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INTRODUCTION TO
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY Introduction to Social Psychology MA in Education
Introduction To Social Psychology
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Development in between 1908 – 1945 A.D. 1.3.3.2 Development in between 1945 – 1970 A.D. 1.3.3.3 Development after 1970 A.D. 1.4 Social Psychology in Indian Context 1.5 Social Psychology in Global Context 1.6 Unit Summary 1.7 Key Terms 1.8 Check Your Progress 1.0 Introduction An individual continuously and consistently shapes and gets shaped by the place they live in and the situations they encounter. Social psychology has been more useful than ever before in today's times. As it tends to offer valuable insights, whether it is to understand self or the world around us. As a part of social psychology study, we understand our own personal identity, our impression on other people, how we feel and react to events around us, feeling to conform to the pressures of peers and our feelings, like love and affection that we have for our social relationships. These different reactions of individuals to different situations they interact with, leads to many possible behaviours. This is where social psychology comes into the picture, as it helps to understand how a social situation leads very different people to behave similarly and how similar people behave differently in different situations. To sum it up, social psychology helps in examining an individual's thoughts, feelings and actions based on their interaction with others. There are many diverse areas that fit well within this topic of social psychology, irrespective of which definition one chooses. In this unit, the focus will be on understanding the definition and nature of social psychology, its nature, historical emergence and contextual understanding of the topic in Indian and Global context. 1.1 Unit Objective

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After completing this unit, you will be able to: • Definition and nature of social psychology • Familiarity with the origin and development of Social Psychology •

Acquainting with the underpinnings of Social Psychology in both Indian and Global context. 1.2 Definition and Nature of Social Psychology The behaviour of individuals is shaped through the interaction and communication people have with each other. Through social psychology studies we get an insight on the dynamics of human behaviour in various situations. Also, studying social psychology helps us understand the effect different social situations have on the behaviour of an individual and how these situations get changed by the way individuals behave.

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Floyd Allport (1924) has defined social psychology as "the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture". A similar definition by Gordon W. Allport (1968) states that social psychology is a discipline "that attempts to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others."

If we

dwell deep in analysing the above definitions we get the following elements; it is a scientific study, it studies the experience and behaviour of individuals, groups and communities (culture). The details of the above points are discussed further in detail. 1.2.1 Social Psychology: A Scientific Study The core values like accuracy, objectivity, scepticism and open – mindedness, adopted by the field of social psychology makes it scientific in nature, since these are some values which are essential for any field to be considered as scientific in nature. To explain it further let us define these core

values in detail: Accuracy – As per dictionary definition it means. “the condition or quality of being true, correct, or exact; freedom from error or defect; precision or exactness; correctness.” In this context it indicates the collection of observations made in a careful and error free manner. Objectivity - Objectivity is a philosophical concept of being true independently from individual subjectivity caused by perception, emotions, or imagination. * Scepticism - An attitude of doubt or a disposition to incredulity either in general or toward a particular object, as defined in the dictionary. ** Contextually it means accepting the accuracy of any findings true only to the fact that these findings have been verified many times. Open mindedness – Receptiveness towards new ideas. Being committed to change the viewpoint if in an existing situation the held view point is challenged by new evidence. As discussed earlier, social psychology is a branch of study which adopts the above-mentioned values in its approach to study the behaviour patterns of individual(s), groups and communities, making it scientific in nature. Just like any other scientist, a social psychologist very systematically collects the knowledge using scientific methods, which is a deference to the core values which have read above. These methods make the knowledge so obtained subject to any biases and distortions. 1.2.1.1 Social Psychology: A Science In the previous pages we have discussed the evolution of social psychology and it being a scientific study of human social behaviour – their nature and causes. Psychologists have formulated several theories on the topic of social psychology, but on the basis of their research laid down certain empirical generalisations. This led to the question of - “Can social psychology be considered a scientific discipline, the same as we consider Chemistry, Biology and Physics as scientific subjects? Is social psychology a science?”

Well for any subject to be considered as a scientific field, is based on several assumptions, of which three are important and are mentioned below 1 : 1. The first assumption is that scientists assume that there exists a real and external world independent of ourselves. This world is subject to investigation by scientists. 2. Second assumption is that relations in the world are organised in terms of cause and effect. In other words, there are discoverable causes for all events in the scientists' domain of interest. 3. Third assumption is that knowledge concerning the external world is objective and there does not lie any element of subjectivity. The results obtained by one scientist can easily be verified by others. This is called objectivity. Besides these three assumptions, which are basic and applicable to all branches of science. However, for any field that claim to be a science should meet certain critical characteristics or hallmarks like the following 1 : 1. Every science rests on the accurate observation of facts. If the field or discipline does not permit a careful, precise and error-free observation of facts, it cannot be considered as science. This is called accuracy. 2. Every science has an explicit and formal methodology. Scientists follow this explicit methodology in making observations. As a consequence, one scientist's findings can be repeatedly verified by the others. This is called scepticism. 3. Every science is primarily involved in accumulation of facts and generalisations. Sometimes, a fact may undergo reinterpretation of its meaning, but its essential characteristics remain intact. If the existing evidence suggests that the currently held views are inaccurate, then it should be reinterpreted for change. This is called open- mindedness. 4. Every science includes a body of explicit theory or theories, which serves to give systematic and organised facts and empirical observations. Sometimes, these theories may also serve to guide new empirical investigation. 5. Every science, after obtaining a reasonable level of development, provides at least some degree of prediction and control over selected aspects of the environment.

Now for social psychology to be considered as a science, it has to be held up against these five characteristics or hallmarks. Of five characteristics or hallmarks social psychology meets the condition for four hallmarks with the fifth hallmark still being debatable. Social psychology's reliance on verifiable observation, qualifies it for the first hallmark. Since social psychology uses explicit and formal methodology for conducting experimental observation, for e.g. experimental method, survey method, field studies, etc, makes it eligible for second hallmark. The third hallmark which requires accumulating facts, is also met by social psychology. This is justified with the fact that social psychology accumulates facts regarding the conditions under which certain social behaviour occurs and also the conditions under which a particular social behaviour is least likely to occur. Well social psychology has its reliance on theories, hence makes it eligible for the fourth hallmark as well. Social psychology has two types of framework – theoretical perspectives and middle – range theories. Where one provides general explanations for varied social behaviours in different situations and the other makes predictions about specific types of social behaviour under restricted conditions. But when it comes to the fifth hallmark, it is still debatable on the status of social psychology to be eligible for this hallmark. As per fifth hallmark after attaining a reasonable level of development, every science should provide at least some degree of prediction and control over selected aspects of the environment. Social psychology with respect to this hallmark is not very clear because in its studies has not provided not much degree of predictability and control over social behaviour. Social psychology does explain social behaviour, it has not accomplished much in predicting future events or providing a strict basis for control of behaviour. Thus, it can be concluded that however social psychology meets many characteristics of a science, yet it has not achieved the same degree of accuracy in making prediction and control as a mature physical science has achieved. 1.2.2 Social Psychology: What does it Study? Social psychology studies the experience and behaviour of individuals, groups and communities. The main theme of social psychology is to understand the correlation between behaviour and situations and the impact each has on each other. Broadly speaking, the study of social psychology focuses on studying the social processes, i.e. the ways in which the individual's thoughts, feelings

