

## Week 2

### Social and motivational behavior: historical and methodological foundations

- I. Motivation Defined: Motivation is the process whereby **goal-directed activity** is **instigated and sustained**. Page 5
  - A. Motivation can influence what, when and how we learn (Schunk)
  - B. Students who are motivated to learn are apt to engage in activities they believe will help them learn. (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons)
  - C. Motivation bears a reciprocal relation to learning and performance (Schunk)
- II. Historical Theories of Motivation
  - A. Behavioral theories view motivation as a change in the rate, frequency of occurrence or form of behavior as a function of environmental events and stimuli.
  - B. Cognitive theories stress the causal role of mental structures and the processing of information and beliefs. Motivation is internal and non observable only behaviors are.
  - C. Volition v. Will: James believed that consciousness helped people and animals adapt to their environments. Will was a state of mind in which we desire a particular action and believe that its manifestation is within our power. Volition was the process of translating intentions into actions.
  - D. Instincts: Innate propensities that manifest themselves in behavior.
  - E. Drives: Internal forces that seek to maintain homeostasis. Freud conceived of motivation as psychical energy or moving force that could be released or repressed. Energy develops when needs exist. Hull's Systematic Behavior Theory: Habit strength, Inhibition, Effective reaction potential. Mowrer developed a drive theory that stressed the role of emotions which are intervening variables that mediate the relation between stimuli and response. 4 primary emotions: fear, relief, hope and disappointment. Miller-acquired drives.
  - F. Purposive behaviorism: stresses goals, stands in contrast to the mechanistic conditioning and drive theories. (Tolman)
  - G. Expectancy Learning: Tolman defined expectancies as involving relationships between stimuli or among a stimulus, response and stimulus. Expectancies help one attain goals. People form cognitive maps to attain goals.
  - H. Latent learning: or learning in the absence of a goal or reinforcement. Such learning contradicts the operant conditioning principle that behavior change requires reinforced practice.
  - I. Arousal Theory: James-Lange Theory stipulated that emotion is a consequence of behavior rather than an antecedent and involves perceptions of responses to arousing situations. Emotion is an effect of behavior not a cause. Optimal level of arousal (Hebb)
  - J. Schachter's Theory of Emotion: proposed that emotion involves physiological arousal and a cognitive label or attribution.]
  - K. Balance Theory: Heider postulated a tendency for relations among person, situations and events to be cognitively balanced. Cognitive Consistency theories assume that motivation results from relations between cognitions and behaviors.
  - L. Cognitive Dissonance (Festinger) people strive to maintain consistent relations among their beliefs, attitudes, opinions and behaviors. Dissonant cognitions exist when one follows from the opposite of the other.
  - M. Conditioning: Thorndike's Law of Effect: the consequences of behavior are motivating and produce learning. Pavlov (p. 25). Skinner (p.27).

1. Premack Principle which says that the opportunity to engage in a more valued activity reinforces engaging in a less valued activity, offers a systematic means for ordering reinforcers and predicting how consequences will function.
- N. Humanistic Theories challenged behaviorism. Humanism emphasizes people's capabilities and potentialities. Assumptions: the study of humans is holistic, human choices creativity and self actualization are important areas to study, methodologically it is better to study a problem with a less refined methodology than a trivial problem with a complex methodology.
1. Maslow (see chapter 5)
  2. Carl Rogers: The actualizing tendency is the fundamental motivational construct in Rogers's theory. Represents an ongoing aprocess of personal growth and achieving wholeness. In education this is seen in meaningful experiential learning which has relevance to the whole person, is self initiated, is pervasive and is evaluated by the learner. Teachers don't impart learning they act as facilitators. Critique specific goals are better than general (Lock & Latham)
- O. Mechanistic Model: complex behaviors are broken down into simpler ones. Reductionist and additive – behaviors sum to form more complex ones.
- P. Organismic: Complex events can not be broken down into simpler ones. Multiplicative: behaviors combine to form more complex than the sum of the parts.
- Q. Contextual: non reductionistic and multiplicative like organisimic, but is discontinuous and interactionist. Relates the person to the environment.
- III. Assessing Motivation
- A. Indexes of Motivation (p. 13-14)
1. Choice of tasks: selection of a task under free choice conditions indicates motivation to perform the task. Brophy showed that choice is not a useful index
  2. Effort: High effort-especially on difficult material–indicative of motivation. Schunk (p.14) showed that feedback linking performance to effort raised perceptions of how hard children had worked. Salomon assessed students' mental effort and found that it related to self efficacy.
  3. Persistence: Working for a longer time–especially when one encounters obstacles–is associated with higher motivation. Zimmerman & Ringle found that children who observed a high-persistent model worked longer
  4. Achievement: Choice, effort and persistence raise task achievement. Students who choose to engage in a task, expend effort and persist are likely to achieve at a higher level (an indirect measurement of motivation) (Pintrich & Schrauben)
- B. Methods of assessing motivation
1. Direct observations
  2. Ratings by others
  3. Self reports (includes think alouds and dialogues)

The role of self esteem

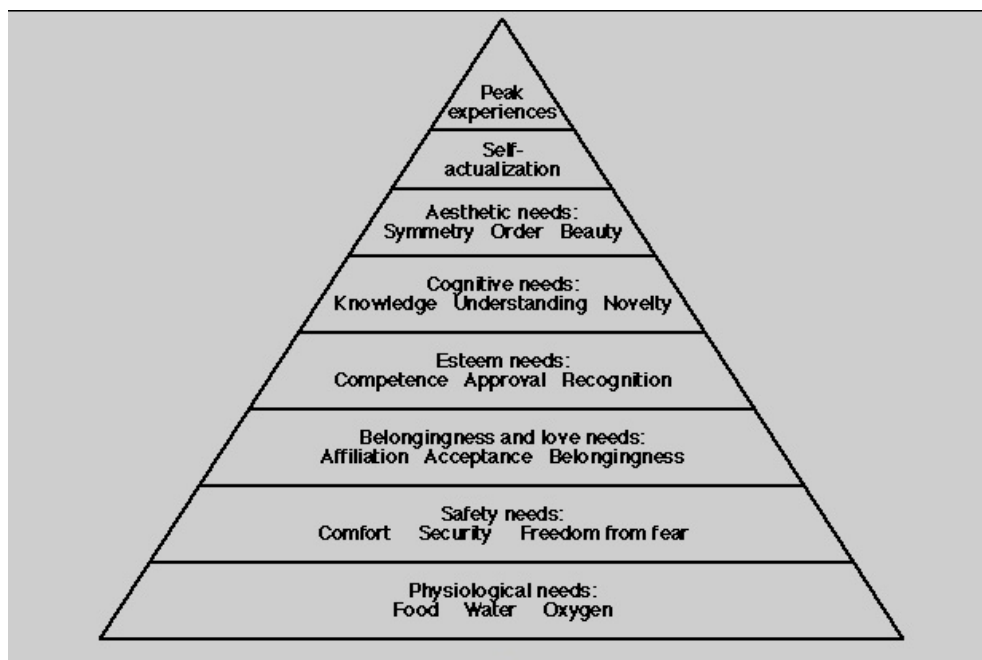
- I. Baumeister et al. 2003 *Does high self esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness or healthier lifestyles?*
  - A. Hi self esteem does not in and of itself lead to positive academic performance or positive behavior.
  - B. Hi self esteem seems to be a result of good school and work performance. Experimental studies generally fail to show that self esteem causes good task performance, with the important exception that high self esteem facilitates persistence after failure.
  - C. Hi self esteem (self report) people claim to be more likable, attractive, to have better relationship to make better impressions. Objective measures don't show this particularly if someone is viewed as a narcissist. Leadership does not stem directly from self esteem. High self esteem makes people more willing to speak up or criticize a group direction.
  - D. Narcissism lead to increased aggression in retaliation for wounded pride. Low self esteem may contribute to externalizing behavior and delinquency. The highest and lowest rates of cheating and bullying are found in different sub categories of high self esteem.
  - E. Self esteem has a high correlation with general happiness. Low self esteem is more likely to lead to depression under some circumstances. **Buffer hypothesis:** high self esteem mitigates the effects of stress..this has not be conclusively proven.
  - F. Hi self esteem does not prevent children from smoking, drinking, taking drugs or engaging in early sex. If anything, high self esteem fosters experimentation. High self esteem does reduce the possibility of bulimia in girls. The benefits of high self esteem fall into two categories: enhanced initiative and pleasant feelings. Indiscriminate praise might lead to narcissism.
- II. Baumeister et al. 2005 *Exploding the Self Esteem Myth*
  - A. The article argues that efforts to boost people's self-esteem are of little value in fostering academic achievement or preventing undesirable behavior. People intuitively recognize the importance of self-esteem to their psychological health, so it is not particularly remarkable that most of us try to protect and enhance it in ourselves whenever possible. In the 1980s, California State Assemblyman John Vasconcellos argued that raising self-esteem in young people would reduce crime, teen pregnancy, drug abuse, school underachievement and pollution. Modern efforts have, however, cast doubt on the idea that higher self-esteem actually induces students to do better. Studies of possible links between workers' self-regard and job performance echo what has been found with schoolwork: the simple search for correlations yields some suggestive results, but these do not show whether a good self-image leads to occupational success, or vice versa. After coming to the conclusion that high self-esteem does not lessen a tendency toward violence, that it does not deter adolescents from turning to alcohol, tobacco, drugs and sex, and that it fails to improve academic or job performance, we got a boost when we looked into how self-esteem relates to happiness. The consistent finding is that people with high self-esteem are significantly happier than others. Causation needs to be established. It seems possible that high self-esteem brings about

happiness, but no research has shown this outcome. The strong correlation between self-esteem and happiness is just that--a correlation.

