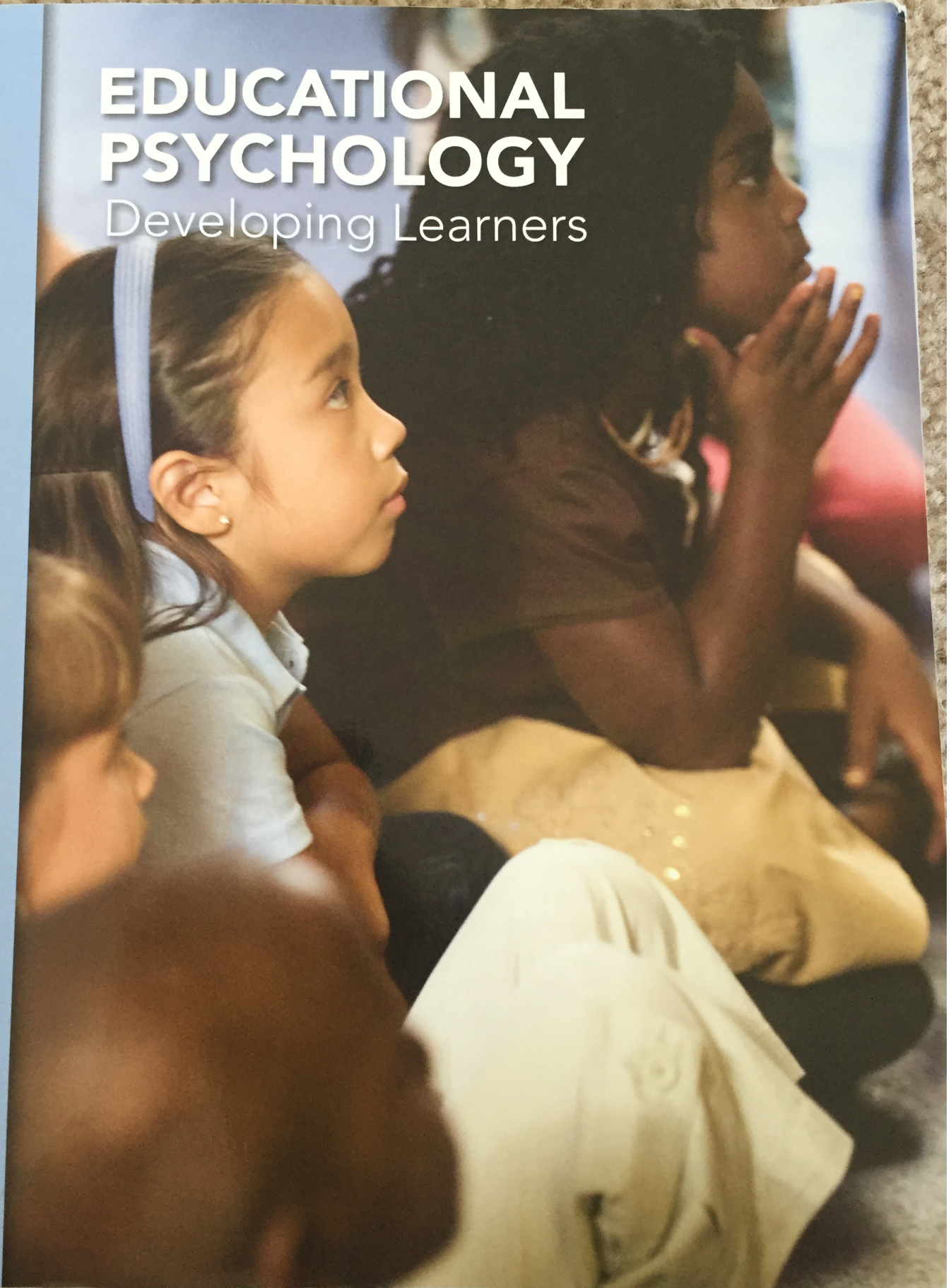


EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Developing Learners

Jeanne Ellis **ORMROD** eighth edition





10

Social Cognitive Views of Learning



LEARNING OUTCOMES

- 10.1:** Describe five basic assumptions of social cognitive theory and their classroom implications.
- 10.2:** Use a social cognitive perspective to explain how mental processes can influence the effects of reinforcement and punishment.
- 10.3:** Describe the potential effects of modeling on learners' behaviors, and explain how you can productively use modeling in instruction.
- 10.4:** Describe the nature and origins of self-efficacy, and explain how you might enhance self-efficacy both in

your students as developing learners and in yourself as a teacher.