and actions are affected by other social stimuli (like, groups to which an individual belongs, teaching of parents, culture, etc). To further understand it, let us categorise the above in four categories of stimulus: 1. Impact one individual has on another individual 2. Impact of an individual on the group it belongs to 3. Impact the group has on its members 4. Impact one group has on another group

Impact one individual has on another individual – How many times have you come across a situation where you have changed your opinions, about a topic, subject or person, in influence of something that someone else shared with you on those same topic, subject or person. A classic example is the advertisements one sees and changes their buying preferences because of the person promoting the product. The intensity of this influence goes to an extent, where an individual develops strong emotions, like love, hate, disliking, etc, towards another person based on who the other is and what they do and communicate. Social psychologists basically try to study this behaviour pattern as to how and why people develop positive and negative attitudes towards others.

Impact of an individual on the group it belongs to – “A rotten apple spoils the barrel.” A commonly used proverb describing how the actions, thinking and feelings of an individual impact the other members of a lot (or group to which the person belongs). Not necessarily in context to this proverb, an individual might have a negative or a positive influence on a group. Their strong influence leads to transfer of their beliefs and attitudes to others. It may lead to enhancing the group productivity, decision making and thus may provide effective leadership to the group, leading to the success of the group as overall. All major political parties, political leaders fit as a perfect example to explain the influence an individual has on a group it belongs to.

Impact a group has on its members – In certain environments or situations the societal norms of a group influence the behaviour of the members of this group. The conformity of these groups leads to the members of the group to adjust their behaviour in alignment with the norms of the group. To explain it with an example, you must have observed that students in schools, colleges or clubs have norms, which clearly dictate DOs and DON'Ts, which guide them what to do, how to do, like dressing, etc. Social psychologists believe that groups have far more long term influence on its members and have named this type of behaviour as socialisation. This 'socialisation' has led to the development of appropriate language skills, various religious beliefs, self development of individuals, shaping their knowledge, values and various other skills.

Impact one group has on another group – Like individuals, a group might influence the behaviour, feelings and thoughts of other groups as well. The relationship two groups have with each other can be friendly or it can be hostile. A friendly relationship between groups leads to cooperation as opposed to a hostile relationship which might lead to conflict between groups. The social psychologist studies these relationships to understand the intergroup conflicts and the tension, hostility and violence that accompanies it. The relationship between the management and employee unions is a great example to study both friendly and hostile relationships between these two groups. The result for both the scenarios gives you a knowledge of how the behaviour and reactions of the two groups changes with the kind of relationship the two groups exhibit. Social psychology also studies the effect cognitive processes have on the ways an individual behaves and relates to others. The way in which an individual's memories, perceptions, self – esteem, thoughts, emotions and motives, guide the understanding of the world and their actions, comes under the definition of Cognitive Processes. An individual's content of thoughts and feelings that they have about other people and their activities, to a great extent is a result of how the individuals believe the environment or the world around them is like, that is the reason cognitive processes have a deeper impact on every aspect of our lives. Though we have studied social processes (socialisation) and cognitive processes separately in the above paragraphs, these are two processes which are inevitably interconnected to each other. The cause for this is the effect social processes have on an individual even when others are not present physically. For example, even if you are eating alone in a restaurant you are still expected to follow the societal norms of eating in a restaurant. Likewise, how social processes affect an individual in the presence of others, depends on the way we interpret their behaviour and actions. Irrespective of being alone or in the company of others, both the social processes and cognitive processes go hand in hand to affect the thoughts, feelings and actions of an individual.

1.2.3 Causes of Social Behaviour and Thoughts The social psychologist not only studies the nature of social behaviour but also studies the causes of these behaviours. They try to identify and discover the preconditions and antecedents that cause these types of social behaviours. The social psychologist has identified five factors which are responsible for shaping the social interaction, i.e the thoughts of a person such as attitudes, beliefs, feelings and inferences for other people, directly or indirectly. These factors are listed below *** : 1.

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The action and characteristics of others. 2. Basic cognitive processes: memory, reasoning, belief, ideas, judgements about others. 3. Ecological variables: direct and indirect influences of the physical environment. 4. The cultural context: cultural norms, membership in various groups. 5. Biological aspects: genetic inheritance relevant to social behaviour. Social psychology, thus, focuses on understanding the causes of social behaviour and identifying factors which shape our feelings, behaviour and thoughts in

various

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social situations. The basic assumption behind is: "Accurate and useful information about even the most complex aspects of social behaviour and social thought can be acquired through the use of basic methods of science" (Baron & Byron 1995; 13). Thus social psychology is the scientific study of behaviour of individuals in social and cultural context. It explains and analyses the causes behind behaviours which may be related to the one or more than one factors mentioned above. *** 1.3

Social Psychology: Origin and Development With the objective of understanding the history of any discipline, the rudimentary question to ask is "who is the founder of the discipline?". Going with the philosophy and honestly attempting to answer this question in context to social psychology, it can be said that it is very difficult to identify and point out any one individual being called as the founder of this discipline. In order to further dig and understand how the socio – psychological ideas gradually branched off from the system of psychological knowledge after being originally shaped in the realms of philosophy. To apprehend the emergence of social psychology,

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we will first discuss social thought before the onset of social science as a discipline and then discuss the second stage of the development of social psychology. 1.3.1