III. Crocker & Park (2004). *The costly pursuit of self esteem.*

- A. Researchers have recently questioned the benefits associated with having high self-esteem. The authors propose that the importance of self-esteem lies more in how people strive for it rather than whether it is high or low. They argue that in domains in which their self-worth is invested, people adopt the goal to validate their abilities and qualities, and hence their self-worth. When people have *self-validation goals, they react to threats in these domains in ways that undermine learning; relatedness; autonomy and self-regulation; and over time, mental and physical health. The short-term emotional benefits of pursuing self-esteem are often outweighed by long-term costs.* Previous research on self-esteem is reinterpreted in terms of **self-esteem striving**. Cultural roots of the pursuit of self-esteem are considered. Finally, the alternatives to pursuing self-esteem, and ways of avoiding its costs, are discussed. (See handout)

IV. Maslow



V. d versus Unwarranted self esteem Warrante

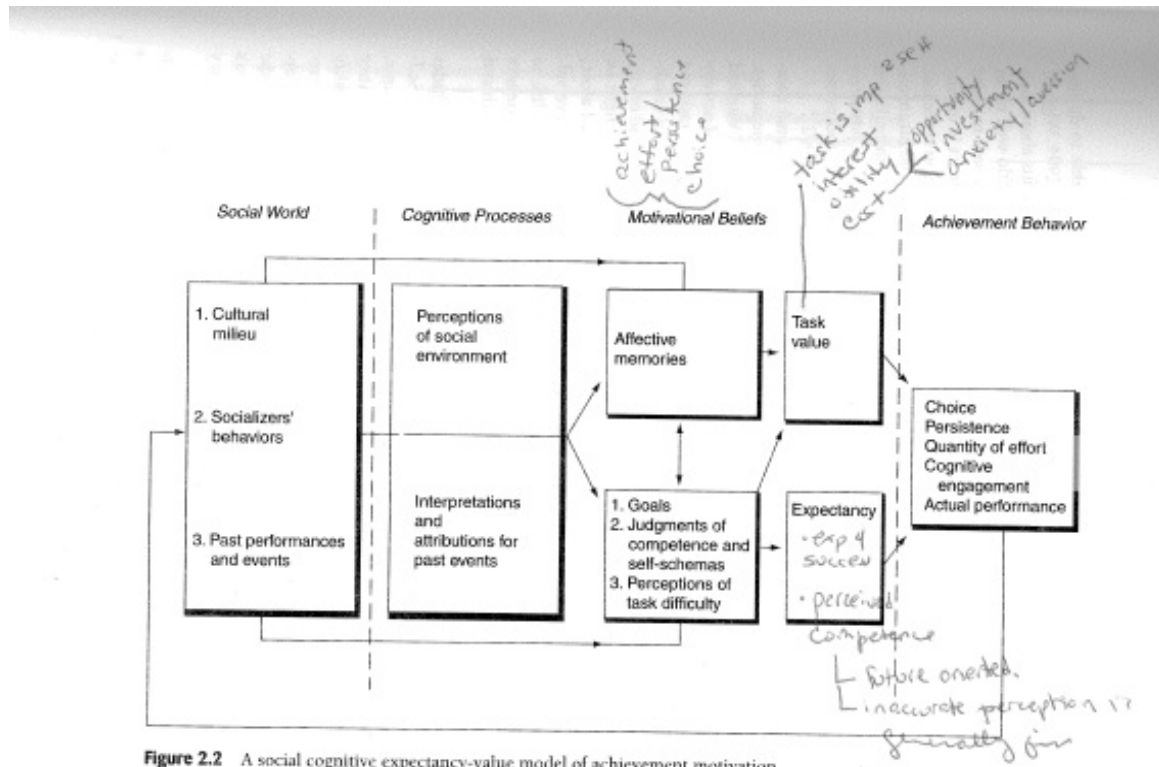
## Expectancy-value models of motivation

- I. **Expectancy construct** reflects individual's beliefs and judgments about his or her capabilities to the task and to succeed. **Value** components of motivation refer to the different beliefs students have about the reasons they might engage in a task. In **expectancy-value models** of motivation, both the expectancy and value components are seen as important for predicting students' future choice behavior, engagement, persistence and actual achievement.
- II. History
  - A. Tolman proposed that **Expectancy Learning** see week 2 II.G. and that all animals can learn expectancies about what will happen to them if they perform a certain behavior.
  - B. Lewin: **valence** relates to the value a person attached to an object in the environment. The amount of valence that accrues to an object is a function of the intensity of the need. **Level of aspiration** the goal or standard that individuals set for themselves in a task, based on past experience and familiarity with the task. (P. 55)
  - C. Atkinson: **model of achievement motivation**. He proposed that behavior was a multiplicative function of needs, expectancy and value which he labeled **motivation=motives [approach success or avoid failure] x probability for success [expectancy] x incentive value [value attached to accomplishing task]**. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) measures/d motive for success. Model used an inverse relationship between expectancy and incentive value (1 minus the probability of success). Model supports the idea of "moderate difficulty" in line with Piaget, Gagne and Vygotsky.

|                         |      | Motive to approach success |                           |
|-------------------------|------|----------------------------|---------------------------|
|                         |      | Low                        | High                      |
| Motive to avoid failure | Low  | Failure Acceptors          | Success oriented students |
|                         | High | failure avoiders           | overstrivers              |

- III. Eccles & Wigfield: focuses on the role of students' expectancies for academic success and their perceived value for academic tasks and springs from a general organismic perspective based in personality, social and developmental psychology. The model does not highlight motives but motives could be part of the affective memories component. Achievement behavior is predicted by two components: expectancy and value. Expectancy seems to be predictive of motivation dimensions of achievement and effort/persistence. The dimension of motivational choice is best predicted by task value. Students do not distinguish between self perceptions of ability and expectancy for success. The three value components attainment value, intrinsic interest and extrinsic utility value are empirically distinct from one another and from the expectancy component. Value components are positively correlated with expectancy.
  - A. Critique: correlational and longitudinal in design, surveys of late elementary

through secondary school students.



- IV. Developmental and Group differences: Hi perceived competence doesn't relate to high performance in African Americans. Steel *Stereotype threat* in a threatening situation the threatened group chokes and performs according to the negative stereotype.
- Distinction between level and accuracy of children's self perceptions of competence and their definitions of ability and effort (attribution)
  - Young children may use the extremes of the Likert scale during self assessment biasing results
  - Younger children have high self perceptions regardless of objective assessments. Objective assessments become more related to self perceptions of ability as the child ages
  - Inflated self reports may relate to positive performance outcomes.
  - Young children may not have the information processing capacity necessary to utilize all the cues available to make accurate predictions about future performance. Young children use less comparative standards or criteria.
  - Older children's ratings of interest, importance and utility for school subjects decline in comparison to the mean levels of younger children's ratings. This may happen because of a switch in attribution from incremental to entity as well as a mismatch between children's needs for autonomy and self regulation and school design.
  - Ethnic/Gender differences: often confound SES with ethnicity (compare white upper with black lower), uses a deficit model of comparison. Girls have lower self perceptions than boys, but usually out perform. Differences are moderated by

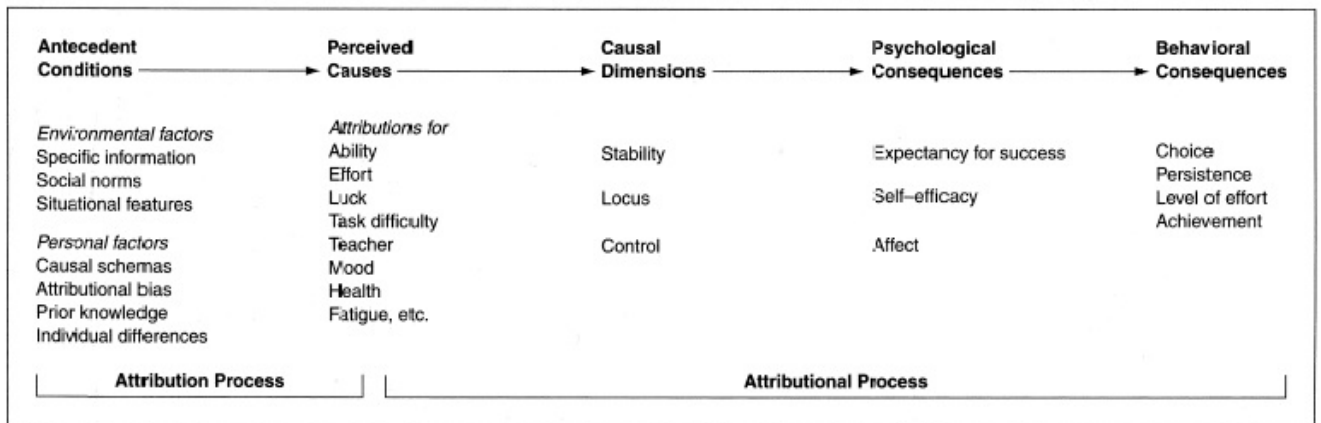
cultural norms. African American students have higher self perceptions but perform lower, may be adaptive and a self protective mechanism (p.83)

