

Socio-cognitive Theory Approach in Second Language Acquisition: The state of the Art

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ABSTRACT

The concept of Socio-cognitive Theory (SCT) dates back to Bandura (1982) which focuses on observational learning/modeling, outcome. It has not only addressed how people acquire cognitive, social, emotional and behavioral competencies, but also how they motivate and regulate their behavior and create social systems that organize and structure their real life. In SCT, the social portion of the title acknowledges the social origins of much human thought and action; the cognitive portion recognizes the influential contribution of cognitive processes to human motivation, affect, and action. This study provides a state of the art article in SCT and its role in education in general and language learning in particular.

KEYWORDS:Socio-cognitive Theory, Social language learning, Reinforcement, Modelling

INTRODUCTION

"Of the many cues that influence behavior, at any point in time, none is more common than the actions of others." (Bandura, 1986, p. 206) Many theories have been proposed over the years to explain the developmental changes that people undergo over the course of their lives. These theories differ in the conceptions of human nature they adopt, and in what they regard to be the basic causes and mechanisms of human motivation and behavior. Since development is a lifelong process (Baltes & Reese, 1984), the analysis is concerned with changes in the psychosocial functioning of adults as well as to those occurring in childhood. In the midst of psychological theories, Socio-cognitive theory has gone through a long way to prove its essence in psychology.

On December 4, 1925 Albert Bandura was born in the province of Alberta, Canada. His parents were Polish wheat farmers. He went to a small high school with only 20 students and 2 teachers. In 1949 Bandura received his B.A. From the University of British Columbia. Bandura then went on to the University of Iowa, where he obtained his doctorate in 1952. Upon graduation Bandura did a clinical internship at the Wichita Kansas Guidance Center. The following year, in 1953, Bandura accepted a teaching position at Stanford, where he continues to teach today.

In the 1930s, social learning theory was born at the Yale Institute of Human Relations under the direction of Mark May with the leadership of Hull. They sought to provide learning explanations for key aspects of personality and social development discussed by Freud, such as dependency, aggression, identification, conscience formation, and defense mechanisms. Among the key collaborators with Hull at the institute were John Dollard, Neal Miller, and Robert Sears, who sought to reconcile Freudian and Hullian perspectives during their following careers. For example, to study the cause of children's identification with adults, Miller and Dollard operated a series of experimental studies of social modeling, which they described as a form of instrumental conditioning in a book entitled *Social Learning and Imitation* (1941). They proposed a theory of social learning and imitation that rejected behaviorist notions of associationism in favor of drive reduction principles. However, that failed to take into account the creation of new responses or the processes of delayed and non-reinforced imitations. Bandura was not attracted to the Hullian theory because of its emphasis on tedious trial-and-error learning. He felt that cultures conveyed social and complex competencies through vicarious experience and that Miller and Dollard's studies of modeling and imitation revealed an alternative way that humans acquired competences and knowledge.

In 1953, Bandura joined the faculty at Stanford University as an acting instructor. In the midway of the first academic term, He approached the renowned psychologist Robert Sears, then Chair of the Department, and explained that he had been offered and was considering a position in Santa Rosa where a clinical work in a community service center was combined with part-time teaching at the Santa Rosa Junior College. When Bandura arrived at college, Sears was investigating the familial antecedents of social behavior and identificatory learning, also focusing on nonaggressive reactions to frustration. Bandura was influenced by the Sears' work. He began field

studies of social learning and aggression in collaboration with Richard Walters, his first doctoral student. They were delighted with the unconventional challenge of explaining antisocial aggression in boys who came from intact homes in advantaged residential areas rather than simply demonstrating that multiple adverse conditions tend to give rise to behavioral problems. This research, which emphasized the superior role of modeling in human behavior, led to a program of laboratory research into the mechanisms of observational learning (Pajares, 2004).

Bandura and Walters detect that hyper-aggressive adolescents often had parents who modeled hostile attitudes. However, the parents would not accept their deficiency, they stated that their sons learn aggression from their peers, and they stand against the school. They displayed aggressive behaviors toward the school system and toward other youngsters whom they believed were giving their sons a difficult time. The youngsters modeled the aggressive attitudes of their parents. These aggressive adolescents outweighed the suppressive effect of receiving punishment directly for aggressive acts by seeing a model meting out punishment (Bandura & Walters, 1959). These findings conflicted with the Freudian-Hullian assumption that direct parental punishment would internally inhibit children's expression of aggressive drives, and they led to Bandura's first book, *Adolescent Aggression* (1959) and to a subsequent book several years later, *Aggression: A Social Learning Analysis*.