Social Thought Before The Advent of Social Science As A Discipline Platonic and Aristotelian are two earlier forms of social thought which have developed over centuries. Where one discusses and emphasises on educating the individual to become social and where one talks by the social nature of the individual which leads to individuals to live together and enter into relationships which ultimately leads to the development of families, tribes and state. Similarly, Hobbes, Locke, Rousseau and many others have written about the relationship between individual and society, but their approach on the topic was not scientific. Gordon Allport (1968), had credited the French philosopher, Auguste Comte (1798 – 1857), for his role in initiating sociology and proposing for an emergence of a science which goes well with modern psychology and social psychology. As per Comte, the study of human behaviour can be done scientifically by referencing the social and biological influences of an individual. Though this thought of studying human behaviour in a scientific manner, got its acceptance after many decades, when sociologists and psychologists joined hands to study human behaviour in the society leading to evolution of social psychology. This led to the first textbook being published on the topic of social psychology by the sociologist, E.A. Ross in 1908. E.A. Ross had a Ph.D in history, politics and economics, and he had combined these disciplines with psychology and sociology to write the first textbook of social psychology. In the same year, William McDougall, who was a psychologist also published a book on social psychology, titled "Introduction to social psychology", this was the second book being published in the field of social psychology. Ross's book emphasised on the fact that people are predominantly influenced by others even if they are physically not present there at the moment. It also discussed how ideas, habits and attitudes get transferred among members of social groups, through suggestion and initiation. Whereas, McDougall, claimed inborn instincts are a cause of social behaviour in human beings. He professed that social interactions are caused by social instincts, and these instincts tend to induce a related emotion. His theory gained popularity for his ideas. His views emphasised the role of instincts, sentiments and socialisation in human behaviour. The development in this field by sociologists and psychologists, apart from these books, has led to the distinct and independent school of two thoughts in

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social psychology - psychological social psychology and sociological social psychology. Both the school of thoughts in social psychology

focuses on different aspects of social interaction of individuals and society. Where one contests and emphasises the individual and other focus on group as a unit of study, i.e individuals in social context. The psychological social psychology talks about an individual's attitudes, feelings, motives, learning and perception, as how these are shaped by the society and its various groups. It talks about the internal events that shape the social behaviour of individuals. Whereas, the sociological school of social psychology emphasises upon the group, i.e. studying the behavioural patterns of individuals in social context. It talks about the interaction between people and includes some important broad topics like, crowd behaviour, social norms, social power, problems of group dynamics, rumour transmission and communication process. This segregation does not mean that social psychology is divided into two camps. On the contrary, it implies that there are many social psychologies and not one uniformly agreed subject matter. It is the difference between the two approaches that shape the very nature of the discipline. There have been many experiments conducted by several researchers on this topic, where they have tested their hypothesis to prove that individual's work well when performing in a competing environment rather than working alone. The very first experiment was conducted by Norman Triplett, an American researcher, who investigated the concept of social facilitation, which basically means the process which improves the performance of an individual, for familiar tasks, in the presence of other individuals doing the same task. He proved his hypothesis by the experiment conducted on children, where their performance on winding the strings to which flags were attached, were compared in a setup where they worked in a group v/s when doing the same thing alone. In this experiment it was evidently seen that the performance in a group setup was more v/s when working alone. Similar views have been shared by other researchers like Walter Moede, a German psychologist, who in his experiment concluded that the hand grip and pain endurance was more when the subjects of the experiment were in a group as compared to when they were alone. However, there was a contradictory opinion as well from a French agricultural engineer, named Max Riingelman. He concluded with his experiment that people when working in groups put less effort as compared to when working alone. This however, in modern psychology became a phenomenon called social loafing. However, the term what we call today as experimental social psychology came to existence and to the attention of other researchers, after the report of experiments conducted by Allport. Apart from these developments which happened in the initial years of development of the subject, there have been other subsequent developments in the field of social psychology which has made it a full – fledged member of the social science family. These developments are further discussed in detail under different spans of periods (given below), under the topic Subsequent developments in the field of Social Psychology. 1. Development in between 1908-1945 A.D. 2. Development in between 1945-1970 A.D. 3. Post 1970 A.D. 1.3.2

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The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline In the process of branching off from the psychology as a separate discipline, three moments are important to be outlined (Galina Andreyeva 1990):

- The requirement concerning the solution of socio-psychological problems which arose in various related sciences.
- The processes involved in the separation of socio-psychological problems within the two parent disciplines: psychology and sociology.
- Finally, the description of the first forms of independent socio- psychological knowledge. In the mid 19th century, the first forms of socio-psychological theories that appeared, three were most important in terms of their influence: people's psychology, mass psychology and the theory of instincts of social behaviour. These theories

have been further discussed in detail under different eras as they developed. 1.3.3 Subsequent Developments in the Field of Social Psychology Let's know the developments in the field of social psychology period wise. 1.3.3.1 Development in between 1908 – 1945 A.D. Though the two books which have a major contribution in the development of social psychology were published in the same year (1908), yet they both differ greatly in their contents. Though McDougall's approach was initially appreciated, in the coming decades it was largely disregarded

by social psychologists of that time. The modern era of social psychology that we know as today marked its beginning with the publishing of the book named Social Psychology by F.H.Allport in 1924. Though Allport praised the approach of social behaviour given by McDougall, he refused to have acceptance to instinctual theories given by McDougall. Since the theories of Allport's in his book on social psychology were based on the results of experiments rather than speculations and observations, it initiated a science trend as a major approach in this subject matter today. Experimental approach has been the most important and noticeable trend since the 1920s in the field of social psychology. With this another related trend has been the development of psychology of personality, an area commonly shared by both clinical and social psychologists. This led to the publishing of the first major social psychology journal titled Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, written by Morton Prince in 1922, which later got its name changed to Journal of Personality and Social Psychology. This journal became the fuel to turn other American researchers to publish their work in these overlapping fields. Besides, this journal, another major journal which became an additional source for this field, was published entitled Journal of Social Psychology by Carl Murchison and John Dewey in 1929. Researchers in the fields of social attitudes – self and stereotypes were prominent during the 1920s and 1930s. Thurstone and Chave(1929) and Likert(1932) developed scaling methods for measuring attitudes. Katz and Braly(1933) published the prominent studies relating to social stereotypes of college students. 2 Many researchers in this period have done significant work in the development of social psychology. Like, G.H. Mead's work on self in 1934, the introduction of sociometry, basically the system of measuring patterns of social interaction based on an individual's choices, by J.L.Moreno in 1934. In the same year, another professor of sociology, R.T.LaPiere tried to investigate inconsistencies between attitude and related behaviours in the field situation. A Turkish social psychologist, Muzafer Sherif, in 1936 was able to establish that even complex, but realistic situations can be meaningfully studied experimentally in a laboratory, by creating social norms in controlled settings. This was also the year when George Gallup, who is credited for developing methods for conducting public polls and surveys. This year was also the founding year of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues (SPSSI), which was founded by a small group of psychologists, which is now a division of the American Psychological Association. The main objective of this organisation was to use social science scientifically to promote human welfare. This period also marked an increase in interchange or interaction of ideas

