association of Pastoral Counselors, a post-Katrina interfaith community organizer, theological educator, and American Baptist minister in the African Methodist Episcopal tradition. She brings her experience in counseling and ministry to bear on the question of "Identity in Middle and Late Adolescence," addressing the concerns of senior high and college-age youth preparing to meet

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the demands of adulthood. Despite the temptations to despair that can beset this age group, it is also a time of great potential for intellectual and creative flowering as young people develop a sense of the identity that is uniquely theirs. The author suggests ways in which parents, teachers, and faith communities can help youth find and affirm their sense of vocation at this critical stage of life.

An understanding of young adult development from a family systems perspective is presented in chapter 11, “The Differentiation of Self and Faith in Young Adulthood: Launching, Coupling, and Becoming Parents.” Co-authors Bonnie Cushing and Monica McGoldrick are marriage and family therapists with a strong commitment to multiculturalism. Monica McGoldrick, well known for her contributions to the literature of intergenerational family therapy (M. McGoldrick, B. Petkov, & B. Carter, 2015; McGoldrick et al., 2005; McGoldrick et al., 2008), serves as the Director of the Multicultural Family Institute in New Jersey. Bonnie Cushing, a family therapist in private practice, brings insights from her Jewish faith of origin to her understanding of spirituality and psychotherapy. Together they explore “the pivotal decades of the twenties and thirties,” identifying this as a time when our self-understanding develops in relation to others who may enter our lives through marriage and parenting. The young adult’s relationship to spirituality, faith of origin, work, money, and sexuality is addressed with attention to the importance of social context.

“The Middle Years,” ages 40 to 60, are for many the most generative period of life as this age group claims its place in relation to work and takes responsibility for both older and younger family members (chapter 12). Russell Haden Davis, current professor of patient counseling and former Executive Director of the Association for Clinical Pastoral Education, Inc. (ACPE), is a CPE supervisor whose experience includes seminary and university teaching, chaplaincy (hospital, prison, and mental health), and congregational ministry. Chapter 12 covers the predictable physical, psychological, social, and faith concerns of this age group, including existential angst as they face the prospect of death with more immediacy than at earlier life stages.

Chapter 13, “Faith and Development in Late Adulthood,” addresses a period of life that is in many ways a product of the modern era. In past generations, as in some parts of the world today, few people lived to be 60 or older. Many North Americans now expect to live past 80 and hope to enjoy relatively good health until just before death. Informing the developmental challenges of integrity versus despair is the hope “that we may get a heart of wisdom” (Ps. 90:12) in late adulthood and finish our life span in a manner that is a testimony to our faith (Erikson, 1950/1963). K. Brynolf Lyon (1985, 1988, 1995) is known for his work on aging and brings to this subject his experience as a theological educator, consultant to congregations, and psychoanalytically trained psychotherapist working with individuals and groups.

In chapter 14, “The Wages of Dying: Catastrophe Transformed,” Claude Barbre considers the threat that death presents to the living—the ultimate loss of self, but also the hope that something of value in us will live on. If we are remembered in love and through love, if we find ways to take our joys with us into death, we may then experience the dread Angel of Death as partner to the Angel of Life as we complete life’s journey. Many people struggle on the way to death, but through faith that struggle can be a catastrophe transformed. The author, a psychotherapist writing from a depth psychological perspective, brings to the subject of death his experience as a chaplain, associate professor of clinical psychology, and former Executive Director of the Harlem Family Institute in New York City, a place where children and families find healing amidst the death-dealing adversities of urban poverty. In the context of pastoral care and counseling, death is more than an ominous future, casting its cold shadow over life. Death becomes a reminder of the fragility, beauty, and sanctity of all life, even as it forces us to mourn and hallow our diminishments.¹⁵

Conclusion

Faith and human development theories describe essential elements of human experience. They are presented here as distinct perspectives that belong in dialogue. Through the dual lenses of developmental psychology and faith informed by religion and theology, our human condition becomes more fully visible.