- V. Role of expectancy and self perceptions of ability constructs related to three general outcomes: actual achievement/performance, persistence and choice behavior. Eccles and Wigfield showed that students' self perceptions of ability and their expectancies for success are the strongest predictors of subsequent grades in math and English and even better predictors of later grades than previous grads. *Expectancy beliefs are more closely tied to actual achievement and cognitive engagement but that value beliefs are more closely tied to choice behaviors that would provide the student with the opportunity to achieve in the future.*
  - A. **Cognitive engagement** refers to how cognitively engaged the students are in the tasks.
  - B. **Cognitive strategies** Pintrich looked at the relations between self competence beliefs and students' use of cognitive strategies. Higher perceptions of self ability related to more strategy use.
- VI. Role of Self Concept beliefs. **Self concept** is very similar to **self perception of competence**.
  - A. Self concept is domain specific related to competence
  - B. Not the same as self esteem which is more affective and global
  - C. Relation between self concept and achievement is complex
- VII. Cross (1995) *Oppositional identity and African American youths: issues and prospects*.
  - A. Attempts to differentiate Black defensive oppositional identity from Black alienated oppositional identity / [argues] that defensive oppositional identity is a protective filter employed by Blacks who are, or who seek to become, functional within the larger society / its themes are protection and engagement, revealing a bicultural strategy that results in personal efficacy within both the Black and White "worlds" / defensive oppositional identity has a long history in the Black community and, until recently, was the normative type of protective strategy found in Black America

## Week 5

### Attribution Theories

- I. Attribution is the ways in which people experience the causes of their own and others behaviors.
  - A. Assumptions: individuals are motivated by a goal of understanding and mastering the environment and themselves. People are naive scientists who are trying to understand the causal determinants of their own behavior as well as the behavior of others.
  - B. Attribution theory is a phenomenological theory of motivation that gives precedence to the individual's construction of reality, not reality per se, in line with other constructive accounts of cognition and learning. Accordingly, although there may be concerns about the accuracy of individuals' attributions from a motivational perspective, the accuracy of an attribution is not important for an attribution to have psychological and behavioral consequences.
  - C. Parallels Bem's self perception theory and *Bandura's social cognitive model in which individuals make inferences about the self from observing their own behaviors.*
  - D.



**Figure 3.1** Overview of the general attributional model  
 Material drawn from Weiner (1986, 1992).

- II. History
  - A. Freudian pleasure pain principle and drive theories of motivation
  - B. Heider: as the individual attempts to assign causality for an event, traditional attribution theory defines the central task of the perceiver as one of detecting covariation between causes and effects.
  - C. Kelley: Covariation Model: Person uses an internal ANOVA to search for causality. The dependent variable is attribution with three independent variables: consistency, consensus and distinctiveness.

|          |           |                 |             |
|----------|-----------|-----------------|-------------|
|          | Consensus | Distinctiveness | Consistency |
| Internal | Lo        | Lo              | Hi          |
| External | Hi        | Hi              | Hi          |



|        |    |    |    |
|--------|----|----|----|
| Chance | Hi | Hi | Lo |
|--------|----|----|----|

- D. Weiner: task difficulty can influence the types of attributions that are generated. Subjects were likely to attribute the outcome to the task when there was consistency between the target's and the other's outcome. Social norms (how did everyone else do?) may influence attributions as well.
- III. Personal Factors
- A. Causal rules
1. Causes must precede effects
  2. Events that share temporal contiguity with the target even are more likely to be seen as causal factors
  3. Events that are spatially contiguous are more likely to be linked in cause-and-effect relations
  4. Perceptually salient stimuli are more likely to be seen as causal than stimuli that are in the background
  5. Causes resemble effects. Big effects equal big causes
  6. Representative causes are attributed to effects
- B. Causal schemas
1. Compensatory schema (Heider): eg., effort can compensate for ability
  2. Multiple sufficient/necessary schemas (Kelley) If Effect has two causes A,B then E may be caused by both A&B or A or B.
- C. Attributional biases

**Table 3.1** Common Attributional Biases from the Student and the Teacher Perspectives

| Attribution   | Student Perspective   | Teacher Perspective  |
|---|---|--|
| <i>Fundamental attribution error</i><br>Attribute others' behavior to a disposition or trait  | Student perceives all teacher behavior as function of a disposition<br>"Ms. Baker is always mean."<br>"Mr. Smith is prejudiced against minorities and women."   | Teacher perceives all student behavior as a function of disposition<br>"Sam is just a very lazy person. He never tries hard."<br>"Sally has no aptitude for science."  |
| <i>Actor-observer perspective</i><br>Attribute others' behavior to disposition, but own behavior to situation                       | Student perceives his behavior as a function of situation, but attributes teacher's behavior to a disposition<br>"I hit him because he was bugging me, but now you are punishing me because you don't like me and always pick on me." | Teacher perceives his behavior as a function of classroom, but attributes students' behavior to disposition<br>"You are a very aggressive boy and I'm just trying to keep control of my class."                  |
| <i>Self-serving bias</i><br>Accept personal responsibility for success, deny responsibility for failure                             | Student perceives her successes are due to her behavior, but attributes failures to other factors<br>"I did well in math because I'm smart at that, but poorly in English because the teacher is terrible when she teaches English."  | Teacher perceives her success as due to her behavior, but attributes failures to other factors<br>"I did a great unit in math, but the students aren't motivated to study English literature."                   |
| <i>Self-centered bias</i><br>Regardless of success or failure, accept more personal responsibility for a jointly determined outcome | Student will perceive that he is more responsible for an outcome, even when it is due to his and others' behavior<br>"I did more of the work on this project than all the other students in my small group."                          | Teacher will perceive that he is more responsible for an outcome even when it is due to his and other's behavior<br>"Third-period class discussion was excellent. I'm a really good facilitator of discussions." |
| <i>False consensus effect</i><br>Assume that your beliefs and behavior are typical of most people                                   | Student perceives that her beliefs or behavior are representative of most other students<br>"I hate math and most girls hate it just like me."<br>"All the other kids are cheating, so I can too."                                    | Teacher assumes that her beliefs or behaviors are representative of most other teachers<br>"Like all the other teachers in this building, I think the biggest problem is that the kids are just not motivated."  |

- IV. Prior knowledge and beliefs
- Prior knowledge and beliefs are used to guide the attribution process. Deviations from the norm may lead to an attributional search. Persons perceived self competencies may influence attributions.
  - Individual differences
    - Locus of control (Rotter) Internal versus external
    - Learned helplessness (Peterson) assumes that individuals search for causal explanations of events and that these explanations influence expectations about future events. Is a part of explanatory style theory which refers to a habitual way of explaining events that is a cognitive characteristic of the individual.
- V. Consequences of attributions
- Spontaneous attributional search: Weiner concluded that individuals do make attributions in real-life situations. Peterson et al suggest that those pro athletes that make attributional statements about past successes and attribute to skill instead of luck do better over time. An unexpected/abnormal event may prompt an attributional search.
- VI. Motivational Dimensions of Attributions
- The motivational push of attributions derives from their classification in to dimensions based on an analysis of the causal structure of attributions. Dimensional analysis allows for comparison of phenotypically different attributions along genotypically similar lines. Logical analysis was based on attributional researchers' examinations of different attributions and subsequent placement of them in different categories along dimensions. The three dimensions are: locus, stability and controllability.

**Figure 3.2** Original and revised locus-by-stability classification scheme for attributions  
From *An Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion* by B. Weiner, 1986, New York: Springer-Verlag. Copyright© 1986 by Springer-Verlag New York, Inc. Adapted by permission.

|           |          | Original Scheme     |                             |
|-----------|----------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
|           |          | Locus               |                             |
| Stability | Stable   | Internal<br>Ability | External<br>Task difficulty |
|           | Unstable | Internal<br>Effort  | External<br>Luck            |

|           |          | Revised Scheme  |  |
|-----------|----------|---|--|
|           |          | Locus   |  |
| Stability | Stable   | Internal<br>Aptitude<br>Long-term effort                        | External<br>Objective task characteristics |
|           | Unstable | Internal<br>Skills/knowledge<br>Temporary or situational effort | External<br>Chance                         |

| Stability | Locus  |                                      |   |  |
|-----------|--|--------------------------------------|---|--|
|           | Internal   |                                      | External  |  |
|           | Controllable   | Uncontrollable                       | Controllable  | Uncontrollable   |
| Stable    | Long-term effort   | Aptitude                             | Instructor bias/<br>favoritism<br><i>gender bias</i><br><i>cell</i> | Ease/difficulty of<br>school or course<br>requirements |
| Unstable  | Skills/knowledge<br><br>Temporary or<br>situational effort<br>for exam | Health on<br>day of exam<br><br>Mood | Help from<br>friends/teacher  | Chance   |

**Figure 3.3** Achievement attributions classified by locus, stability, and controllability dimensions  
 From *An Attributional Theory of Motivation and Emotion* by B. Weiner, 1986, New York: Springer-Verlag. Copyright© 1986 by Springer-Verlag New York, Inc. Adapted by permission.

- VII. Stigma and Attribution: acts as an overlay and the most salient point of attribution and may remove the most adaptable part of attribution—effort. Individuals who are deemed responsible (attribution is their faulty) for their situation are stigmatized or sanctioned (issue of AIDS and gay sex versus “innocent” victims)
- VIII. Emotion: attribution theory does not include a value construct, but does explicitly incorporate emotions. Emotions are basically outcomes fo the cognitive process of making attributions.
- IX. Gender/Ethnic differences: gender differences very similar to expectancy value model. Children are more incremental theorists but change as they get older. Girls have lower expectancies but it is not clear if attributions mediate this difference. African Americans may have more external control beliefs that may be self protective when dealing with racism.
- X. Crocker et al. (1991) *Social stigma*.  
A.