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between social psychology and industrial psychology. A classic example being the study of production and morale at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company in the late 1920s and early 1930s

Likewise, in 1939, Kurt Lewin, R.Lippitt and R.White, studied the reactions of the members of the group to various styles of leadership, using Lewin's field theory. This initiated the era of experimentally studying group dynamics by observing the effect of different leadership styles on productivity and morale. Thus, we see that by the 1930s, the scientific ideals of objectivity, precision and accuracy dominated the field of social psychology (Allport, 1965). It is commonly believed in the circle of social psychology that Adolf Hitler is the person who had the most impact on the development of the subject. Ironically, this statement contains an element of truth. The events that led to the Second World War and the war itself had significant impact on the development of the subject. Due to the vast spread of Nazi's across Europe and persecution of Jews led to the movement of psychologist leaving their homelands to live in North America and Great Britain. This was one of the factors that most of the development and major growth in social psychology was conducted in North America and Great Britain in the next decades. To explain prejudice and blind and strict obedience to authority, Adorno, Frankel – Brunswik, Levinson and Sanford (1950) developed an idea of authoritarian personality. A popular experiment by Stanley Milgram's was instrumental in investigating obedience to authority, which lead to understanding why so many Germans had blindly obeyed orders resulting in Holocaust during 1939-45. 1.3.3.2 Development in between 1945 – 1970 A.D. The developments in the beginning of the 1940s were eminent for the growth of social psychology. A sociologist, Wiliam Foote Whyte used the technique of participant observation for studying and describing the social functioning of teenage street gangs. Similarly, the investigative studies done by Theodore Newcomb, R.F.Bales in 1943 and 1946 respectively, led to systematic explanation of the field in a scientific way. Though it was the creativity and

dedication of Kurt Lewin, which had a serious impact and made him the founder of applied social psychology. He believed that the amalgamation of theory, research and practice were the key and useful ingredients of social psychology. Action research, field theory and sensitivity training are some concepts which are the result of dedication and integration of theory and research by Kurt Lewin. Research conducted at the leading organisations in America – Commission on Community Interrelations, Research Centre for Group Dynamics and National Training Laboratories (NTL), has led to the development of social psychology as a scientific discipline. These organisations have been in existence because of the efforts done by Kurt Lewin. In 1946, Solomon Asch testified that cognitive set has an impact on what impression people form about others. He even, in the further years to come explained that in group set-ups, individuals tend to conform with the majority when their beliefs are put under questioning. The need for applied theory and research, for scientific development of social psychology, was encouraged by the psychologist during the Second World War. The following gives a jist of the work done by many psychologists in the discussed era of evolution of social psychology.

- R.F. Bales worked in the year 1950, developing a framework for systematic observation of communication and role differentiation in the task force. This framework has been a result of his extensive research in the subject matter.
- In the year 1950, The Human Group, a book by G. Hormans, which emphasised on seminal treatise on group structure and process, was published.
- Several studies on the effect of persuasive communication on social attitudes were conducted by Carl Hovland and his colleagues at Yale, in the year 1953.
- Another book The Nature of Prejudice by Gordon Allport was published in 1954. This book talked about the analysis of intergroup prejudice and stereotyping.
- Theories of social comparison and cognitive dissonance, as proposed by Leon Festinger in the year 1957, which have been very pertinent theories holding high importance in the field of social psychology. This emergence of the theory of cognitive dissonance marked the paradigm shift from the study of social interaction of groups to the study of processes which lie within an individual. All these developments and studies during this era, also marked an era for the social psychology studies to be conducted in a laboratory set up as a standard, over studies being conducted in a field work. This, thus established experimental social psychology as the mainstream of the discipline, during the 70s. The result of which led to emphasising on the study of individual processes over group processes, which was considered as a potential base for behaviours of real life. Aggression, obedience to authority, interpersonal interaction, conformity to norms, etc are few examples of such individual behaviours.

1.3.3.3 Development after 1970 A.D.

The highlights of this period are listed below:

- Post 1970s, was the phase of further expansion and strengthening of social psychology as experimental social psychology. The social psychologists worked towards the expansion of the fields of attributional theory and interpersonal relations.
- A new craze of theorising the role of evolution in social and psychological behaviour, was observed in the year 1975, when E.O. Wilson published a book titled Sociobiology: The New Synthesis.
- It was the period of beginning attention of psychologists towards studying and comparing the same behaviour in different cultures, which was also termed or called as cross-cultural research. To establish linkage of cultural influences on social behaviour, Triandis in the year 1977 presented a general framework, which attracted other studies which emphasised the external validity or generalisability of social psychology.
- The post 1970 period also marked the era when many journals on social psychology were published.
- Europe, during this time was in recovering and rebuilding from the destruction of the war. Many psychologists during this phase, in several countries developed theoretical and research approaches in different areas, particularly those concerned with group membership, influence within groups and competitive relationships between groups. By the 1970s social psychologists, on both sides of the Atlantic, had developed a set of reliable findings, which was definitely a sign of scientific maturity.
- All the developments done in the field of social psychology over the years, and the basic concepts such as attitudes, beliefs, values, norms which have already been in use in social psychology, were applied in the new areas of study by social psychologists. Some of these areas of study included, personal relationship, aggression, prosocial behaviour, stereotyping and discrimination, etc.

During the 1970s and 1980s, these applications were greatly facilitated by those experimental methods and research techniques that were found very relevant to the field of memory and perception by cognitive psychologists. Thus, we find that theoretical concerns and selected experimental methods and research techniques have converged, as the researchers in different areas of social psychology focus their attention on the study of cognitive processes. Apart from paying their attention to cognitive processes, social psychologists have also shown concern for the social processes, which directly or indirectly create an impact upon everything the people do. Social psychologists consider that human behaviour is influenced by perception, attitude, beliefs and their interpretation, and simultaneously, also hold that these factors, in turn, are fundamentally shaped by a person's relationship to other, his thought about the reaction and group membership that help him define who he is (Markus, Kitayama and Heiman, 1996). This scientific understanding of the way social and cognitive processes work together for moulding all social behaviour got further impetus from the increasing integration of North American social psychology with European social psychology. Thus, we see that social psychology, which formally started in 1908 with the publication of two textbooks, has today expanded its horizon. Nowadays, researchers from all domains of social psychology are working together to study the effects of social and cognitive processes to provide scientific explanations of people's experience and behaviour.