- 10.5:** Identify important components of self-regulated behavior and self-regulated learning, and apply your knowledge of self-regulation to help diverse learners effectively control their behavior, master academic subject matter, and address interpersonal problems.
- 10.6:** Compare and contrast perspectives of learning associated with cognitive psychology, contextual theories, behaviorism, and social cognitive theory.

CASE STUDY: PARLEZ-VOUS FRANÇAIS?

Nathan is in French I only because his mother insisted that he take it. On the first day of class, Nathan notices that most of his classmates are girls and the few boys are students he doesn't know very well. He sits sullenly in the back, recalling that three male friends who took French last year got mostly Ds and Fs on quizzes and homework and that two of them dropped the class after one semester. "I do great in math and science," he tells himself, "but I'm just no good at learning languages. Besides, learning French is a girl thing."

Although Nathan comes to class every day, his mind often wanders as his teacher demonstrates correct pronunciations and explains simple syntactical structures. He makes feeble attempts at homework assignments but quickly puts them aside whenever he encounters something he doesn't immediately understand.

Sure enough, Nathan is right: He's no good at French. He gets a D- on the first exam.

- What things has Nathan learned from observing the people around him? What things has he not learned, and why?
- In what general ways might observing other individuals influence learning?

Although Nathan hasn't learned much from his French teacher—partly because he hasn't been paying attention during lessons and partly because he hasn't put much effort into assignments—he's learned a few things from observing his peers. Knowing what happened to three male friends and seeing mostly girls in his class, he concludes that, as a boy, he's doomed to failure. We human beings learn a wide variety of behaviors by observing the people in our lives and in the media. We also learn which behaviors are likely to get us ahead—and which are not—by seeing their consequences for others. In part by watching what others do, we develop a sense of what our own capabilities are likely to be, and we begin to direct our behavior toward goals we think we can achieve.

In this chapter we explore **social cognitive theory**, a perspective that can help us understand what and how people learn by observing others and how, in the process, they begin to take control of their own behavior. Originally called *social learning theory*, social cognitive theory has its early roots in behaviorism and thus addresses the effects of reinforcement and punishment. Over the past few decades, however, it has increasingly incorporated cognitive processes into its explanations of learning and now includes a blend of ideas from behaviorism and cognitive psychology.

Social cognitive theory has developed in large part through the research efforts of Albert Bandura at Stanford University. You'll find references to Bandura and others who have built on his ideas (e.g., Dale Schunk, Barry Zimmerman) throughout the chapter.

Chapter 9 presents behaviorist perspectives of learning.

*Basic Assumptions of Social Cognitive Theory

Several basic assumptions underlie social cognitive theory:

1. **People can learn by observing others.** From the perspective of behaviorism, learning is often a process of trial and error: Learners try many different responses, keep those that bring desired consequences, and leave unproductive ones behind. Social cognitive theorists argue that learners don't necessarily have to experiment in such a trial-and-error manner. Instead learners acquire many new responses simply by observing the behaviors of other individuals, or *models*.

social cognitive theory

Theoretical perspective that focuses on how people learn by observing others and how they eventually assume control over their own behavior.

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Basic Assumptions of Social Cognitive Theory

The Social Cognitive View of Reinforcement and Punishment

Modeling

Behaviors and Skills That Can Be Learned through Modeling

Characteristics of Effective Models

Essential Conditions for Successful Modeling

Self-Efficacy

How Self-Efficacy Affects Behavior and Cognition

Factors in the Development of Self-Efficacy

Teacher Self-Efficacy

Self-Regulation

Self-Regulated Behavior

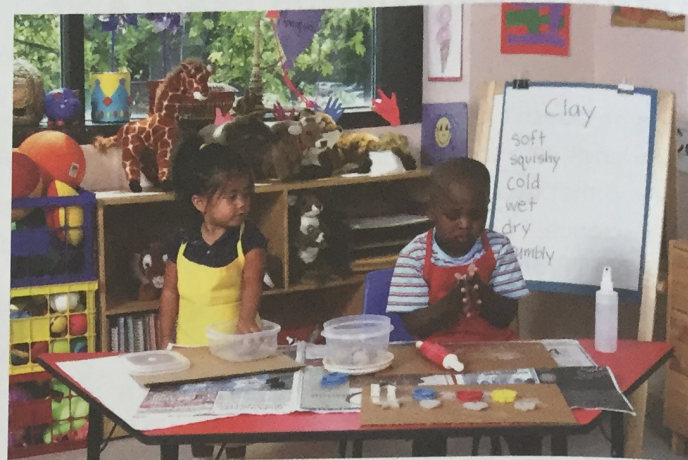
Self-Regulated Learning

Self-Regulated Problem Solving

Diversity in Self-Regulation

Revisiting Reciprocal Causation

Comparing Theoretical Perspectives of Learning



Children learn many new behaviors simply by watching adults or peers perform them successfully.