**Two experiments investigated the hypothesis that the stigmatized can protect their self-esteem by attributing negative feedback to prejudice. Fifty-nine women participated in the 1st experiment. Women who received negative feedback from a prejudiced evaluator attributed the feedback to his prejudice and reported less depressed affect than women who received negative feedback from a nonprejudiced evaluator. In the 2nd experiment, 38 Black and 45 White students received interpersonal feedback from a White evaluator, who either could see them or could not. Compared with Whites, Blacks were more likely to attribute negative feedback to prejudice than positive feedback and were more likely to attribute both types of feedback to prejudice when they could be seen by the other student. Being seen by the evaluator buffered the self-esteem of Blacks from negative feedback but hurt the self-esteem of Blacks who received positive feedback.**

## Social Cognitive Theory

- I. **Social Cognitive Theory** postulates that motivational processes and self regulation influence both learning and performance. **Self efficacy**, one's perceived ability to learn or perform an action, is a key variable.
- II. History
  - A. James believed imitation was instinct and it was pervasive and general.
  - B. McDougall believed that all behavior was instinctive and restricted imitation to the "copying of one individual of the actions, the bodily movements, of another"
  - C. Piaget postulated that human development is characterized by the acquisition and modification of **schemas**. Imitation is restricted to activities corresponding to existing schemas.
  - D. Humphrey believed that imitation was a circular reaction in which each response served as a stimulus for the next response.
  - E. Skinner saw imitation as a generalized response. A modeled act served as a discriminative stimulus. Imitation occurred when an observer performed the response and was reinforced.
  - F. Miller and Dollard defined imitation as "a process by which matched or similar acts are evoked in two people and connected to appropriate cues." **Matched dependent behavior** occurs when the model is older, smarter or more skilled than the imitator. The imitator's behavior is dependent on the behavioral cues of the model.
  - G. Rotter **Social Learning Theory** integrated learning and personality theories. "The major or basic modes of behaving are learned in social situations and are inextricably fused with needs requiring for their satisfaction the mediation of other persons." The theory had four basic variables. **Behavior potential** refers to the probability that an individual will act in a certain fashion relative to alternatives. **Expectancy** is an individual's belief concerning the likelihood that a particular reinforcement will occur following a specific behavior. **Reinforcement value** refers to how much individuals value a particular outcome relative to others. **Psychological situation** highlights the importance of the context of behavior. The essence of the theory is that people form expectations about the likely outcomes of behaviors and act in accordance with these expectations and the value they place on potential outcomes.
- III. Social Cognitive Theory
  - A. Reciprocal Interactions: **triadic reciprocity**: human functioning is explained in terms of a model of triadic reciprocity in which behavior, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants of each other. The *behavioral-environmental link* is exemplified by an instructional sequence in which a teacher presents information and directs students' attention to instructional aids. The *behavioral-personal link* is exemplified by *self efficacy*. The *person-environmental link* is found in students with learning disabilities where personal factors can influence the environment. The small loop emanating from the person factor means that personal factors influence one another. Such within person interaction is critical for *self regulation*.
  - B. Learning and motivation: people learn much by observing models, but the knowledge and skills they acquire may not be demonstrated at the time of learning.

People will not demonstrate skills until they are motivated to display them.  
Motivation affects performance and learning.

- C. Enactive and vicarious learning: learning is largely an information processing activity in which information about the structure of behavior and about environmental events is transformed into symbolic representations that serve as guides for action. **Enactive** learning is learning by doing and experiencing the consequences. **Vicarious** learning occurs in the absence of overt performance by learners and derives from observing models that are live, symbolic or nonhuman. Vicarious learning accelerates learning beyond what occurs when students perform every action at the time it is learned. Behavioral consequences whether experienced personally or modeled, inform and motivate students rather than strengthen behaviors.

IV. **Modeling**: refers to behavioral cognitive and affective changes that result from observing or more models. Modeling serves different functions: inhibition/disinhibition, response facilitation and observational learning

- A. Functions of modeling

**Table 4.1** Functions of Modeling

| Function                 | Effect on Observers   |
|--------------------------|---|
| Inhibition/disinhibition | Creates expectations of similar consequences for modeled action |
| Response facilitation    | Social prompt causes similar behavior                           |
| Observational learning   | New skills and behaviors are acquired                           |

- B. Observational learning occurs through modeling. **Cognitive modeling** incorporates modeled explanations and demonstrations with verbalizations of the model's thoughts and reasons for performing actions.

**Table 4.2** Processes of Observational Learning

| Process    | Activities  |
|------------|---|
| Attention  | Attending to distinctive features of modeled displays                           |
| Retention  | Coding and transforming modeled information for storage; rehearsing information |
| Production | Translating visual and symbolic conceptions of modeled events into behavior     |
| Motivation | Performing valued activities and those with expected positive consequences      |

- C. Characteristics of effective models
1. Competence: perceived model competence aids observational learning
  2. Perceived similarity
    - a. Mastery models
    - b. Coping models
    - c. Self modeling (all on page 155)
  3. Credibility
  4. Enthusiasm

- D. Functions of modeled consequences: modeled consequences inform and motivate observers. Vicarious consequences affect observers' motivation. Motivational effects of vicarious consequences may not automatically follow from outcomes but also depend on self-efficacy.
- V. **Reciprocal teaching** an example of an instructional procedure that employs extensive use of teacher and peer models (Palinscar) Reciprocal teaching leads to great comprehension gains, better maintenance of skills and strategies over time and better generalization to classroom comprehension tasks compared with traditional instruction.
  - A. Reflects Vygotsky's **zone of proximal development** where teachers/peers provide **scaffolding** assistance.
    - 1. Cognitive modeling: adult tells child what to do while adult performs the task
    - 2. Overt guidance: child performs under direction of adult instruction
    - 3. Overt self guidance: child performs while instructing self aloud
    - 4. Faded overt self guidance: child whispers instructions while performing task
    - 5. Covert self instruction: child performs task while guided by inner silent speech.
- VI. Motivational processes
  - A. Motivation is goal directed behavior instigated and sustained by expectations concerning the anticipated outcomes of actions and self efficacy for performing those actions. Outcome expectations are the expected outcomes of one's actions.
  - B. **Self efficacy** (pg. 161) is "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" Self efficacy bears some similarity to task specific self-concept and self perceptions of competence. Self efficacy represents people's judgments of their capabilities in the same way that Eccles and Wigfield represent task specific self concept and Harter represents self perceptions of competence. (See week 3) Outcome expectations often depend on self efficacy. Strongly related to effort and task persistence. Prior knowledge and experience influence pretask self efficacy.
    - 1. Performance versus attributional feedback provides information about self efficacy.
    - 2. Efficacy cues are derived during task engagement.
  - C. **Goal setting** refers to establishing quantitative or qualitative standards of performance. Goal setting is an important motivational process.
    - 1. Self efficacy is substantiated as learners observe goal progress which conveys they are becoming skillful. Motivational benefits of goals depend on learners making a commitment to attain the goals. They should be *proximal, specific and challenging but attainable*.
    - 2. **Goal commitment** represents how strongly individuals are attached to the goal. How enthusiastic they are about the goal or how determined they are to achieve it.
    - 3. **Locke and Latham** self efficacy is one of the most important positive influences on personal goal setting. Other influences are valence, a person's value beliefs, mood, and group norms and normative information (p.167).
- VII. Model of motivated learning (Corno & Mandinach): motivated learning is motivation to acquire skills and strategies rather than to perform tasks. (P. 169) Motivation and self

efficacy are enhanced when people perceive they are performing skillfully or becoming more competent.

### VIII. Social comparison

- A. Festinger proposed that people are inherently motivated to evaluate their abilities and opinions and they often do this by comparing themselves with others: “to the extent that objective, nonsocial means are not available, people evaluate their opinions and abilities by comparisons respectively with the opinions and abilities of others.” Does not fully explain the motivational effects of perceived similarity because these effects depend largely on self efficacy.
- B. Development of social comparison
  - 1. By fourth grade children regularly use peer comparisons to evaluate their competence. Adults employ social comparison regularly for self evaluation, but the ability to use comparative information depends on higher levels of cognitive development and experience in making comparative evaluations.(p. 175)
- C. Motivation and achievement: Schunk found that social comparative information promoted task motivation, academic goals enhanced self-efficacy and goals plus comparative information led to the highest learning.

### IX. Self regulation and volition

- A. **Self regulation** is the process whereby students activate and sustain cognitions, behaviors and affects that systematically oriented toward attainment of their goals (Zimmerman)
  - 1. Dimensions of self regulation: learners have some choice available in at least and perhaps in others.

**Table 4.4** Dimensions of Self-Regulation

| Learning Issues | Self-Regulation Subprocesses                   |
|-----------------|--|
| Why             | Self-efficacy and self-goals                   |
| How             | Strategy use or routinized performance         |
| When            | Time management                                |
| What            | Self-observation, self-judgment, self-reaction |
| Where           | Environmental structuring                      |
| With Whom       | Selective help seeking                         |

2.  
processes:

Self regulation

- a. **Self observation** refers to deliberate attention to aspects of one’s behavior. Self observation can result in motivational enhancements because when people realize what they do they may react to this knowledge and alter their behavior.
  - b. **Self judgment**: refers to comparing current performance level with one’s goal [goal properties relate to comparison see C.1)
  - c. **Self reactions** are behavioral, cognitive and affective responses to self judgments. Self reactions motivate the belief that one is making acceptable progress along with the anticipated satisfaction of accomplishing the goal enhances self efficacy.
3. Cyclical nature of self regulation–self regulation is cyclical because of the

interaction between personal, behavioral and environmental factors and that these factors typically change during learning and must be monitored.