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Social Psychology in Indian Context Social psychology is as old as human beings on this earth. The social nature of man has intrigued scholars, artists and social reformers,

throughout recorded history.

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What has intrigued scholars is the evidence of both universality and uniqueness of social behaviour in different cultures. People in different cultures have lived together as family, community and nation, however they

have lived and learned to live peacefully is not necessary. This human nature has been the same ever since. If we see and compare the ancient thought on social psychology and contemporary social psychology are the same, one raising the questions and one striving to answer them. Hence, it is seen that the studies done on the topic, by western thinkers like Plato and Aristotle have striking similarities with that of ancient Indian thinkers, like Manu, Gautam, Yagyavalkya and Kautilya. They all have imposed upon the sustenance of social institutions to uphold the social code of conduct, while preserving the freedom of individuals. Social thinkers and psychologists have pondered upon examining geneses and elucidate solutions on the social conflicts, violence, exploitations done throughout the ages. Despite these similarities in the western and eastern thoughts on social psychology and the quest to understand and transform human behaviour, yet there are differences in the world-views; on how they analyse social reality. Here in this section we will discuss the Indian view on social psychology and the global context on social psychology will be discussed in detail in the next section. The focus and emphasis of the Indian view has been on the interrelations of human beings. In the context of Indians, it has been observed that the individual and the society share a harmonious relationship, where one is inseparable with each other. There is an ancient philosophy in India, which has been preached from ages, called Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam. It is a combination of three Sanskrit words, 'Vasudha', 'Eva' and 'Kutumbakam', which means 'earth', 'emphasising' and 'family', respectively. So, Vasudhaiva Kutumbakam essentially means that the whole world (earth) is one family. This philosophy tries to cultivate an understanding that the whole of humanity is one family. In fact, such emphasis starts from oneself and extends to the entire world. The evolution of social psychology began with the introduction of psychology as a subject at the master's level in India at the Calcutta University in 1916. Professor of Mental and Moral Philosophy, Sir Brojendra Nath Seal, who was the then vice – chancellor of Calcutta University, was given the responsibility of drafting the first syllabus for 'experimental psychology' in 1905. It was his initiatives and guidance of Prof Narendra Nath Sen Gupta who chaired the department of experimental psychology which was established in 1916. Prof Narendra Nath Sen Gupta, had a doctorate degree in philosophy from Harvard University and chaired this department till 1929. It was he along with Radha Kamal Mukherjee who published the first book in the field of social psychology titled Introduction to Social Psychology in the year 1928. It was after the experiment on social facilitation by Allport, that the significant works in social psychology were initiated in India. The highlights of which are shared below: 1. Late Prof. D. Sinha (1952) and Prof. J. Prasad (1953), who conducted their research in the field of rumour, but no follow up was done. 2. Murphy (1953) initiated the study of intergroup relations and this study attracted many psychologists across the country for doing research in the field. 3. David McClelland's motivation theory created interest in many psychologists in India for applied research. 4. Research done in social psychology done in India up till the year of 1970, were confined to narrow aspects of social problems, attitude, opinion as well as group and interpersonal processes (Rath, 1972). 5. The studies done during the period between 1970 and 1980, were different from those done before the year 1970. During this period the focus of study of social psychology was on the problems of social structure, social change, social roles, social perception, social motivation, interpersonal processes and organisational behaviour. 6. Adinarayan (1957,1958,1964) also conducted a lot of important studies on colour prejudice and racial, communal and caste attitude. 7. Some researchers paid special attention to the processes of attribution (kanekar, 1981) information integration (Singh, 1981), ingratiation (Pandey, 1981), prosocial behaviour (Krishnan, 1981) and manipulative behaviour (Tripathi, 1981). 8. Many research projects were also undertaken to explore the need for achievement in improving entrepreneurial activities. 9. The Indian psychologists had their focus on problems like eradication of poverty and illiteracy, population growth, deprivation and disadvantage, rural development, and prejudice, during the period of 1970 – 80. 10. The psychologists started focusing on the problems related to national development and social change, post the period of 1980s. This further had implications for policy planning. Post independence period of 1974,

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the discipline of social psychology expanded in universities and in research, technology and management institutes throughout the country. Studies on topics like, rumour, group influences, and prejudice

have not only appeared in the international literature, but they have also influenced the theoretical developments in the West. To cite an example for the same is Leon Festinger, an American social psychologist who used the

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Indian rumour transmission research in the development of cognitive dissonance theory.

42% **MATCHING BLOCK 17/115** **SA** The Historical Background of Social Psychology.pdf (D97052779)

Social psychology in India has witnessed significant discussions regarding the nature of discipline and research methodology. These discussions have been focused on topics related to relevance, primitiveness, and cultural appropriateness of the discipline. The aim of these discussions was to make social psychology more distinctive and make it more "social". This trend of sharing concerns is also practised by psychologists in other countries

as well. This subject '

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social psychology' is and will be a cornucopian discipline in India as it fits with the democratic sociopolitical context that promotes and facilitates the agenda for social research.* 1.5

Social Psychology in Global Context Social psychology as a discipline has been

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growing rapidly and has an increasing impactful influence on how individuals think about human behaviour. Newspapers, magazines, websites, and other media frequently report the findings of social psychologists, and the results of social psychological research are influencing decisions in a wide variety of areas. The

evolution in social psychology has made it an active form of empirical investigation, which was once considered a relatively speculative and intuitive enterprise. Post the period of 1925 the volume of research literature had risen rapidly. Over a period of years and research, social psychologists have substantial observation data, covering a range of topics. Early impetus in research came from the United States, and much work in other countries has followed U.S. tradition, though independent research efforts are being made elsewhere in the world. Social psychology is being actively pursued in the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, Germany, the Netherlands, France, Belgium, Scandinavia, Japan, and Russia. Most social psychologists are members of university departments of psychology; others are in departments of sociology or work in such applied settings as industry and government. The research in this field of social psychology has mostly been consistent with laboratory experiments and this approach has been criticised in recent years as being too absurd, artificial and unrealistic. The conceptual background of research done in social psychology has been derived from other fields of psychology. Lets understand and take an account of the history of Social Psychology from an international perspective. The primal experiments on group behaviour in social psychology were conducted before 1900. And social psychology was started to be considered as science only after

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scientists started to systematically and formally measure the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of human beings.