For example, a student might learn how to solve a long division problem, spell the word synonym correctly, or mouth off at a teacher simply by watching someone else do these things first.

2 • Learning is an internal process that may or may not lead to a behavior change. Rather than define learning as a change in behavior (as many behaviorists do), social cognitive theorists (like cognitive psychologists) view learning as a mental change that may or may not be reflected in the learner's present or future behavior. For example, you might try to dribble a basketball as soon as you watch someone else do it. You probably won't demonstrate that you've learned how to apologize tactfully until a later time when an apology is necessary. And you might never walk through campus nude, no matter how many times you see someone else do it.

3 • Cognitive processes influence motivation as well as learning. Like cognitive psychologists, social cognitive theorists recognize the importance of cognitive processes (e.g., attention, encoding) for learning and remembering new information. But they point out that cognition is also an important ingredient in motivation. For example, people set mental goals toward which they direct their behavior, and their goals are based to some degree on their expectations about what they might reasonably accomplish. People's beliefs about their own ability to execute certain behaviors or reach certain goals—their self-efficacy—influence how hard they try, how long they persist at challenging tasks, and ultimately how much they learn and achieve.

4 • People and their environments mutually influence each other. Some learning theorists, especially behaviorists, focus primarily on how environmental variables can influence learners. But the reverse is true as well: Learners influence their environments, often quite deliberately. To some degree learners influence their environments through their behaviors. For example, the responses they make (e.g., the classes they choose, the extracurricular activities they pursue, the company they keep) affect the learning opportunities they have and the consequences they experience. Mental processes, personality characteristics, and other things that learners "own" in some way—social cognitive theorists call these things person variables—come into play as well. For example, learners are apt to focus their attention on—and thus learn from—only certain aspects of their environment, and their idiosyncratic interpretations of why they've been reinforced or punished influence the specific effects that such consequences have.

Ultimately, all three of these factors—environment, behavior, and person—influence one another in the manner shown in Figure 10.1. Social cognitive theorists use the term **reciprocal causation** when referring to this constant interplay among environment, behavior, and person variables (e.g., Bandura, 1989, 2008).

• **Behavior becomes increasingly self-regulated.** In the first few years of life, children's actions are controlled and guided to a considerable degree by others—by parents, older siblings, child care providers, teachers, and so on. But as children grow older, most of them increasingly take charge of their lives, not only identifying particular goals toward which to strive but also directing and monitoring their behaviors and thought processes to accomplish their goals. In other words, most children increasingly engage in *self-regulation*.

Table 10.1 summarizes the assumptions just listed and offers examples of their implications for classroom practice.

The Social Cognitive View of Reinforcement and Punishment

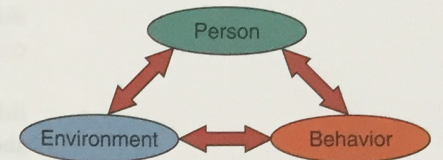
Reinforcement and punishment are less critical in social cognitive theory than they are in behaviorism, but they do have several indirect effects on learning and behavior (e.g., Bandura, 1977, 1986; T. L. Rosenthal & Zimmerman, 1978). Cognitive factors come into play in these indirect effects, as reflected in the following ideas:

- *Consequences influence behavior only if learners are aware of the response–consequence contingency.* From a social cognitive perspective, reinforcement and punishment influence learners' behaviors only if the learners connect these consequences to specific things they've done (Bandura, 1986). As teachers, then, we should be very clear about what we're reinforcing and punishing, so that students know the real response–reinforcement contingencies operating in the classroom. For instance, if we give Sam an A on an essay but we don't tell him *why* he's earned that grade, he won't necessarily know how to get an A the next time. Thus we might accompany the A grade with feedback such as "You followed a logical train of thought and gave three good examples." And rather than simply tell Sandra "Good job!" after a basketball game, we might tell her that we were pleased with her high energy level and passing accuracy.

reciprocal causation

Interdependence of environmental, behavioral, and personal variables in influencing learning and development.

FIGURE 10.1 In social cognitive theory, environmental, behavioral, and personal variables mutually influence one another.