The preceding brief presentation of chapter topics serves to orient the reader to the wide variety of viewpoints the authors represent. In this collection, each author’s theoretical, experiential, and faith perspective can be expected to lift up certain aspects of development and faith while de-emphasizing others. Readers new to the subject of human development are encouraged to consult texts such as Colarusso’s (1992) *Child and Adult Development* and Erikson’s (1950/1963a) classic *Childhood and Society*, both written from a psychoanalytic perspective, as well as Fowlers’ (1981/1995) *Stages of Faith*, informed by the work of structural developmental theorists such as Piaget and Kohlberg. For an introduction to family systems theory as it relates to human development, works by Monica McGoldrick and colleagues, including *The Expanded Family Life Cycle: Individual, Family, and Social Perspectives* (M. McGoldrick, B. Petkov, & B. Carter, 2015); *Genograms: Assessment and Intervention* (McGoldrick, Gerson, & Petry, 2008); and *Revisioning Family Therapy: Race, Culture and Gender in Clinical Practice* (McGoldrick & Hardy, 2008), are recommended.

To gain a broader view of developmental theory, readers may wish to consult Patricia Miller’s (2011) *Theories of Developmental Psychology*, William Crain’s (2011) *Theories of Development: Concepts and Applications*, or Keith Richardson’s (2000) *Developmental Psychology: How Nature and Nurture Interact*. Critiques of developmental theory are offered by John Broughton (1987), *Critical Theories of Psychological Development*; John Morss (1996), *Growing Critical:*

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Alternatives to Developmental Psychology; and Patricia Miller and Ellin Scholnick (2000), *Towards a Feminist Developmental Psychology*.

Books on development that consider a faith perspective include Donald Capps' (1987) *Deadly Sins and Saving Virtues*, which pairs traditional sins with Erikson's life-cycle virtues; James Loder's (1998) *The Logic of the Spirit: Human Development in Theological Perspective*; James Hightower's (1999) *Caring for People from Birth to Death*, aimed at orienting pastors to the specific spiritual needs of each developmental stage; and Elizabeth Liebert's (2000) *Changing Life Patterns: Adult Development in Spiritual Direction*. Froma Walsh's (1999) *Spiritual Resources in Family Therapy* is the most useful book in the family therapy field with respect to the interface between faith and family systems theory since the 1985 first edition of Edwin Friedman's (paperback edition, 2011) *Generation to Generation: Family Process in Church and Synagogue*.

Thanks to the editorial efforts of Jeanne Stevenson-Moessner, a multi-authored series of books addresses women's pastoral care needs and developmental issues: *Women in Travail and Transition: A New Pastoral Care* (Glaz & Stevenson-Moessner, 1991), *Through the Eyes of Women: Insights for Pastoral Care* (Stevenson-Moessner, 1996), *In Her Own Time: Women and Developmental Issues in Pastoral Care* (Stevenson-Moessner, 2000a), and most recently *Women Out of Order: Risking Change and Creating Care in a Multicultural World* (Stevenson-Moessner, co-edited with Teresa Snorton, 2010). While not specifically focused on developmental issues, *Feminist and Womanist Pastoral Theology*, edited by Bonnie Miller-McLemore and Brita Gill-Austern (1999), brings a critical theological perspective to bear on women's concerns. Carol Gilligan's (1993) *In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development* and *Women's Ways of Knowing: The Development of Self, Voice, and Mind* (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1997) are recommended for their distinctive presentations of women's experience.

This book addresses developmental issues that arise for both women and men. The implications of difference regarding gender, ethnicity, social location, culture, sexual orientation, and religious traditions as they influence faith are noted but are not exhaustively explored. The present second edition does endeavor to reflect greater social awareness of cultural diversity, generational cohorts, and concerns surrounding sexuality and gender for the LGBTIQ¹⁶ and wider communities. Having set so broad a task, it is inevitable that some important concerns related to development and faith may be overlooked. My hope as editor is that you, the reader, will think of this collection as an on-going conversation. If these essays raise useful questions or enlighten your understanding of yourself, others, and God, they will have served their purpose.