The study of

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social psychology was energized by researchers who attempted to understand how on the

command and order of the German dictator – Adolf Hitler, a whole brigade of soldiers profuced extreme obedience and horrendous behaviours, leading to Holocaust (genocide of Jews) during the World War II. It was the experimental approach of studying behaviour, by

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social psychologists Kurt Lewin and Leon Festinger during the 1940s and 1950s, which made social psychology a scientific discipline. Kurt Lewin, who is also known as "the father of social psychology" since he is the initial contributor of many important ideas of the discipline, which also included a focus on the dynamic interactions among people. Leon Festinger,

another founding psychologist who has contributed in making social psychology as a scientific discipline. He works in editing

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an influential book called 'Research Methods in Behavioural Sciences', in which he and other social psychologists

have

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stressed the need to measure variables and to use laboratory experiments to systematically test research hypotheses about social behaviour.

It was studies conducted by Muzafir Sherif (1936) & Solomon Asch (1952) and Stanley Milgram (1974), on conformity and obedience, respectively. These studies showed the importance of conforming pressures in social groups and also how people in authority could create obedience, an obedience to an extent which could lead people to cause severe harm to others (The best example to cite here is of Holocaust caused during the reign of Hitler in Germany). An American psychologist, Philip Zimbardo, popularly known for his "prison study", had to terminate his experiment midway, due to the violent behaviour that arose as a result of

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interactions of male college students, who were recruited to role – play as guards and prisoners in a

simulation of a prison. Various social psychologists have done research with focus on various different subjects, some of the works of these psychologists are listed below: ●

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John Darley and Bibb Latané (1968) developed a model that helped explain when people do and do not help others in need.
● Leonard Berkowitz laid the

groundwork for the study of human aggression in 1974. ● Irving Janis, during the year 1972, had the focus of study

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on group behaviour, analysing why intelligent people sometimes made decisions that led to disastrous results when they worked together. ●

The focus of study of

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psychologists Gordon Allport and Muzafir Sherif, was on intergroup relations, with the goal of understanding and potentially reducing the occurrence of stereotyping, prejudices and discrimination.

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The latter part of the 20 th century saw an expansion of social psychology into the field of attitudes, with a particular emphasis on cognitive processes. Social psychologists

during this era developed the first formal models of persuasion. The aim of this model was to understand

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how advertisers and other people could present their messages to make them most effective. These approaches to attitudes had its focus on the cognitive processes

of the people, which they use when evaluating messages and also the relationship between attitudes and behaviour.

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In the 21 st century, the field of social psychology has been expanding into other areas.

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Social situations have influenced our health and happiness, the important roles of evolutionary experiences and cultures on our behaviour and the field of social neuroscience – the study of how our social behaviour both influences and is influenced by the activities of our brain (Lieberman, 2010). Social psychologists continue to seek new ways to measure and understand social behaviour, and the field continues to evolve. We cannot predict where social psychology will be directed in the future, but we have no doubt that it will still be alive and vibrant. 1.6 Unit Summary Social psychology

is defined as the scientific discipline that investigates the impact of social and cognitive processes on the ways other persons, real, imagined or implied, influence many others in different social situations. It provides a scientific explanation of the nature and causes of social behaviour. The main concern of social psychology is the study of social behaviour, including cognitive processes. This includes four types of themes – impact of one individual upon another individual, impact of individual members upon the group to which they belong, impact that a group has on its members and the impact that one group has on another group.

1.7 Key Terms

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Social Psychology: Social psychology is the scientific study of how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of individuals are influenced by the presence of others and the internalised social norms that humans are influenced by, even when

alone. Scepticism: a sceptical attitude; doubt as to the truth of something. 1.8 Check Your Progress 1) Define and discuss the nature of "Social Psychology". 2) Is Social Psychology a scientific study? 3) How is Social Psychology a science? Discuss. 4) What does Social Psychology study? 5) Discuss the causes of social behaviour and thoughts. 6) Discuss the origin and development of Social Psychology. 7) What are different stages of development of social psychology? Explain. 8) Discuss Social Psychology in Indian Context. 9) Discuss Social Psychology in Global Context.

Unit 2: Social Psychology: Relation with Other Disciplines & Research Methods 2.0 Introduction 2.1 Unit Objectives 2.2 Social Psychology And Other Disciplines 2.2.1 Three Levels of

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Analysis 2.2.2 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology 2.3 Interdisciplinary Vs. Intradisciplinary Approaches To Social Psychology 2.3.1 Social Psychology and Sociology 2.3.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology 2.3.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics 2.4

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Research Methods In Social Psychology 2.4.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology 2.4.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology 2.4.3 Social Psychology: Research Methods 2.4.3.1 Experimental Methods 2.4.3.1.1 Laboratory Method 2.4.3.1.2 Field Method 2.4.3.2 Non-Experimental Methods 2.4.3.2.1 Observation Method 2.4.3.2.2 Archival Method 2.4.3.2.3 Case Study Method 2.4.3.2.4 Correlation Method 2.4.3.2.5 Survey Method 2.4.4 Other Research Methods 2.4.4.1 Cross Cultural Method 2.4.4.2 Research Through Internet 2.4.5 Research Ethics 1.6

Unit Summary 1.7 Key Terms 1.8 Check Your Progress

2.0 Introduction

The central task of social psychology is the systematic study of the relation between the individual and the collective phenomena. This daunting task overlaps with that of other social sciences. Many scholarly fields study social behaviour, viz., sociology, anthropology, economics, political science and sociolinguistics. 2.2

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Social Psychology and Other Disciplines In the broadest terms, the central task of social psychology is the systematic study of the relation between the individual and the collective phenomena. This daunting task overlaps with that of other social sciences. Many scholarly fields study social behaviour, viz., sociology, anthropology, economics, political science and sociolinguistics. The social psychological approach differs from disciplines that study large scale societal problems and from those that focus on the individual. Social psychology is delineated from the other areas of social study by both its method and its approach. There is some overlap and sharing with other disciplines in terms of theories and content.

2.2.1 Three Levels of Analysis Three different levels of analysis have been recognised which tell us about the differences in the approach of various social sciences.

1. Societal Level Analysis: The goal of societal analysis is to identify links between broad social forces and general patterns of social behaviours. Social behaviour from this viewpoint is explained by factors like economic hard times, class conflicts etc. This analytical approach is adopted by sociologists, economists and political scientists. These scholars attempt to understand general patterns of social behaviours, such as homicide rates, voting behaviours and consumer spending. To study violence in urban areas, social scientists might identify relationships between rates of crime and factors such as poverty, immigration or industrialisation.