Be explicit about which behaviors have led to which consequences.

PRINCIPLES/ASSUMPTIONS

TABLE 10.1 • Basic Assumptions of Social Cognitive Theory and Their Educational Implications

ASSUMPTION	EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATION	EXAMPLE
Learning by observation	Help students acquire new behaviors more quickly by demonstrating those behaviors yourself.	Demonstrate appropriate ways to deal with and resolve interpersonal conflicts. Then ask students to role-play conflict resolution in small groups, and compliment those who use prosocial strategies.
Learning as an internal process that may or may not be reflected in behavior	Remember that new learning doesn't always reveal itself immediately but may instead be reflected in students' behaviors at a later time.	When one student engages in disruptive classroom behavior, take appropriate steps to discourage it. Otherwise, classmates who have witnessed the misbehavior may be similarly disruptive in the future.
Cognitive processes in motivation	Encourage students to set productive goals for themselves, especially goals that are challenging yet achievable.	When teaching American Sign Language to help students communicate with a classmate who is deaf, ask them to predict how many new words and phrases they can learn each week.
Reciprocal influences among environmental, behavioral, and personal variables	Encourage students to make choices that will lead to valuable learning experiences.	Describe the benefits of taking an advanced writing course both as a means of enhancing writing skills and as a way of exploring writing as a possible career path.
Increasing self-regulation with age	Teach students strategies through which they can better control their own behavior and direct their own learning.	Give students concrete suggestions about how they can remind themselves to bring needed supplies to school each day.

outcome expectation Prediction regarding the consequence that a particular behavior is likely to yield.

incentive Hoped-for, but not guaranteed, future consequence of behavior.

• *Learners form expectations about the likely consequences of future actions and then behave in ways they think will maximize desired results.* Learners often base such **outcome expectations** on existing patterns of reinforcement, nonreinforcement, and punishment. For example, perhaps you've taken a course in which all exam questions came from the textbook, without a single question coming from class lectures. After the first exam, did you find yourself reading the textbook carefully but skipping class a lot? And perhaps you've taken a course in which exams were based almost entirely on lectures. In that situation, did you go to class regularly but hardly ever open your textbook? When a particular response is reinforced every time it's made, learners typically expect to be reinforced for behaving the same way in the future. In a similar manner, when a response frequently leads to punishment—as insulting an instructor or skipping class on a test day might—learners will probably expect that response to be punished on later occasions as well.

Sometimes, however, learners form expectations about future consequences on the basis of little or no hard data. For example, a high school student might erroneously believe that bragging about perfect test scores will gain him the admiration of his classmates (i.e., a reinforcer). Another student might believe that her classmates will ridicule and reject (i.e., punish) her for being smart, even though they wouldn't actually do so.

Expectations about future contingencies certainly affect learners' behaviors. They may or may not influence learning itself, as the following exercise can show you.

EXPERIENCING FIRSTHAND

DR. X

Think about a class you're taking now or have taken recently—not an online class but one that involves an instructor and students regularly convening in a single room. How many of the following questions can you answer about your instructor, whom I'll call "Dr. X"?

1. Is Dr. X right handed or left handed?
2. Is Dr. X a flashy dresser or more conservative one?
3. What kind of shoes does Dr. X wear to class?
4. Does Dr. X wear a wedding ring?
5. Does Dr. X bring a briefcase to class each day?

If you've attended class regularly, you can probably answer at least two of these questions and possibly all five. But I'm guessing that you've never mentioned what you've learned to anyone else, because you've had no reason to believe that demonstrating your knowledge about these matters would be reinforced. When learners *do* expect reinforcement for such knowledge, it suddenly surfaces. For example, every time I teach educational psychology, I take a minute sometime during the semester to hide my feet behind the podium and ask my students what my shoes look like. They first look at me as if I have two heads, but after a few seconds of awkward silence, at least a half dozen of them (usually those who regularly sit in the first two rows) begin to describe my shoes, right down to the rippled soles, scuffed leather, and beige stitching.

Students learn many things in the classroom. They learn facts and figures, they learn ways of getting their teacher's attention, and they may even learn which classmate stores M&Ms in his desk or what kind of shoes their teacher wears to class. Of all the things they learn, they're most likely to demonstrate the things they think will bring reinforcement.

When learners choose to behave in a way that might bring future reinforcement, they're working for an **incentive**, which is never guaranteed. For instance, students never know that they're going to get an A on a test when they study for it or that they'll win a position on the Student Council simply because they run for office. An incentive is an expected or hoped-for consequence that may or may not actually occur.