Having gained a better sense of how people learn by observation, Bandura broadened this work of abstract modeling of rule-governed behavior and to disinhibition through vicarious experience. Bandura (1962) conduct the famous plastic Bobo doll with Dorrie and Sheila Ross to investigate if social behaviors (i.e. aggression) can be acquired by observation and imitation (Bandura, 1962).

It was widely believed in accordance with the Freudian theory of catharsis that modeled violence would drain observers' aggressive drives and reduce such behavior. The children in these studies were exposed to social models who demonstrated other novel violent or nonviolent behaviors toward these reversible Bobo dolls. The participants in the experiment were 36 boys and 36 girls enrolled at the Stanford University Nursery School. The children ranged in age between 3 and almost 6 years, and the average participant age was 4 years 4 months. There were eight experimental groups in which, 24 were assigned to a control group that received no treatment (which would not see an adult role model at all). The rest of the children were then divided into two groups of 24 participants in each. One of the experimental groups was then exposed to aggressive models, while the other 24 children were exposed to non-aggressive models. For this Experiment, it was necessary to pre-select and sort out the children, to make sure that there was an even spread of personality types across the test groups; some subjects already known to be more aggressive in personality than others. So, one of the teachers from the nursery rate each child's personality and attempt to arrange well balanced groups.

By placing one of the children from the test groups in a room with an adult, the Bobo Doll Experiment began. The subject sat in one corner of the room, with a few absorbing toys to play with, such as potato prints and stickers. The adult sat in the other corner of the room, with a few toys, a Bobo doll and mallet. The child was not allowed to play or interact with these toys. In group two, after one minute of playing with the toys, the adult would begin to verbally and physically attack the doll for 10 minutes. For the third testing group, the adult would sit quietly and play peacefully with the toys for about ten minutes. The control group, sat in the room for ten minutes with no adult presenting any action.

In the next stage the subject was taken into another room, which was filled with appealing toys. The child was not allowed to play with these toys, being told that they were reserved for other children to build up the levels of disappointment within the subject.

Then, the child was taken into another room filled with interesting toys contained the Bobo doll and the mallet, some of an aggressive and non-aggressive type. The subject was watching through a one-way mirror, and a number of types of behavior were assessed. The first factor was physical aggression, containing hitting the doll with the mallet or punching, kicking or sitting on the doll. Verbal aggression was also gauged, whether it was general abuse or an imitation of adult role-model phrases. The third assessment was the amount of times the mallet was used to display other forms of aggressive actions than hitting the doll. The final behaviors measured were the modes of subject aggression, which were not direct imitations of the role-model's behavior.

Bandura found out that the children exposed to the aggressive model were more likely to act in physical aggressive ways than those who were not exposed to the aggressive model. The results concerned that the girls on the aggressive model condition showed more physical aggressive responses if the model was male, but more verbally aggressive responses if the model was female.

Lastly, the evidence strongly supports that males tend to be more aggressive than females. When all instances of aggression are recorded, males exhibited 270 aggressive instances compared to 128 aggressive instances exhibited by females (Hock, 2009).

1. However, Certain steps are involved in the observational learning and effective modeling process (Bandura, 1977):

1. Attention — In order to learn, observers must attend to the modeled behavior. Attention is influenced by characteristics of the observer (e.g., perceptual abilities, cognitive abilities, arousal, past performance) and characteristics of the behavior or event (e.g., relevance, novelty, affective valence, and functional value).
2. Retention — before reproducing an observed behavior, an observer must be able to remember the features of the behavior. Includes symbolic coding, mental images, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, motor rehearsal. This process is influenced by observer characteristics (cognitive capabilities, cognitive rehearsal) and event characteristics (complexity).
3. Reproduction — the observer must organize responses in accordance with the model. The action of reproducing the image. Including physical capabilities, and self-observation of reproduction.
4. Motivation — having a good reason to imitate an observed behavior. Includes motives such as past (i.e. Traditional behaviorism), promised (imagined incentives) and vicarious (seeing and recalling the reinforced model)

Each of these processes in observational learning, are affected by factors such as the developmental level of the learner and characteristics of the model and modeled behavior.

The findings of the Bobo doll experiment support Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory. That is, children learn social behavior such as aggression through the process of observation, learning through watching the behavior of another person as a model.