Notes

¹Winnicott's (1987) phrase, the "good-enough" mother or caregiver, makes clear that the child's caregiver need not be perfectly attuned to her or him, as long as the care the child receives is not overly frustrating, intrusive, or neglectful. This "good-enough" care is essential—we are all dependent from birth on the beneficent presence of others.

²Job 13:15 reads quite differently in other English translations (Kelcourse, 2001). The Jerusalem Bible translation—Job speaking of God—reads, “Let him kill me if he will; I have no other hope than to justify my conduct in his eyes.” According to Gerald Janzen (2009) this passage is problematic in that *lo yachel* can be translated either, “I will hope in him,” or, “I will have no hope.” The Hebrew word for hope (or trust, in the *King James Version*) has the connotation of “trembling with anticipation.” In this sense the *King James Version* (KJV) captures the spirit of Job’s struggle with God.

³“Cognitive-structural-constructive developmental theory,” also referred to as theories of cognitive development, is used here to include the work of Piaget, Kohlberg, Gilligan, Fowler, and Kegan. The work of Fowler and Kegan has been further identified as “constructive developmental” theory. In this and subsequent contexts I am indebted to Steven Ivy for noting this important distinction (personal communication, 10/8/2002).

⁴Note that Darwin’s (1959) theory of natural selection, based on genetic inheritance, recognizes the importance of social cooperation as well as competition for survival.

⁵For a comprehensive review of Erikson’s life and work, see Welchman (2000); *Erik Erikson: His Life, Work, and Significance*.

⁶To give one example, Angela Kakerissa, a student from Indonesia, recounts a Javanese fable in which Sangkuriang falls in love with his mother, Dayang Sumbi, who has become immortal. Both are killed by Brahma to prevent the disgrace of a marriage between a mother and her son (personal communication, 4/8/2003).

⁷This consideration of faith is expressed in theistic terms and is therefore not intended to represent the perspective of non-theistic religious traditions.

⁸Many Protestant theologians would agree with Jesuit theologian Karl Rahner (1993) that in human terms God’s immanence and transcendence meet in our capacity to apprehend God. In Rahner’s theology all human beings have an innate (“unthematic”) experience of God in relation to found meaning or “transcendental experience.” It is because of this proto-revelation that recognizing a special revelation (such as the Christian Gospel) becomes possible. See Culp, 2010; Keller, 2008; Suchoki, 1996; and Rahner, 1993.

⁹For definitions of “soul” in relation to ego, Self and psyche, see chapter 2. Briefly, soul is defined in this volume as embodied spirit.

¹⁰As a Quaker minister I interpret Jesus saying, “I am the way, the truth, and the life. No one comes to the Father but through me” (Jn. 14:6), in universalist terms. Anyone who gives evidence of living the abundant life to which Jesus invites us is on the way to the Father, striving for right relationship with self, others, and all of Creation, with the help of God.

¹¹This phrase has been attributed to Father William Cummings, a civilian missionary Catholic priest serving in the Philippines during Japanese attacks in WWII.

¹²Although Kirschner does not cite Augustine’s *Confessions* (400/2001) as a study in human faith development, that text certainly has influenced Christian understandings of the subject.

¹³Representative works for each of these authors are provided in the bibliography.

¹⁴In essence, preschool age children long to be seen and known by their loving parents as their unique, embodied selves. The fact that this longing exists in the child does not in any way excuse or condone the predatory behavior of older children and adults who violate the child’s boundaries and sense of self through inappropriate touch, despite the fact that predators have often been previously violated themselves.

¹⁵For additional aspects of each contributor’s experience, read “About the Authors.”

¹⁶The acronym LGBTIQ stands for lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, intersex, and questioning. In relation to historical cohorts, the present generation of high school and college students in North America is far more open to fluid expressions of gender and sexuality than preceding North American generations, but non-heterosexual youth still face discrimination, harassment, and violence in school and society at large (Cianciotto & Cahill, 2012).