• *Learners' expectations are influenced by what happens to other people as well as to themselves.* When I was in the third grade, I entered a Halloween costume contest dressed as Happy Tooth, a character in several toothpaste commercials at the time. I didn't win the contest; a witch won first



Be explicit about future response–reinforcement and response–punishment contingencies as well.

prize. So the following year I entered the same contest dressed as a witch, figuring I was a shoo-in for first place. I had experienced reinforcement *vicariously* rather than directly—that is, through watching what happened to someone else.

Learners who observe someone else being reinforced for a behavior are likely to exhibit that behavior more frequently themselves—a phenomenon known as **vicarious reinforcement**. For example, by watching the consequences their classmates experience, students might learn that studying hard leads to good grades, that being elected to class office brings status and popularity, or that neatness counts. Conversely, when learners see someone else get punished for a behavior, they're *less* likely to behave that way themselves—a phenomenon known as **vicarious punishment**. For example, when a coach benches a football player for unsportsmanlike conduct, other players are unlikely to behave similarly. Unfortunately, vicarious punishment can suppress desirable behaviors as well as undesirable ones. For instance, when a teacher belittles a student's question by calling it "silly," other students may be reluctant to ask questions of their own.¹

As teachers, we must be extremely careful that we don't vicariously reinforce undesirable behaviors or vicariously punish desirable ones. If we give too much attention to a misbehaving student, others who want our attention may misbehave as well. Or if we ridicule a student who volunteers an incorrect answer or erroneous belief, classmates will hardly be eager to voice their own ideas.

- *Expectations about future consequences affect how thoroughly and in what ways learners cognitively process new information.* To get a sense of how this might happen, try the next exercise.

EXPERIENCING FIRSTHAND

PLANNING AHEAD

Quickly skim the contents of the upcoming section on modeling to get a general idea of the topics it includes. Once you've done so, imagine yourself in each of these situations:

1. Your instructor announces, "The section on modeling won't be on your test, but please read it anyway." How thoroughly and carefully will you read that section?
2. The next day your instructor announces, "I misled you yesterday. Actually, half of next week's test will be on modeling." *Now* how thoroughly and carefully will you read that section?

If you don't expect to be reinforced for knowing about modeling, you may very well *not* read the chapter's discussion of it. (Perhaps you'll read it later, you tell yourself, but you have other things you need to do right now.) If, instead, you discover that getting an A in your educational psychology class depends on knowing the material about modeling really well, you're apt to read the material slowly and attentively, possibly trying to remember every detail.

When learners believe they'll be reinforced for learning something, they're more likely to pay attention to it and perhaps engage in elaboration, comprehension monitoring, and other effective cognitive processes. When they *don't* expect to be reinforced for learning something, they're far less likely to process it in any significant way. As an example of the latter situation, let's return to the opening case study. Nathan is convinced he can't learn French, thanks in part to his friends' low French grades (which served as vicarious punishment for him). As a result, Nathan pays little attention to what his teacher says in class, and he makes only halfhearted attempts to complete assignments. His low expectations almost guarantee poor performance—a self-fulfilling prophecy.

- *The nonoccurrence of an expected consequence—whether for oneself or for someone else—can have a reinforcing or punishing effect in and of itself.* What happens when learners' expectations aren't met—say, when an expected reinforcement never comes? When, as a fourth grader, I entered the Halloween costume contest as a witch, I lost once again—this time to a girl wearing a metal colander on her head and claiming to be *Sputnik*, the first satellite launched into space by what

vicarious reinforcement

Phenomenon in which a response increases in frequency when another person is observed being reinforced for that response.

vicarious punishment

Phenomenon in which a response decreases in frequency when another person is observed being punished for that response.

¹The effects of vicarious reinforcement and vicarious punishment are sometimes referred to as the *response facilitation effect* and *response inhibition effect*, respectively.

was then the Soviet Union. That was the last time I entered a Halloween contest. I had expected reinforcement and felt cheated because I didn't get it. Social cognitive theorists propose that the nonoccurrence of expected reinforcement is a form of punishment (e.g., Bandura, 1986). When people think that a certain response is going to be reinforced but the response *isn't* reinforced, they're less likely to exhibit the response in the future.

Just as the nonoccurrence of expected reinforcement is a form of punishment, the nonoccurrence of expected punishment is a form of reinforcement (Bandura, 1986). Perhaps you can think of a time when you broke a rule, expecting to be punished, but you got away with your crime. Or perhaps you can remember seeing someone else break a rule without being caught. When nothing bad happens after a forbidden behavior, people may actually feel as if the behavior has been reinforced.