Bandura and his colleagues also indicated that children could learn new patterns of behavior vicariously without actually performing them or receiving rewards. The results competed with Miller and Dollard's conditioning account of modeling and imitation, and led Bandura to distinguish between the cognitive effects of modeling on *acquisition* and the motivational effects of rewards on imitative *performance*. This research was summarized in a second book published in 1963 known as *Social Learning and Personality Development* and led Bandura and Walters to summarize that modeling was a powerful process that could account for diverse forms of learning. They attempted to free the explanations of social learning from theoretical dependence on Freudian assumptions about the role of identification and catharsis and from Hullian and Skinnerian assumptions about the need for direct reinforcement (Pajares, 2004).

At that time, psychologists had concentrated particularly on learning through the consequences of one's actions. Bandura showed the process of trial and error learning can be bypassed through social modeling of knowledge and competencies exhibited by the rich variety of models. He noted that modeling was not simply imitating responses. By extracting the rules underlying the modeled styles of behavior, people produced new patterns of behaviors in a similar style, but go beyond what they have seen or heard.

Social learning theory advocates the concept of modeling, or learning by observing a behavior. Bandura determined three types of modeling stimuli as Live model in which an actual person is demonstrating the desired behavior, Verbal instruction in which an individual describes the desired behavior in detail and guides the participant on how to engage in the behavior, and Symbolic model in which modeling occurs by means of the media, containing movies, television, the Internet, literature, and radio. Stimuli can be either real or fictional characters (Bandura, 1965).

While behaviorists believed that learning led to a permanent change in behavior, observational learning states that people can learn new information without demonstrating new behaviors. Not all observed behaviors are effectively learned. Factors involving both the model and the learner can play significant role in whether social learning is successful or not (Bandura 1977).

In the late 1960s, indicated by the media's coverage of the assassination of U.S. Sen. Robert F. Kennedy together with outstanding reports of children's dangerous behaviors depicted in television advertisements, the potential effects of television violence on children became an increasing public concern. Related to his research, Bandura was invited to attest before the Federal Trade Commission (FTC), the Eisenhower Commission, and several congressional committees as to the evidence that televised violence affects aggressive behavior in children. His attestation played an important role in the FTC's decision of children engaging in risky activities—such as pounding one another in the head with mallets in an advertisement for headache medication—and subsequently to pass new advertising standards.

During 1976 and 1977, he served as chairman of the Department of Psychology. In 1977, Bandura published the *Social Learning Theory*. During a period dominated by behaviorism in the territory of B.F. Skinner, Bandura believed the sole behavioral modifiers of reward and punishment in classical and operant conditioning were inadequate as a framework, and that many human behaviors were learned from other humans.

Bandura (1977) declares: "Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed,

and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action." (p22) The extraordinary growth of interest in social learning and psychological modeling owes much to Bandura's theoretical analyses. Based on Bandura and Walters in 1963 and further detailed in 1977, the key tenets of social learning theory are as follows:

Learning is not purely behavioral; rather, it is a *cognitive* process that takes place in a social context.

Learning can occur by observing a behavior *and* by observing the consequences of the behavior (**vicarious reinforcement**).

Learning involves observation, extraction of information from those observations, and making decisions about the performance of the behavior (observational learning or **modeling**). Thus, learning can occur without an observable change in behavior.

Reinforcement plays a role in learning, but is not entirely responsible for learning.

The learner is not a passive recipient of information. Cognition, environment, and behavior all mutually influence each other (**reciprocal determinism**).

SLT is often described as the 'bridge' between traditional learning theories (ie. Behaviourism) and the cognitive approach. This is because it focuses on how mental (cognitive) factors are involved in the learning process (because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation). Unlike Skinner, Bandura (1977) concludes that humans are active information processors and think about the relationship between their behavior and its consequences. Observational learning could not occur unless cognitive processes were in action. These mental factors mediate (i.e. intervene) in the learning process to specify whether a new response is acquired or not.

By the mid-1980s Bandura had developed a social cognitive theory of human functioning. The reason for relabeling his theory was due to his growing belief that the breadth of his theorizing and research had expanded beyond the scope of the social learning label. Besides, the label had become increasingly misleading because it applied to several theories founded that time, such as Miller and Dollard's drive theory, Rotter's expectancy theory, Gewirtz's operant theory, and Patterson's functionalist theory.