2. Individual Level Analysis: This level of analysis is used by clinical and personality psychologists who explain behaviour in terms of a person's unique personality characteristics and life history. According to this viewpoint, with the help of personality traits and motives the reasons for people's behaviour can be explained. Individual differences in childhood experiences, ability, motivation and personality are emphasised. At this level of analysis, violent crimes will be explained in terms of unique histories and characteristics of the criminal.

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Interpersonal Level Analysis: The focus of a social psychologist lies on a person's current social situation. The constituents of social situations are— the other people, their attitudes and behaviours and their relationship to the individual. This emphasis is based on the idea, 'change the social context, individuals will change'. To understand violent crime, social psychologists might consider interpersonal relations. One social explanation suggests that frustrating situations make people angry and increase their tendency to act aggressively.

2.2.2 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology It borrows and uses concepts from both the disciplines: psychology and sociology. For a sociologist, the basic unit of analysis is the social system (groups, institutions, cultures, families etc). For a psychologist, the basic unit of analysis is the individual. But, individual and social systems cannot be studied without the reference to either of these. As one is contained in the other, and the existence of the other is nothing without the first. It is difficult and even incomplete if one is explained without the other. The difference may lie in the angle of approach, the purpose and the focus of study. Various views gave birth to two forms of social psychology: psychological social psychology and sociological social psychology. From the sociological point of view, social psychology is the study of mass phenomena of the

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psyche, the psychology of classes and large social groups, elements of group mentality (traditions, morals, customs etc.). Psychological social psychology puts the individual at the centre and focuses on the mental peculiarities of the individual (personality typology) and the position of

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individual in the collective. Briefly these can be defined as: Psychological Social Psychology (PSP): Emphasis upon subject's mental processes, dispositions, experiences and immediate social situation. Sociological Social Psychology (SSP): Emphasis upon subject's place in social order, their socialised roles and historical social context. Another approach emphasises the synthesis of both. According to this point of view, social psychology is a science that studies both the mass mental phenomenon and the position of an individual in a group. It includes the study of social psychology of the individual, communities and communication, social relations and the forms of cultural activities.

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Interdisciplinary Vs. Intradisciplinary Approaches To Social Psychology The interdisciplinary approach emphasises the incorporation of significant elements from various disciplines. This incorporation can be found more at the level of content from the diverse disciplines especially sociology. Intradisciplinary approach conceptualises social psychology as a specialty branch within the discipline of psychology. This approach defines both the problems and phenomena together with its method. A psychologist maintains his investigative focus on the individual against a background of contextual factors. From the interdisciplinary perspective, social psychology is defined as the psychological study of the individual related to the social system. Thus social psychological phenomena can be explained on at least four levels as given below: ● Personal attributes ● Actual situations in which psychological phenomena are studied. ●

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Reference to the people's social position ● The ideologies and belief systems to which they adhere. If one looks at the recent developments, one may find that all of them transcend a narrow definition of social psychology, all of them require that their proponents be versed in one or more neighbouring disciplines, above all sociology and cognitive psychology together with anthropology, political science, philosophy and linguistics. All of them contribute to the intellectual vitality of the field in all its branches. Whether the debate among them will lead to a more unified social psychology or to a greater separateness only the time will tell. Here, we will briefly discuss the relation of social psychology to sociology, anthropology and sociolinguistics.

2.3.1 Social Psychology and Sociology Sociology is defined as the study of society. Sociology is the social science dealing with social systems and structures, relationships, institutes and entire societies. The emergence of sociology in the nineteenth century greatly contributed to the development of social psychology. John Stuart Mill, Auguste Comte and others laid the foundation for social psychology by asserting that human social cognition and behaviour could and should be studied scientifically like any other natural science. A sociologist begins with the domain of society and works towards the individual while the social psychologist reverses the order. As far as social psychology is concerned it is sometimes difficult to demarcate it from social psychology with a sharp line as both the disciplines invest most of their resources in the ambiguous middle ground. Social psychology exchanges freely ideas, methods and models with sociology. In fact this exchange is so rich and ubiquitous that it is often difficult to distinguish the two fields. Being the study of individuals in a society, the vantage point of social psychology is more prone to the individual and the experimental method. But with the expanding application, social psychology is adopting the other methods like ethnography and qualitative research more popular with the domain of sociology.

2.3.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology Broadly considered to be the scientific study of human beings, Anthropology originated as a discipline in the Darwinian revolution of the middle of the nineteenth century. Underpinning all the anthropological works is the concern of mapping human variation (biological, behavioural and cultural) and to explain, interpret and understand the directions in the development of human behaviour. The main topics of investigation are primitive societies, cultural relativism, unity of human species, human diversity and human evolution. Social psychology can make good use of the theories about cultures and societies which might assist in the explanation of the individual behaviour in a particular society. Anthropology can give a clear picture of the cultural and social context to a social psychologist.

2.3.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics Sociolinguistics includes the areas of study which connect language with society. The discipline uses theories and methods from diverse fields like psychology, sociology and anthropology to understand language in societies. Sociolinguistics is centrally concerned with methodology. It is firmly based on the observation of actual, preferably spontaneous speech behaviour. The studies within this field have contributed in terms of understanding language uses and behaviours of peoples in society. The study of language contributes not only in terms of language behaviours but the rich data helps in building theories. The field of sociolinguistics equally borrows theories from social psychology to draw inferences about behaviours from the linguistic data.

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Social psychology: Social psychology is the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture. Hedonism: People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and avoid and reduce pain. Utilitarianism: The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. People's psychology: The main force of history is the people, or the 'spirit of the whole' which can be seen in art, religion, language, myths, customs etc. The individual consciousness is only its product, a link in a certain mental connection. Mass psychology: Emphasised the role of irrational movements in social behaviour and the role of imitation. Any accumulation of people represented the idea of the mass with depersonalisation and predominance of emotions over intellect, the general loss of intellect and the loss of the sense of personal responsibility. Middle range theories: The theories that account for a specific aspect of social behaviour and do not try to encompass all of social life. Social psychological theories tend to be specific and focused, rather than global and general. Societal analysis: To identify links between broad social forces and general patterns of social behaviours. Individual level of: Used by clinical and personality psychologists who analyse explain behaviour in terms of a person's unique personality characteristics and life history Interpersonal level: The focus of a social psychologist lies on a person's analysis of the current social situation. The constituents of social situations are- the other people, their attitudes and behaviours and their relationship to the individual. 2.4

Research Methods In Social Psychology Let's learn about the research significance and methodology applied