Thus, when students work hard to achieve a desired result—perhaps a compliment, a high grade, or a special privilege—and the anticipated result doesn't materialize, they'll be unlikely to work as hard the next time around. And when students break school rules but aren't punished for doing so, they're likely to break the rules again—and so are other students who are aware that the behavior has gone unpunished.² It's important that we, as teachers, follow through with promised reinforcements for desirable student behaviors. It's equally important that we impose any reasonable consequences students have come to expect for inappropriate behaviors.



Follow through with the consequences students have been led to expect for certain behaviors.

See Chapter 9 for guidelines and cautions in the use of punishment.

* Modeling

As human beings, we have some ability to imitate others beginning early in infancy (S. S. Jones, 2007; Meltzoff, 2005; Nielsen & Tomaselli, 2010). In fact, the brain seems to be specially equipped for imitation. Certain neurons in the brain, appropriately called mirror neurons, become active either (1) when learners observe others engaging in a particular behavior or (2) when learners engage in that same behavior themselves. It appears, then, that our brains are prewired to make connections between observing and doing, thus enhancing our ability to learn new skills from our social and cultural surroundings (Arbib, 2005; Gallese, Gernsbacher, Heyes, Hickok, & Iacoboni, 2011; Iacoboni & Woods, 1999).

In general, a model can take one of three forms (Bandura, 1977, 1986). One form, of course, is a live model—an actual person demonstrating a particular behavior. But we can also learn from a symbolic model—a person or character portrayed in a book, film, television show, video game, or other medium. For example, many children model their behavior after football players, rock singers, or such fictional characters as Harry Potter and Dora the Explorer. Finally, we can learn from verbal instructions—descriptions of how to successfully execute certain behaviors—without another human being, either live or symbolic, being anywhere in sight.

Social cognitive theorists sometimes use the term modeling to describe what a model does (i.e., demonstrate a behavior) and at other times to describe what the observer does (i.e., imitate the behavior). To minimize confusion, I'll often use the verb imitate rather than model when referring to what the observer does.

BEHAVIORS AND SKILLS THAT CAN BE LEARNED THROUGH MODELING

By observing what other people do, learners can, of course, acquire a wide variety of psychomotor skills, from relatively simple actions (e.g., brushing teeth) to far more complex ones (e.g., performing dance routines or gymnastics skills) (Boyer, Miltenberger, Batsche, & Fogel, 2009; Poche, McCubrey, & Munn, 1982; Vintere, Hemmes, Brown, & Poulson, 2004). But observations of other people also enable learners to acquire many behaviors with cognitive or emotional components. For example, learners are apt to do the following:

- Develop more sophisticated drawing skills when others demonstrate such skills, either in person or on videotape (Geiger, LeBlanc, Dillon, & Bates, 2010)

²The tendency for learners to engage in forbidden behavior when they see others incur no adverse consequences for behaving that way is known as the response disinhibition effect. In this situation, the learners have presumably already mastered the behavior but the expectation of punishment has previously inhibited it. With the expectation no longer present, the behavior is disinhibited and may increase in frequency.

Real
Fictional

تعليمات لفظية

نموذج حي

نموذج رمزي

أنا
+
أحد الآخرين

الخلايا العصبية المرآة

mirror neuron Neuron in the brain that fires either when a person is performing a particular behavior or when the person sees someone else perform the behavior.

model Real or fictional individual who demonstrates a behavior that learners might emulate; alternatively, a set of instructions for successfully executing the behavior.

modeling Demonstrating a behavior for another person or observing and imitating another person's behavior.

يبدو

سلوك الخلية العصبية

أنا كأنا + أقول

- Learn to fear particular stimuli or situations if others show fear in those circumstances (Mineka & Zinbarg, 2006)
- Better resist the enticements of a stranger when a peer has modeled resistance strategies (Poche, Yoder, & Miltenberger, 1988)
- Be less likely to tolerate racist statements if people around them refuse to tolerate such statements (Blanchard, Lilly, & Vaughn, 1991)