Bandura focused on the external reinforcement schedules of thought processes such as beliefs, expectations, and instructions. In his view, people are not exclusively machines that automatically respond to external stimuli. However, reactions to stimuli are self-activated, initiated by the person. Bandura suggested that a mechanism mediated between stimulus and response, that's the person's cognitive processes. As noticed before Bandura stated that human functioning is the product of the interaction between the environment, behavior, and the person's psychological functioning (Boeree, 2006).

In Social cognitive theory (hereafter SCT), The main part of the ideas that make up social cognitive theory are Observational Learning/Modeling, Outcome Expectations, Perceived Self-efficacy, Goal Setting and Self-regulation. According to Schunk (2012), "learning occurs either enactively through actually doing or vicariously by observing models perform". Observational learning is the process of watching a behavior and then attempting to perform the same behavior. This process is also explained as vicarious learning or modeling because learning is a result of watching the behavior and consequences of models in the environment. Observational learning is dependent upon the availability of models. Verbal or written descriptions, video or audio recordings, and other less direct forms of performance are also considered forms of modeling.

An outcome expectancy is a person's estimation that a certain behavior will produce a resulting outcome. It is thus a belief about the consequences of a behavior that accrue to the individual (Bandura, 1997). These beliefs are shaped enactively through students' past experiences and vicariously through the observation of others. Outcome expectations are important segments in SCT because they form the decisions people make about what actions to take and which behaviors to restrain.

Self-efficacy also has emerged as an influential concept within SCT. Self-efficacy reflects individuals' beliefs about whether they can achieve a given level of success at a particular task (Bandura, 1997). This concept has proven to be useful for understanding students' motivation and achievement in academic contexts. So, higher levels of perceived self-efficacy have been associated with greater choice, persistence, and with more effective strategy use (Pajares, 1996).

Goal setting is another central process within SCT (Bandura, 1986; Schunk, 1990). Goals show the cognitive representations of anticipated, desired, or preferred outcomes. Goals are related to students' outcome expectations and their perceived self-efficacy. Goals are a function of the outcomes students expect from engaging in particular behaviors and the confidence they have for completing those learned behaviors successfully. Yet, goals are an important prerequisite for self-regulation because they provide objectives that students are trying to achieve and benchmarks against which to judge progress.

Research on self-regulation blossomed in the 1980s and continued into the early 2000s. Self-regulation "refers to the capacity to control one's impulses, both to stop doing something, if needed (even if one wants to continue doing it)

and to start doing something, if needed (even if one doesn't want to do it)" (Baron, 2016). SCT assumes that self-regulation is dependent on goal setting, in that students are taught to manage their thoughts and actions in order to reach particular outcomes (Schunk, 2001; Zimmerman, 2000).

Bandura believes that humans are able to control their behavior through a process known as self regulation. Self regulation is a process by which an individual sets goals for him or herself, observes and monitors the performance in obtaining these goals, and then judges the adequacy of their performance and makes modifications. Bandura states that the individual is controlled by reinforcements only to the extent that he or she is aware of them, values their significance in his or her life, and anticipates their final application. He considers self-regulation as a cognitive component of personality. In fact, social learning and self-regulation are treated as the major causes of personality trait manifestation in humans. Based on his view, this process needs three steps (Bandura, 1991):

Self-observation- Humans look at themselves and their behavior and keep track of their actions.
Self-judgment- Humans compare these observations with standards. These standards can be rules set by society, or standards that the individual sets for him or herself.
Self-response- If, after judging himself or herself, the person does well in comparison with the set standards, he or she will give him or herself a rewarding self-response. If the person does poorly he or she then administers a punishing self-response to him or herself.
SCT is based on several basic assumptions about learning and behavior. One assumption relates to triadic reciprocity. It concerns that personal, behavioral, and environmental factors influence one another in a bidirectional, reciprocal fashion. That is, a person's continuous functioning is a product of a continuous interaction between cognitive, behavioral, and personal factors. Another related assumption within SCT is that people have an ability to influence their own behavior and the environment in a purposeful, goal-directed fashion (Bandura, 2001). This belief conflicts with earlier forms of behaviorism that advocated a more rigorous form of environmental determinism. SCT does not deny the importance of the environment in determining behavior, but it argues that people can, through forethought, self-reflection, and self-regulatory processes, apply substantial influence over their own outcomes and the environment.