Forethought—performance or volitional control—self reflection—forethought

a. **Self monitoring** of achievement beliefs sustains learning and efforts and promotes achievement.

b. **Self evaluation**

4. Social and self origins of self regulatory competence

**Table 4.5** Social and Self Influences on Self-Regulation

| Level of Development | Social Influences            | Self Influences                                  |
|----------------------|------------------------------|--|
| Observational        | Modeling, verbal description |  |
| Emulative            | Social guidance and feedback |  |
| Self-controlled      |                              | Internal standards, self-reinforcement           |
| Self-regulated       |                              | Self-regulatory processes, self-efficacy beliefs |

B. Volition a part of a larger self regulatory system that includes motivation and other cognitive processes. Volition can be characterized as a dynamic system of psychological control processes that protect concentration and directed effort in the face of personal and or environmental distractions and so aid learning and performance.

X. Social motivation

A. Group motivation

1. **Cooperative learning**

2. **Collective efficacy** refers to the self efficacy of a group, team or system. Collective efficacy includes both the perceived capabilities of the individual members and group members' perceptions of the effectiveness of the links among tasks, skills and roles.

B. Conformity represents the desire to go along with the group regardless of one's beliefs. Conformity represents modeling of group behaviors. (P. 187)

C. Compliance (Milgram, p. 187) Blanket compliance with orders results in dehumanization and diffusion of responsibility.

XI. Zimmerman (2001) *Theories of self regulated learning*

Discusses **self-regulation** theories as a distinctive approach to academic **learning** and instruction historically and then identifies their common features. Also, the author briefly introduces and compares 7 prominent theoretical perspectives on **self-regulated learning**--operant; phenomenological; information processing; social cognitive; volitional; Vygotskian; and cognitive constructivist approaches--in terms of those common features. It is concluded that research has evolved to the point where detailed theoretical accounts of **self-regulated learning** and academic development can now be offered and appreciated. In an era in which student **self-regulation** often seems alarmingly absent, theories that can offer direction as well as insight to educators into the processes of **self-regulated learning** may be of particular merit.



## Self efficacy, goals and goal orientation

### I. History of goals and goal orientation

- A. Murray
  1. Alpha and beta presses: objective reality and individual's personal perception
- B. Maslow (see week 3)
- C. Motivational Systems Theory (M.Ford): MST is an integrative theory that attempts to organize the various motivational constructs from different theories into one model.

$$\text{Achievement or competence} = (\text{Motivation} \times \text{skill}) / \text{biology} \times \text{responsive environment}$$

1. Motivation is a psychological, future oriented and evaluative phenomenon.  
*Motivation = Goals x Emotions x Personal Agency Beliefs*
2. **Goal content** refers to the desired or undesired consequences of a particular goal. Goal content would be assessed by asking people what they want, what they are trying to accomplish and why they did it.
3. Taxonomy of human goals p.200. Has two main categories intrapersonal goals and goals that represent desired outcomes of a person's interactions with the environment.

### II. Goal orientation theories

- A. **Goal orientation** is the purpose for engaging in achievement behavior. In contrast to Lock and Latham's goal setting theory which focuses on specific and proximal goals, goal orientation theory is concerned with why individuals want to get something correct and how they approach and engage in the task.
  1. **Mastery goal** is defined in terms of focus on learning, mastering the task according to self set standards of improvement.
  2. **Performance goal** represents a focus on demonstrating competence or ability and how ability will be judged relative to others.

**Table 5.4** Different Items Used to Assess Mastery and Performance Goal Orientations

| Dweck   | Ames   | Midgley and Colleagues  | Nicholls  |
|---|--|---|---|
| <i>Learning goal</i><br>I like problems that I'll learn something from, even if they're so hard that I'll get a lot wrong.                                      | <i>Mastery goal</i><br>I work hard to learn.<br>Making mistakes is part of learning.                 | <i>Task-focused</i><br>I like school work that I'll learn from, even if I make a lot of mistakes.<br><br>An important reason why I do my school work is because I like to learn new things.<br><br>An important reason why I do my school work is because I want to get better at it.   | <i>Task orientation</i><br>I feel successful when I learn something interesting.<br><br>I feel successful when something I learn makes me want to find out more.<br><br>I feel successful when something I learn makes me think about things. |
| <i>Performance goal</i><br>I like problems that aren't too hard, so I don't get too many wrong.<br>I like problems that are hard enough to show that I'm smart. | <i>Performance goal</i><br>I work hard to get a high grade.<br>I really don't like to make mistakes. | <i>Performance-approach</i><br>I'd like to show my teachers I'm smarter than other students in my classes.<br>I want to do better than the other students in my classes.<br>I would feel really good if I were the only one who could answer the teacher's question in class.<br><br><i>Performance-avoid</i><br>It's very important to me that I don't look stupid in my classes.<br><br>The reason I do my work is so others won't think I'm dumb.<br><br>One of my main goals is to avoid looking like I can't do my work. | <i>Ego orientation</i><br>I feel successful when I'm the smartest.<br><br>I feel successful when I know more than other people.<br><br>I feel successful when I have the highest test scores.   |

## B. Goal orientation and relations with other motivational and cognitive outcomes

**Table 5.5** Dweck's Model of Goal Orientation

| Theory of Intelligence                                   | Goal Orientation   | Confidence in Intelligence | Behavior Pattern   |
|--|--|----------------------------|--|
| <i>Entity theory</i><br>(intelligence is fixed)          | Performance goal<br>(to gain positive judgments of competence) | If High →                  | Mastery oriented<br>Seek challenge<br>High persistence                       |
|  |  | but<br>If Low →            | Helpless<br>Avoid challenge<br>Low persistence                               |
| <i>Incremental theory</i><br>(intelligence is malleable) | Learning goal<br>(to increase competence)                      | If High or Low →           | Mastery oriented<br>Seek challenge<br>(fosters learning)<br>High persistence |

From "A Social-Cognitive Approach to Motivation and Personality" by C. Dweck and E. Leggett, 1988, *Psychological Review*, 95(2), p. 259. Copyright© 1988 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted by permission.

### 1. Harackiewicz model

**Table 5.6** Two Goal Orientations and Their Approach and Avoidance Forms

|                                | Approach Focus  | Avoidance Focus  |
|--------------------------------|---|--|
| <b>Mastery orientation</b>     | Focus on mastering task, learning, understanding<br>Use of standards of self-improvement, progress, deep understanding of task (learning goal, task goal, task-involved goal)   | Focus on avoiding misunderstanding, avoiding not learning or not mastering task<br>Use of standards of not being wrong, not doing it incorrectly relative to task  |
| <b>Performance orientation</b> | Focus on being superior, besting others, being the smartest, best at task in comparison to others<br>Use of normative standards such as getting best or highest grades, being top or best performer in class (performance goal, ego-involved goal, self-enhancing ego orientation, relative ability goal) | Focus on avoiding inferiority, not looking stupid or dumb in comparison to others<br>Use of normative standards of not getting the worst grades, being lowest performer in class (performance goal, ego-involved goal, self-defeating ego orientation) |

## III. Kamins & Dweck

Conventional wisdom suggests that praising a child as a whole or praising his or her traits is beneficial. Two studies tested the hypothesis that both criticism and praise that conveyed person or trait judgments could send a message of contingent worth and undermine subsequent coping. In Study 1, 67 children (ages 5–6 years) role-played tasks involving a setback and received 1 of 3 forms of criticism after each task: person, outcome, or process criticism. In Study 2, 64 children role-played successful tasks and received either person, outcome, or process praise. In both studies, self-assessments, affect, and persistence were measured on a subsequent task involving a setback. Results indicated that children displayed significantly more "helpless" responses (including self-blame) on all dependent measures after person criticism or praise than after process criticism or praise. Thus person feedback, even when positive, can create vulnerability and a sense of contingent self-worth.

## The Intrinsic-Extrinsic Controversy

- I. **Intrinsic motivation** refers to the motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake.  
**Extrinsic motivation** is motivation to engage in an activity as a means to an end.
  - A. There is no automatic relationship between the two. Not a continuum.
  - B. They are both time and context dependent and can change over time
  - C. Not a dimension of personality
- II. History
  - A. **Effectance motivation:** (White) People have an inherent need to feel competent and interact effectively with the environment. The goal of effectance motivation is a feeling of personal mastery or efficacy. Effectance motivation becomes specialized as one develops (fits with Piaget's views). Does not do a good job of explaining or predicting events.
  - B. **Incongruity** (Hunt) intrinsic motivation gave rise to exploratory behavior and curiosity and stemmed from incongruity between prior experiences and new information. When arousal or incongruity becomes too great, people may become frustrated and attempt to escape from the situation.
- III. **Effectance/Mastery Motivation - Harter** attempted to specify the antecedents and consequences of effectance motivation. Believed that **perceived competence** applied to specific areas rather than being generic in nature is a critical variable in the model.
  - A. Intrinsic motivation relates positively to perceived competence and internal control. Students who believe they are competent enjoy tasks more and display greater intrinsic motivation.
  - B. Harter reported an overall decline in intrinsic motivation in children from elementary through middle.