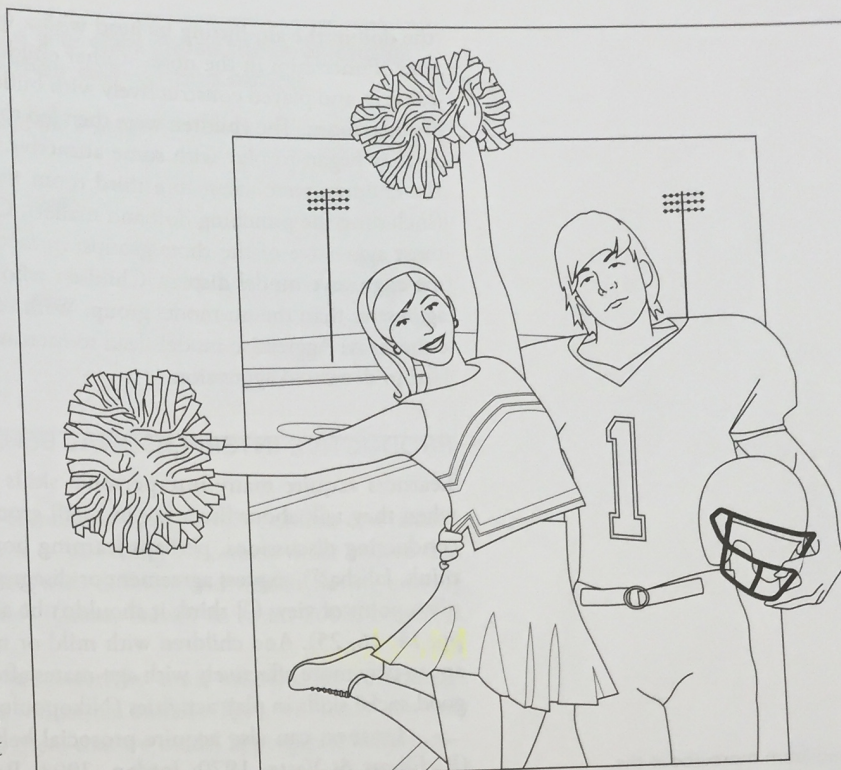
Considerable research has been conducted concerning the impact of models in three areas: academic skills, aggression, and productive interpersonal behaviors.

ACADEMIC SKILLS

Learners acquire many academic skills, at least in part, by observing what others do. For instance, they may learn how to solve long division problems or write a cohesive composition partly by observing how adults or peers do these things (Braaksma, Rijlaarsdam, & van den Bergh, 2002; K. R. Harris, Graham, Brindle, & Sandmel, 2009; Schunk & Hanson, 1985). Modeling of academic skills can be especially effective when the model demonstrates not only how to *do* a task but also how to *think about* the task—in other words, when the model engages in **cognitive modeling** (Schunk, 1998; Schunk & Swartz, 1993; Zimmerman, 2004). As an example, consider how a teacher might model the thinking processes involved in the long division problem in the margin:

First I have to decide what number to divide 4 into. I take 276, start on the left and move toward the right until I have a number the same as or larger than 4. Is 2 larger than 4? No. Is 27 larger than 4? Yes. So my first division will be 4 into 27. Now I need to multiply 4 by a number that will give an answer the same as or slightly smaller than 27. How about 5? $5 \times 4 = 20$. No, too small. Let's try 6. $6 \times 4 = 24$. Maybe. Let's try 7. $7 \times 4 = 28$. No, too large. So 6 is correct.³

$$4 \overline{) 276}$$



Students who are prominent members of the school community can be powerful models for many of their peers—perhaps for the better or perhaps for the worse, depending on the specific behaviors being modeled.

AGGRESSION

Numerous research studies have indicated that children become more aggressive when they observe aggressive or violent models (Bandura, 1965; N. E. Goldstein, Arnold, Rosenberg, Stowe, & Ortiz, 2001; Guerra, Huesmann, & Spindler, 2003). Children learn aggression not only from live models but also from the symbolic models they see in films, on television, and in video games—and possibly also from aggressive lyrics they hear in popular music (C. A. Anderson et al., 2003; Carnagey, Anderson, & Bartholow, 2007; Wartella, Caplovitz, & Lee, 2004). Furthermore, young learners' aggressive behaviors tend to take the same *forms* as the aggression they witness. Boys in particular are apt to copy other people's aggressive actions (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1963; Bushman & Anderson, 2001; Lowry, Sleeter, Duncan, Powell, & Kolbe, 1995).

A classic study by Bandura, Ross, and Ross (1961) dramatically illustrates the power of modeling for both encouraging and discouraging aggressive behavior. Preschoolers were taken, one at a time, to a playroom containing a variety of toys and were seated at a table where they could draw pictures. While in the playroom, some of the children saw an aggressive model: An adult came in and behaved aggressively toward an inflatable punching doll—for example, kicking

cognitive modeling Demonstrating how to think about as well as how to do a task.