A third assumption within SCT is that learning can occur without an immediate change in behavior, means that learning and the demonstration of what has been learned are distinct processes. The reason for this separation is that SCT also assumes that learning involves not just the acquisition of new behaviors, but also of knowledge, cognitive skills, concepts, abstract rules, values, and other cognitive constructs. This division of learning and behavior is a paradigm shift from the position advocated by behavioral theories that defines learning stridently as a change in the form or frequency of the behavior. It also means that students can learn, but not represent that learning until motivated to do so.

In psychology, vicarious reinforcement refers to the process of learning behaviors through observation of reward and punishment, rather than through direct experience (Bandura, 1986). For example, children who have older brothers and sisters often learn about behavior and expectations through watching their siblings and try to perform the same behavior and receive a positive or negative reinforcement. For example, If a child wants to cheat on a test, but witnesses that another child gets punished for cheating, he gets the negative reinforcement as a bad signal, and try not to participate in this type of behavior. A student who notice peers receiving high grades because they study in a group may join a study group in hopes of receiving high grades. Reinforcements are anything that motivates a person in some way. They can come in the form of praise, materialistic items, monetary rewards or an emotional reaction.

According to Bandura, reciprocal determinism is a model composed of three factors that influence behavior: the environment, personal factors, and the behavior itself (Bandura, 1986). Think of this as a 3-piece puzzle we can put together. Essentially, Bandura believes that an individual's behavior influences and is influenced by both the social world and personal characteristics. Reciprocal determinism represents that behavior is controlled or determined by the individual, through cognitive processes, and by the environment, through external social stimulus events.

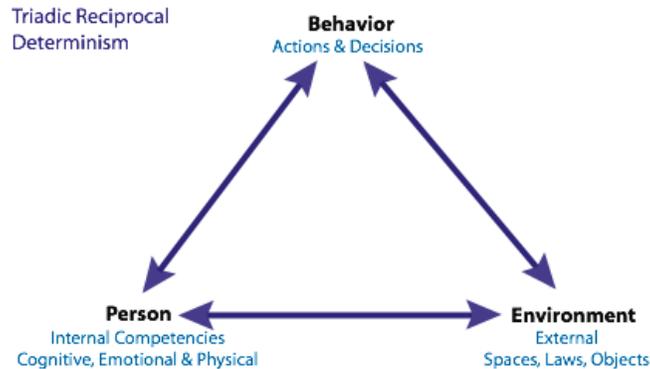


Figure 1. Triadic Reciprocal Determinism

The environmental component includes physical surroundings and stimuli around the individual, such as other people or objects in the environment that influence behavior. The environment can influence the frequency of a behavior or how likely an individual keep doing something.

The behavior itself can have an impact on the environment. The behavior aspect consists of what you are doing, or things you are saying, that may or may not be reinforced, depending on where you are and who you are with.

The individual component contains all the characteristics that have been rewarded in the past. Personality and cognitive factors play an important role in how a person behaves, including individual's expectations, beliefs, and unique personality characteristics.

To make it more clear suppose that Emily is a shy student (the personal/cognitive component). On the first day of school, she enters the class and find that all of the other students are already present (the environment). In this situation, she would just quietly slip into a seat at the back of the class in order to avoid becoming the center of attention (the behavioral component). Then, another student at the front of the room enthusiastically greets Emily and invites her to sit down near her. Here, the environment has introduced a new reinforcing stimuli (the friendly student) that has led to a change in Emily's normal routine action. As a result, her behavior has changed.

After frequent emphasis on mental processes of human, Bandura started his researches on self-efficacy. He demonstrated self-efficacy as self-esteem and competence in dealing with life's problems (Bandura, 1982). He described that people who have a great deal of self-efficacy believe they are capable of coping with the various events in their lives. On the other hand, people with low self-efficacy feel incapable about coping with diverse situations and feel that there is nothing they can do to change the situations they confront. When they encounter problems, they are likely to give up if their first attempt fails (Schultz & Schultz, 1998). Through the Bandura's research of self-efficacy, his theory has been applied to the fields of life-course development, education, health, psychopathology, athletics, business, and international affairs.

In 2002 A project was held by Glanz, Rimer, and Lewis to prevent and reduce alcohol use among students in grades 6 till 12 (ages 11-13). The program took three years and was based on behavioral health curricula, parental involvement and community task force activities. The conclusion was that students were less likely to say they drank alcohol than others who did not join the program. With observational learning, negative expectancies about alcohol use and increased behavioral capability to communicate with parents the results were obtained. However, at the end of the 10th grade the differences were no longer significant.