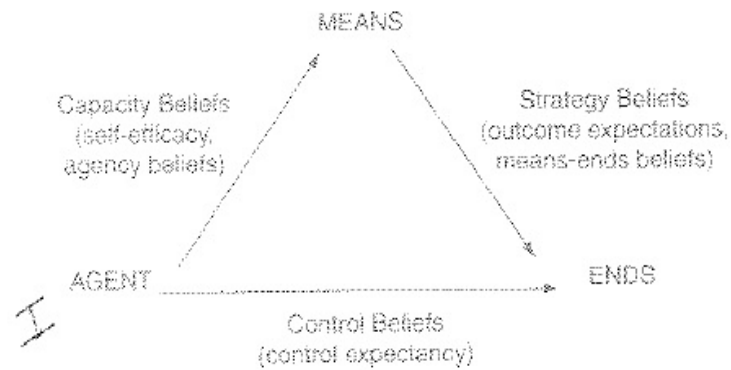


Figure 6.1 Harter's Model of Effectance (Mastery) Motivation

From "A Model of Mastery Motivation in Children" by S. Harter in *Aspects in the Development of Competence: The Minnesota Symposium on Child Psychology* (Vol. 14, p. 218) edited by W. A. Collins, 1980, Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. Copyright © 1981 by Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. Reprinted by permission.

#### IV. Perceived control

**Figure 6.2** Three types of perceived control  
Adapted from Skinner, 1995, 1996.



- A. **Locus of Control** (Rotter) is a generalized belief about the extent to which behaviors influence outcomes. Students who believe they have control over whether they succeed or fail should be more motivated to engage in academic tasks.
- B. **Personal causation** (de Charms) is an individual's initiation of behavior intended to alter the environment. People strive to be causal agents and that a primary motivation is to produce changes in the environment.
  - 1. **Origins** people who have strong feelings of personal causation and attribute changes in their environment to their actions. Origins engage in activities they value.
  - 2. **Pawns** people have feelings of powerlessness and ineffectiveness and perceive situations as threatening.
- V. **Self determination theory Deci & Ryan:** humans have a need to be autonomous and engage in activities because they want to. Self determination is the process of utilizing one's will. Self determination requires that people accept their strengths and limitations, be cognizant of forces acting on them, make choices and determine ways to satisfy needs.
  - A. Assumptions: 3 basic psychological needs
    - 1. Competence
    - 2. Autonomy
    - 3. Relatedness
  - B. Intrinsic motivation is the human need to be competent and self determining in relation to the environment. The need for intrinsic motivation energizes people's wills and the will uses the energy of intrinsic motivation to satisfy needs.
  - C. Motivational processes
    - 1. Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) was developed to explain the intrinsic motivation side of human behavior. Intrinsic motivation leads people to seek out and master challenges. Self determination theory also predicts that intrinsic motivation will be diminished when individuals believe their actions are extrinsically determined.

## D. Development of Self Determination: *organismic* integration

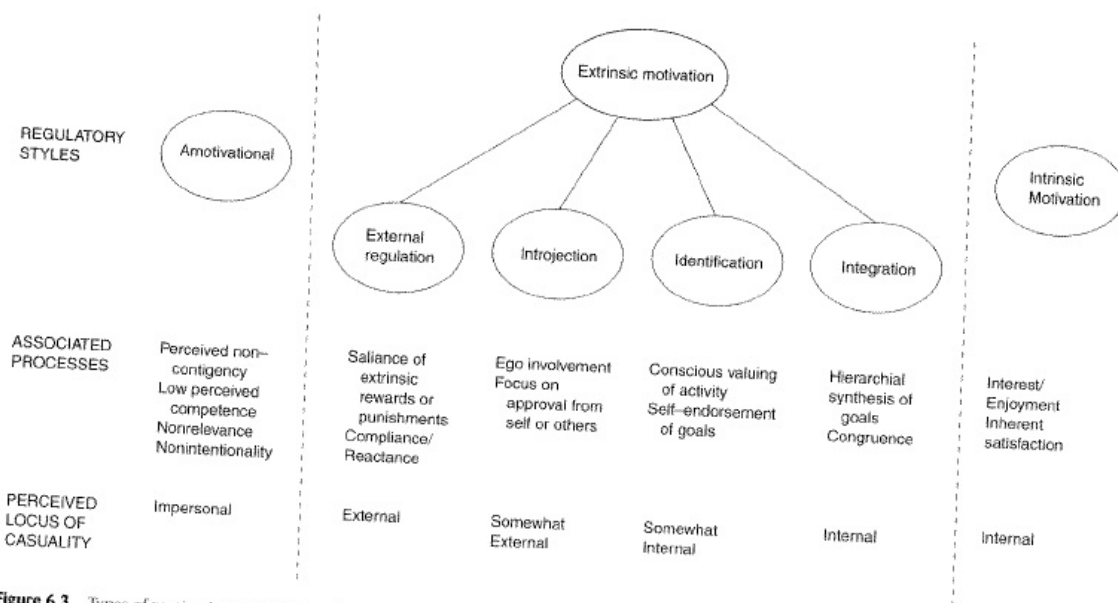


Figure 6.3 Types of motivation in self-determination theory

## VI. Rewards and Intrinsic Motivation

A. Lepper, Greene & Nisbett (1973) provided evidence for the detrimental effects of rewards on intrinsic motivation

1. **Overjustification hypothesis:** working on an intrinsically interesting task under conditions that make it clear that the activity is a means to an end can diminish subsequent intrinsic motivation. Offering people a reward to work on a task they enjoy provides more than adequate justification for participation.
2. Each reward has two aspects: a controlling aspect and an informational aspect. The relative salience of the two aspects determines which process will be operative. If the controlling aspect is more salient, it will initiate a change in perceived locus of causality. If the informational aspect is more salient, the change in feelings of competence and self-determination process will be initiated.

B. Enhancing Intrinsic Motivation

1. Challenge (similar to ZPD)
2. Curiosity (Piaget?)
3. Control/Choice (locus of control-Rotter)
4. Fantasy

VII. Kamins & Dweck: Person versus process praise and criticism: Implications for contingent self-worth and coping

We hypothesized that *person-* or trait-related feedback, because it involves a global assessment based on a specific behavior or performance, would teach children to measure themselves by their performance and would thus foster more helpless reactions to setbacks. Such feedback includes praise or criticism that comments on children's abilities, goodness, or worthiness after their performance of a task or that expresses the adult's global evaluation of the child on the basis of the child's performance (e.g., disappointment or pride in the child as a whole). In contrast, we hypothesized that feedback that focused children on examining their strategies or effort (*process*

feedback) would foster more mastery-oriented responses to setbacks.

The predictions for criticism are straightforward. Much past research has shown that attributing failure to lack of ability is a defining feature of a helpless response (which includes lowered expectations, negative affect, lowered persistence, and decreased performance) and that attributing failure to one's effort or strategy is a defining feature of a mastery-oriented response (which includes high expectations, positive affect, persistence, and stable or improved performance; [Diener & Dweck, 1978](#); [Dweck, 1975](#)). Thus, feedback that focuses the child on negative self-evaluations or negative trait evaluations should foster more helpless reactions to setbacks, whereas process-focused feedback should promote more mastery-oriented responses.

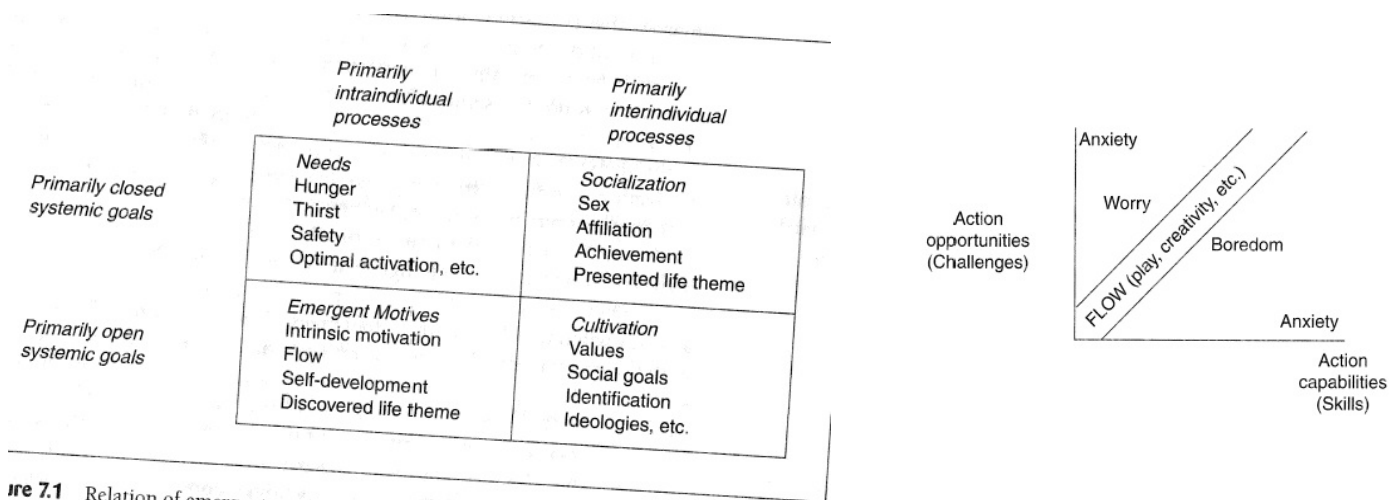
The predictions for the effects of praise, although similar, are more counterintuitive. A strong belief in our culture is that praising children's abilities ([Schunk, 1994](#)), or goodness and worth in general ([Briggs, 1970](#); [Joseph, 1994](#); [Youngs, 1991](#)), after good performance or behavior is a good way to bolster self-esteem or self-efficacy and promote learning ([Koestner et al. , 1987](#), [Koestner et al. , 1989](#)). There is some fine research to support this belief ([Schunk, 1994, 1996](#)), as well as research that indicates that positive ability feedback can lead to greater intrinsic motivation ([Deci & Ryan, 1987](#); [Koestner et al. , 1987](#), [Koestner et al. , 1989](#)). However, although such praise can be an effective way to boost a child's sense of efficacy during a successful event, what has been less well researched is how individuals who have been praised in these ways cope with subsequent setbacks. We propose that person praise, because it focuses children on measuring themselves from their performance outcomes, may backfire by leading to vulnerability when performance is poor.