³Extract from "Teaching Elementary Students to Self-Regulate Practice of Mathematical Skills with Modeling" by Dale H. Schunk, from *Self-Regulated Learning: From Teaching to Self-Reflective Practice*, edited by Dale H. Schunk and Barry J. Zimmerman, p. 146. Copyright © 1998 by Guilford Publications, Inc. Reprinted with permission.

the doll in the air, hitting its head with a wooden mallet, and making statements such as "Pow!" and "Punch him in the nose." Other children instead observed a nonaggressive model: An adult came in and played constructively with building blocks. Still other children saw no model at all in the playroom. The children were then led to another room where they were mildly frustrated: Just as they began to play with some attractive, entertaining toys, the toys were taken away. Finally, the children were taken to a third room that contained both nonaggressive and aggressive toys (including the punching doll and mallet). Children who had seen the aggressive model were the most aggressive of the three groups; in fact, they mimicked many of the behaviors they'd seen the aggressive model display. Children who had observed a nonaggressive model were even less aggressive than the no-model group. With regard to aggression, then, models can have an impact either way: Aggressive models lead to increased aggression in children, and nonaggressive models lead to decreased aggression.

PRODUCTIVE INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIORS

Learners acquire many interpersonal skills by observing and imitating others. For example, when they talk about literature in small groups, children may adopt one another's strategies for conducting discussions, perhaps learning how to solicit one another's opinions ("What do you think, Jalisha?"), express agreement or disagreement ("I agree with Kordell because . . ."), and justify a point of view ("I think it shouldn't be allowed, because . . .") (R. C. Anderson et al., 2001, pp. 14, 16, 25). And children with mild or moderate forms of an autism spectrum disorder are apt to play more effectively with age-mates after watching a videotape of a nondisabled peer using good social skills in play activities (Nikopoulos & Keenan, 2004).

Learners can also acquire prosocial behaviors in part through observation and modeling (R. Elliott & Vasta, 1970; Jordan, 2003; Radke-Yarrow, Zahn-Waxler, & Chapman, 1983). In one research study (Rushton, 1980), children observed an adult playing a game and reinforcing himself with tokens for good performance. Some children saw the adult donate half of his earned tokens to a poor boy named Bobby pictured on a poster in the room; other children observed the adult keep all his winnings for himself. After that, the children played the game and could reward themselves with tokens. The more tokens they earned, the better the prize they could purchase. They could make a donation to Bobby, but doing so meant lesser purchasing power for themselves. Children who had seen a generous model were more likely to give some tokens to Bobby than were children who had seen a selfish model—not only at that time but also in a follow-up session two months later.

Benevolent models in popular media can have a positive impact as well. Rather than encouraging aggression, some characters in books, television programs, and other popular media promote prosocial behaviors—those aimed at helping others rather than at enhancing personal well-being—and such models can prompt children and adolescents to behave similarly (D. R. Anderson, 2003; Huston, Watkins, & Kunkel, 1989; Jordan, 2003; Nucci, 2001; Rushton, 1980).

* CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE MODELS

Learners don't always imitate the people they see around them and in the media. Influential models typically have several characteristics (Bandura, 1986; T. L. Rosenthal & Bandura, 1978; Schunk, 1987). First, they're competent at the behavior or skill in question. Learners usually want to behave like people who do something well rather than poorly. For instance, children may try to imitate the basketball skills of a professional basketball player, and adolescents may make note of especially effective techniques they observe in art or literature (see Figure 10.2). Even preschoolers have some ability to discriminate between competent and incompetent models (P. L. Harris & Want, 2005).

Second, influential models typically have prestige and power. Some effective models—a world leader, a renowned athlete, a popular rock star—are famous at a national or international level. The prestige and power of other models—a head cheerleader, the captain of the high school hockey team, a gang leader—may be more localized. As an example of such local influence, children are more likely to interact with students who have disabilities when they see popular classmates (rather than unpopular ones) initiating such interactions (Sasso & Rude, 1987).

Third, and perhaps most importantly, influential models exhibit behaviors relevant to learners' own circumstances. Learners are most likely to adopt behaviors they believe will be useful for

You can learn more about the development of prosocial behaviors in Chapter 3.

Regularly expose students to prosocial models in literature, history, and other academic subject areas.

① * Competent →

② * Prestige & Power →

③ * behaviors relevant to learners' own circumstances.

مستويات مختلفة من التأثير