A new program in the 11th grade was started in which reduced access to alcohol and the change of community norms to alcohol use for high school age students were key elements. With the help of community attention, parental education, support of alcohol free events, media projects to don't provide alcohol and classroom discussions the program started. After the 12th grade a significant result showed that the alcohol use decreased. Moreover, the access to alcohol was reduced and the parental norms were less accepting of teen alcohol use at the end of the study (Glan, Rimer & Lewis, 2002).

The outcomes of the SCTdemonstrated that the actions of the community level to change these constructs resulted in less drinking among teens. The community level seems to have success in changing the environment and expectancies to alcohol use by reducing teen access to alcohol, changing norms and reducing alcohol use among high school students. It shows that the Social Cognitive Theory is relevant for designing health education and health behavior programs.

According to Matsuoka (2004) when he learned the word "behave", he wonders if it was made up from 'be' and 'have'. The 'be' is an intrinsic factor or what we are and the 'have' is an extrinsic factor or what we have. If the 'be'

is related to the cognitive and 'have' is related to the social, to 'behave' itself is related to sociocognitive. As Atkinson (2002) points out language and language acquisition are social and cognitive phenomena.

Atkinson's sociocognitive approach is based on the belief that 'language is social, a social practice, a social accomplishment, a social tool' (2002, p. 526). Atkinson (2002) suggests four implications of a sociocognitive approach to SLA (pp. 538-539) as:

Teaching is valuable. Based on Lave and Wenger (1991), learning occurs through active and legitimate participation in a community of practice. Students learn the way in which L2 is used by participating in activities with their teachers or advanced peers.

SLA promotes more than just language. Language is social, so SLA is able to develop and reinforce different fields such as culture, identity and discourse. Hence, SLA has real potential for changing the world.

Qualitative research approaches are advocated. Based on sociocognitive theory all human beings are holistic in existence, therefore qualitative approaches such as ethnography are encouraged by human.

SLA involves the whole person. For the last but not the least implication of sociocognitive implication in SLA, Atkinson quotes Lave and Wenger (1991) that is, "learning involves the construction of identities".

The sociocognitive approach postulated by Atkinson (2002) coordinate the cognitive into the social based on the belief that our mind exists simultaneously both in the head and in the world. Pedagogically, as Atkinson (2002) proposes, dynamic class activities or collaborative learning may be subscribed or encouraged by the sociocognitive theory.

The social cognitive theory of behavior learned through observation expounded by Bandura (2001) has been generalized to television as well as to the classroom and home environments. Young children are exclusively unable to discriminate between the fiction of television and real life. Research illustrates that they are eager to apply the aggressive behaviors they have observed on television in the playground as early as nursery school age. According to Ortiz (2007), children internalize the behaviors that they watch even though they have not experienced them directly.

Based on Bandura's social cognitive theory, it would seem to indicate that children would learn aggressive behavior through observation of violence on television. It also means that if children observe positive behaviors in television program, they should simulate those behaviors as well. Bandura's theory presents that when children see modeled behavior, they will accept it and use it when they reckon it appropriate. It also explains the need for positive role models on television for children.

According to sociocognitive theory, observing family members or friends working together on a television situation comedy to resolve a problem, help the children to try to resolve problems with their own family members or friends peacefully by working together, instead of fighting with them. A real concern with the effects of television violence and aggressive behavior learned by observation of violent programming is that this learning has been proven to continue through childhood into adulthood. Vos Post (1995) consummated: "Not only because television violence is a reality, and aggression a fact of life, but because an effective social psychological understanding of the relationship between television and behavior may help to not only reduce socially unacceptable aggression, but may actually enable us to increase socially desirable effects."

While most psychologists put Bandura's theory as a behaviorists, Bandura himself has noticed that he "... never really fit the behavioral orthodoxy." Bandura argued that limiting behavior to a stimulus-response cycle was too simplistic. While his work used behavioral terminology such as 'conditioning' and 'reinforcement,' Bandura explained, "... I conceptualized these phenomena as operating through cognitive processes."

In social cognitive theory, Bandura has created one of the few "grand theories" that continues to thrive at the beginning of the Twenty-first Century. He has challenged the general trend in psychology and education toward mini-models by focusing on processes that are influential in diverse areas of human functioning, education, sports, health, organizational settings, medicine, mental health, and social political domains.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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