## I. Emotions

- A. Attributional theory definition of **emotions** *are the direct outcome of a cognitive attributional analysis of success or failure.* Emotions flow from the nature of the attributions made in a situation
- B. **Affect** (Forgas) may be the broadest and most inclusive term that refers to both specific emotions and general moods. **Mood** can be defined in terms of relatively low intensity, diffuse and enduring affective states that have no salient antecedent cause and little cognitive content. **Emotions** *are more short lived, intense phenomena that usually have a salient cause.* Parallels the interplay between affect and cognition.
- C. Emotions are bi-directional
- D. Linnenbrink & Pinrich suggest that negative affect might influence working memory by mediating the effects of different goal orientations.
- E. Pekrun suggests 4 pathways that affect may effect learning and performance:
  1. Retrieval and storage of information (neg affect decreases the probability of elaborative processing)
  2. Influence the use of different cognitive, regulatory and thinking strategies
  3. Increase or decrease attentional resources.
  4. Emotions can influence intrinsic and extrinsic motivational processes.

## II. Emergent Motivation and Flow

- A. **Emergent motivation** (Csikszentmihalyi) denotes motivation stemming from the discovery of new goals and rewards as a consequence of interacting with the environment (p.282) Extrinsic forces are preprogrammed biologically (e.g., food, sleep). Intrinsic forces grow out of the individual's belief that a given activity or outcome is worth striving for it's own sake. This is **autotelic** behavior.
  1. Intrinsic rewards and flow. **Flow** *is the holistic sensation that people feel when they act with total involvement.* The flow experience requires skill, expertise, concentration and perseverance. Implication is that teachers/supervisors should ensure that challenges and skills are in balance and sufficiently high to counter apathy.



**Figure 7.1** Relation of emergent motivation to other motives  
 Adapted from Csikszentmihalyi, 1985.

- III. Interest: similar in construct to Eccles' *intrinsic interest*. (Ch 2). There are generally agreed to be 3 parts to interest: personal interest, the interestingness of a situation and the psychological state or situational interest.
- A. **Personal interest** is conceptualized as a personality trait or characteristic and is relatively stable. This is the most similar to Eccles & Wigfield's concept of intrinsic interest..a general liking.
  - B. **Interestingness** should lead to a generation of **situational interest** which is the state of being interested in the task or activity. This is longer in duration then just arousal or curiosity.
  - C. Renninger's Model interest occurs only when an individual has both high value for and activity and high stored knowledge about the activity or topic. (P.293)
- IV. Test anxiety:
- A. **Anxiety**: an unpleasant feeling or emotional state that has physiological and behavioral concomitants and that is experienced in formal testing or other evaluative situations.
  - B. **Test anxiety (Zeidner)** as a set of phenomenological, physiological and behavioral responses that accompany concern about possible negative consequences or failure on an exam or similar evaluative situation.
  - C. Effects on learning and performance
    - 1. Causes poor performance
    - 2. Negatively related to self esteem
    - 3. Related to students' defensiveness and fear of negative evaluation
  - D. Interventions
    - 1. Change the classroom environment
    - 2. Reduce importance of testing
    - 3. Remove time constraints
    - 4. Direct instruction in test taking--removal of worry
- V. **Self Worth/Self Esteem** concerns individuals' affect or emotions toward or evaluation of themselves. Different from emergent motivation or interest because those are task directed where as self esteem is self directed. (See week 3)
- VI. Steele & Aronson (1995) *Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans*

Stereotype **threat** is being at risk of confirming, as self-characteristic, a negative **stereotype** about one's group. Studies 1 and 2 varied the **stereotype** vulnerability of Black participants taking a difficult verbal test by varying whether or not their performance was ostensibly diagnostic of ability, and thus, whether or not they were at risk of fulfilling the racial **stereotype** about their intellectual ability. Reflecting the pressure of this vulnerability, Blacks underperformed in relation to Whites in the ability-diagnostic condition but not in the nondiagnostic condition (with Scholastic Aptitude Tests controlled). Study 3 validated that ability-diagnosticity cognitively activated the racial **stereotype** in these participants and motivated them not to conform to it, or to be judged by it. Study 4 showed that mere salience of the **stereotype** could impair Blacks' performance even when the test was not ability diagnostic. The role of **stereotype** vulnerability in the standardized test performance of ability-stigmatized groups is discussed.



I. Nicholls *Conceptualization of Ability*

- A. Task Orientation: adaptive and facilitates learning. Similar in concept to Dweck's Mastery orientation
- B. Ego Orientation: maladaptive. Related to performance or goal orientation More present in adults than in young children. Adults high effort equals low ability. Young children high effort equals high ability (ability to control and master environment)

**judgments of ability: high ability means improved performance or success on tasks in which there is some doubt concerning their success. Ability does not, in this case, imply an inferred trait. For young children, when more effort is needed for success, this implies more learning, which is more ability. Effort can have quite different implications for adults and older children. They realize that, though more effort produces more learning, higher effort can imply lower ability if others require less effort for the same performance. Effort is a two-edged sword (Covington & Omelich, 1979) only for adolescents and adults.**

**The perspective of younger children could be termed subjective. For them, the subjective experience of gaining insight or mastery through effort is the experience of competence or ability. For adults, a gain in mastery can lead to feelings of competence. But, it can lead to feelings of incompetence if, on adopting the more objective viewpoint that the young child lacks, they observe that their peers master more with equivalent effort or achieve the same with less effort.**

II. Li, J. *Learning as a task or virtue*

**The purpose of this study was to examine cultural influences on conceptual orientations of learning in U.S. and Chinese preschoolers. A sample of 188 preschoolers 4–6 years of age provided free-narrative responses to 2 story beginnings about the learning behavior of 2 protagonists, 1 who worked hard and 1 who gave up. Results showed that despite some differences in the younger age groups, children from both cultures valued learning similarly at age 6. However, important cultural differences emerged in children's construals of the learning process. U.S. children showed a heightened awareness of the mind/task attributes of the learner, that is, ability, task attempting, and strategy use. By contrast, Chinese children perceived more the learner's dispositional qualities of diligence, persistence, and concentration. These trends increased as children's age increased. The U.S. findings are interpreted as reflecting the U.S. cultural emphasis on learning as a task, and the Chinese results, as reflecting the Chinese cultural focus on learning as a process of cultivating personal virtue.**

## School and Community Influences on Human Development

- I. Eccles & Roeser *School and community influences on human development*
  - A. Bronfenbrenner's interactionist and contextualist model for understanding human development. Can't know the child without knowing the environment, family etc.
  - B. **Socialization** is an intended and explicit process
  - C. **Enculturation** is an implicit process

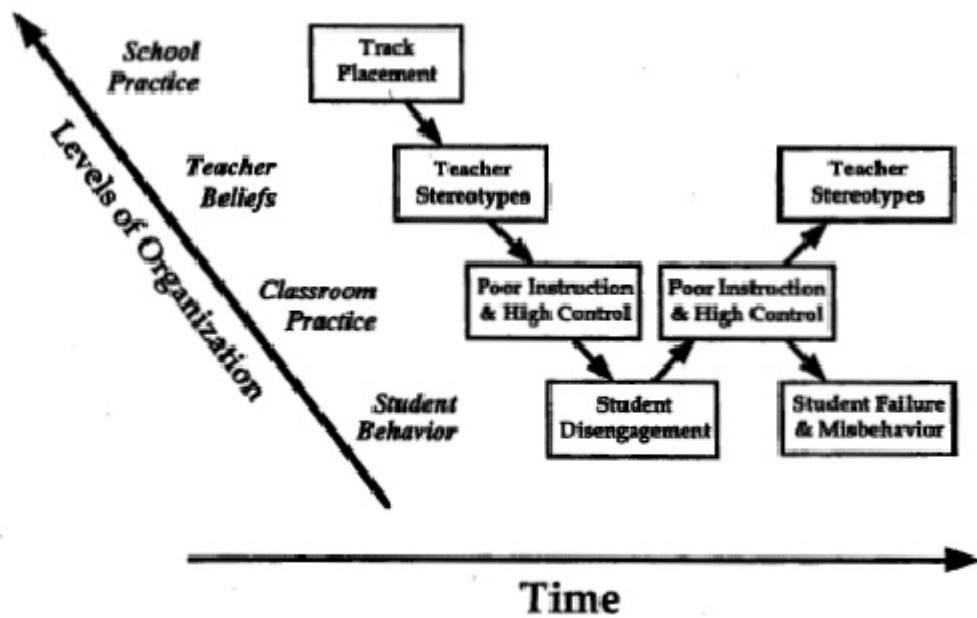


FIGURE 12.2. Illustration of multilevel transactional processes: Student placement, teacher beliefs and instruction, and student outcomes.

- D. 

ANOTHER WAY TO THINK ABOUT MULTIPLE CONTEXTS IS IN TERMS OF THEIR RELATIVE ABILITY TO meet human needs. As we noted earlier, Connell and Wellborn (1991) suggested that individuals develop best in contexts that provide opportunities to feel competent, to feel socially connected and valued, and to exercise control over one's own destiny. If this is true, then individuals should be drawn toward those contexts that provide these opportunities in a developmentally appropriate dose. Variations across contexts on these characteristics could explain why individuals come to prefer one context over another—for example, adolescents who are not doing well in school might turn to their group to find a sense of sense of competence and positive self-esteem.

## II. Schooling in America

## I. Models of decision making

## A. History

1. Gagne viewed planning and decision making as not confined to the preinstructional aspects of teaching but rather occur during all phases of teaching, including while lessons are being conducted. This view is based on *information processing* and cognitive theories.
2. Clark & Yinger: teachers often do not follow a rational planning model because they do not begin planning in relation to specific objectives or goals. Teachers often begin planning by considering the setting and the content to be taught after which they shift their attention to *motivational concerns*.

## B. Instructional grouping: three types of grouping competitive, cooperative and individualistic.

**Table 8.1** Instructional Grouping

| Arrangement     | Description  | Example  |
|-----------------|--|--|
| Competitive     | Students' goals negatively linked:<br>One attains one's goal only if others do not attain their's. | Teachers grades "on the curve" and gives 15% of the students A's, 25% of the students B's, and so on.  |
| Cooperative     | Students' goals positively linked:<br>One attains one's goal only if others attain their's.        | Teacher forms small group to work on project; each student is responsible for completing a part and all students put parts together to form final product. |
| Individualistic | Students' goals not linked:<br>Attainment or nonattainment has no                                  | Students work on computer software programs individually and record  |

## II. Instructional practices

- A. Effective teaching raises student achievement.
- B. Models: provides vicarious source of self efficacy information. Important motivator

## III. Teacher student interactions

## A. Feedback

**Table 8.3** Teacher Feedback

| Type          | Description   | Examples  |
|---------------|---|---|
| Performance   | Provides information on accuracy of work; may include corrective information                              | "That's correct."<br>"The first part is right but you need to bring down the next number."                            |
| Motivational  | Provides information on progress and competence; may include social comparisons and persuasion            | "You've gotten much better at this.<br>You are doing a great job."<br>"I know you can do this."                       |
| Attributional | Links student performance with one or more attributions   | "You're good at this."<br>"You've been working hard and you're doing well."   |
| Strategy      | Informs students about how well they are applying a strategy and how strategy use is improving their work | "You got it right because you used the steps in the right order."<br>"The five-step method is helping you do better." |

- B. Rewards: Skinner: responses to stimuli that are reinforced will be repeated; those that are punished will not. Bandura: it's not the reward that's important but the person's beliefs about the consequences of behavior. Rewards can inform learners about their progress in skill acquisition and thereby sustain motivation. Rewards that are contingent on actual accomplishments are likely to enhance self-efficacy.
  - C. Classroom climate
    - 1. Laissez-fair leadership creates chaos and uncertainty
    - 2. Authoritarian leadership leads to high performance but also frustration, aggression and a negative group atmosphere
    - 3. Democratic leadership leads to high performance and enhances collaboration and ability to work independently.
- IV. Praise/Criticism
- A. **Praise** is positive feedback that expresses approval or commendation. For praise to be effective as a reinforcer it must be delivered contingent on some behavior. From an attributional perspective, praise informs a student about the teacher's beliefs about their ability.
  - B. **Criticism** refers to teacher disapproval of student behavior through verbal feedback or gestures. Criticism should motivate students when it conveys they are competent and can perform better with more effort or better use of strategies.
  - C. **Unsolicited help** (unwarranted praise) conveys information about the recipient's ability and reflects the perceived cause of the recipient's problems
- V. Teacher expectations
- A. **The Pygmalion Effect:** Teachers told about "bloomers" and "non bloomers." After the first year the bloomers had achieved more academically and the differences remained over time. The greatest difference were seen in the younger years. Led to the conclusion that *teacher expectations can act as a self-fulfilling prophecy*.
  - B. Brophy & Good teacher expectations may be formed, communicated to students and affect student behavior
  - C. Cooper & Tom, teachers have initial beliefs for individual students based on teacher's own prior experience and knowledge. A critical variable is the teacher's perception of the control over student performance.
    - 1. **Teacher self-efficacy** refers to personal beliefs about one's capabilities to help students learn. Different from personal self efficacy.
- VI. **Classroom management** refers to the ways that teachers maintain order in their

classroom.

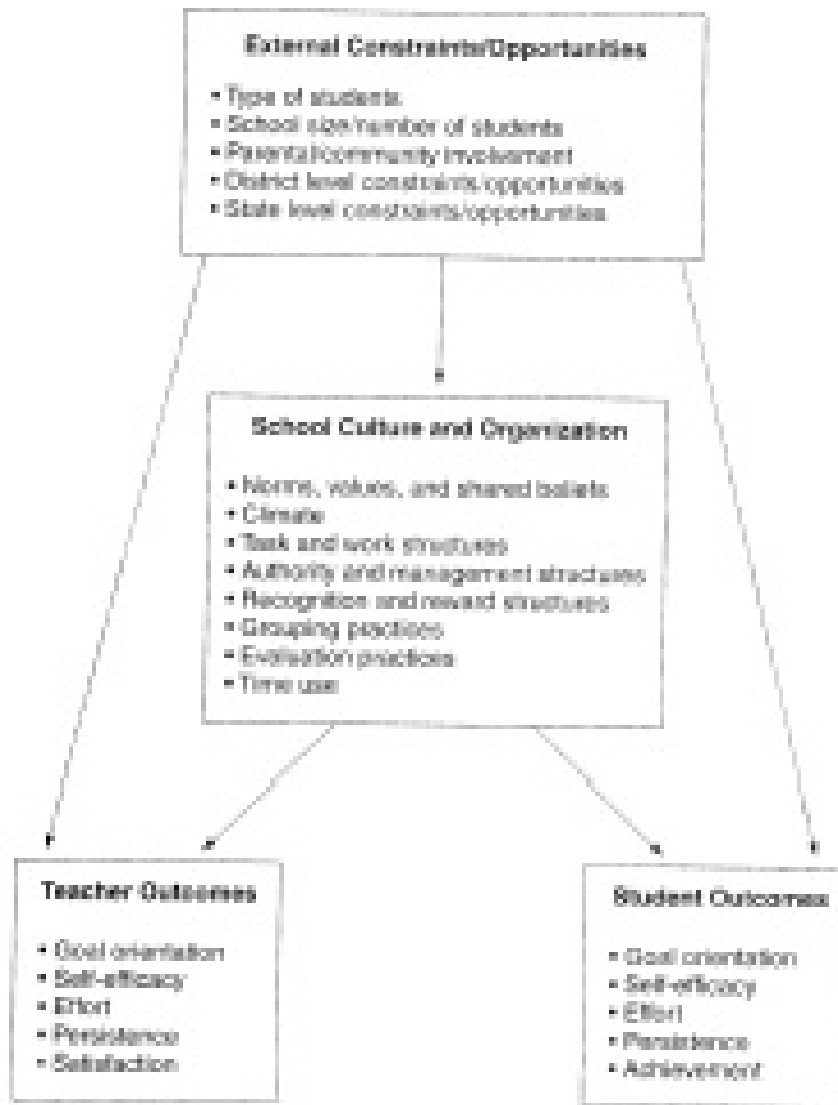
**Ripple effect**  
how a teacher handles misbehavior in one affects the behaviors of others. **Desist** refers to the teacher's actions to stop misbehavior.

**Table 8.5** Qualities of Desists

| Quality   | Description   | Example  |
|-----------|---|--|
| Clarity   | Extent that desist names the misbehaving student, states the unacceptable behavior, and gives the reason for the desist | "Karen, stop bothering Alex. You know that you are to be working alone. Please get back to work on your math."                             |
| Firmness  | Extent that desist conveys an "I-mean-it" attitude with follow-through until misbehavior ceases                         | "Luis, we do not push in the line. If you cannot behave in line you will not go to recess."  |
| Roughness | Extent that desist includes threats, anger, physical handling, punishment   | "A.J., you are so lazy. You're worse than your brother and look where he ended up. You make me furious. I wish you weren't in this class." |

**Table 8.6** Dimensionality Characteristics of Classrooms

| Characteristic                           | Unidimensional Class   | Multidimensional Class   |
|--|--|--|
| <i>Differentiation of task structure</i> | Undifferentiated: Students work on same task simultaneously                    | Differentiated: Students work on different tasks simultaneously  |
| <i>Student autonomy</i>                  | Low: Students have little choice about what to do, when, and how to do it      | High: Students have greater choice of activities, time, place, and method used to complete them          |
| <i>Grouping patterns</i>                 | Whole-class activities; small groups formed based on ability                   | Individual work; small groups formed not based on ability  |
| <i>Performance evaluations</i>           | Students graded on same assignments; grades are public; much social comparison | Students graded on different assignments; social comparisons less likely because grades reflect progress |



VII. Classroom organization

VIII. School Culture and Organization  
Chpt. 9