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in social psychology. 2.4.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology Social psychological research has four goals: 1) Description: A major goal is to provide careful and systematic descriptions of social behaviour that permit social psychologists to make reliable generalisations about how people act in various social settings. Example: Are men more aggressive than women? 2) Causal analysis: Much research in psychology seeks to establish cause and effect relationship, because scientific inquiry in the research is to establish cause and effect relations. Example: Does college education make students more liberal in their social attitudes. 3) Theory building: Third goal is to develop theories about social behaviour which help social psychologists understand why people behave the way they do. This can further lead to suggest new predictions that can be tested in further research. 4) Application: Knowledge gained by the above three attempts can help to solve everyday social problems. 2.4.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology Social psychology is the scientific study of social behaviour. These are a diverse range of methods available to social psychologists. Any research begins with a hunch or hypothesis (a tentative solution) that the researcher wants to test. There are two ways in which a researcher chooses the hypothesis. 1) People often generate hypotheses from previous theories and research. Many studies stem from a researcher's dissatisfaction with existing theories and explanations. Example: Leon Festinger was dissatisfied with 'behaviourism' to explain attitude change. He thus formulated a new approach called the dissonance theory that made specific predictions about when and how people would change their attitude. In this way new research is continuously carried out in order to update the existing theory. 2) Theory is not the only way to derive a new hypothesis in social psychology. Researchers often observe a phenomenon in everyday life that they find curious and interesting. The researcher then constructs a theory related to that phenomenon, thus generating

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new theory. Example: The mere presence of another person that led to better performance led to the famous phenomena of 'social facilitation'. 2.4.3 Social Psychology: Research Methods

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The research methods used by social psychology could be divided into two broad categories: 1) Experimental method, and 2) Non-experimental method.

2.4.3.1 Experimental Methods An experiment involves manipulating one variable – which we call the Independent Variable (IV) and then seeing whether this has an effect on a second variable, which we refer to as the Dependent Variable (DV). To explain this, we describe an experiment conducted by Scheier and Carver (1977) in which the independent variable ‘self awareness’ was manipulated by having participants either watch themselves in a mirror or not. These two levels of self awareness, high self awareness (mirror present) and low self awareness (mirror not present) formed the two experimental conditions. The prediction was that people in high self-awareness would show more extreme emotional responses. Participant’s self reported emotions were measured. These emotions provided the dependent variable in the experiment. The experimental method could further be divided into two sub-categories i) Laboratory method, ii) Field method.

2.4.3.1.1 Laboratory Method The majority of experiments are conducted in a laboratory. In some studies, the laboratory is equipped with television, video cameras, computer monitors, microphones and other experimental apparatuses. In other cases, the laboratory is a simple room with a table and chair wherein a participant fills out a questionnaire. The benefit of conducting a laboratory experiment is that conditions could be highly controlled. Putting it in another way, within the confines of the laboratory, everything (example: environment, temperament, instructions given by the researcher) apart from the independent variable can be held constant. This way if changes in the independent variable are accompanied by changes in the dependent variable, we can very confidently say that the changes in the dependent variable are caused by the independent variable. Another benefit of experiments conducted in such a controlled environment is that they can be replicated, which would otherwise be more difficult to create outside the laboratory. Laboratory experiments have been used to study a wide range of social phenomena and have formed the basis for a number of highly influenced theories. The Advantages and Disadvantages of

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Laboratory method are: 1) Although the high degree of control over conditions allows us to infer causality from the finding – it also makes the experiment rather artificial i.e. the experiment lacks external validity. 2) Information that participants pickup from the experimental context that leads them to guess what the experimenter is predicting will happen. When this happens it will influence the ‘behaviour’ which the experimenter is looking for because the internal mental processes of the participant cannot be controlled. 3) Experimenters themselves may also pose a risk to the validity of an experiment. ‘Experimenter effects’ are subtle cues or signals that are given out by an experimenter who knows the experimental hypothesis – ex: body language, eye movements, tone of voice.

2.4.3.1.2 Field Method Experiments are not only confined to the laboratory. They are also conducted in naturalistic settings. For example given a situation; wherein an individual requires help, how many people come forward to help and why? Field experiments have greater external validity (not being artificial but genuine) than laboratory experiments. They are less likely to be influenced by ‘demand characteristics’ ; participants typically have no idea that they are taking part in a study. The Advantage and Disadvantage of Field Method are: 1) The situation is not nearly as controlled as in a laboratory situation and so the impact of external influences cannot be ruled out. 2) It is also not possible to randomly assign participants to conditions.

2.4.3.2 Non-Experimental Methods Researchers have three options. They can: 1) Ask research participants to report on their behaviour, thoughts or feelings – through self report. 2) They can observe questioned participants directly – observation 3) They can go to an archive and use data originally collected for other purposes. Although experiments are the best way of determining cause and effect, there are many circumstances where they are practically not feasible. If we are interested to know how gender, ethnicity or age affects behaviour, we cannot assign participants to different conditions of an experimental method. Moreover, when social psychologists are interested

in studying

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psychological phenomena on a broad societal level (ex: ethnic prejudice), experimental methods cannot be used. In such instances a number of non-experimental methods are available to a social psychologist. These are: 1. Observation method, 2. Archival method, 3. Case study, 4. Correlational method, and 5. Survey method.

2.4.3.2.1 Observation Method In social psychology, the observers are trained as social scientists who set out to answer questions about a particular social phenomena by observation and coding it according to a prearranged set of criteria. This method varies according to the degree to which the observer actively participates in the scene. At one extreme the observer is a non participant. S/he neither participates nor intervenes in any way as for example: a researcher interested in children's social behaviour may stand outside a playground to observe. Children at play in some situations, by their very nature, require observer participants, who observe, but try not to alter the situation in any way, for example – to get to know the intricacies of certain social phenomena like rituals, cultural ways. The observer can be a participant as a friend or relative. Certain behaviours are difficult to observe as they occur rarely or privately. It is confined to one particular group of people, setting, and activity.

2.4.3.2.2 Archival Method Another way that social psychologists can observe social phenomena without conducting an experiment is to re-analyse existing data. The researcher examines the accumulated document or archives of a culture, for example; diaries, novels, suicide notes, television shows, movies, magazines, newspaper articles, advertising, sexual violence etc. Archival analysis can tell us a great deal about the society's values and beliefs. It has got two advantages. It is inexpensive and it can study the change over

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time frame. This is particularly useful when researchers are interested in the effect of societal events on behaviours, which have occurred in the past. This research comes under 'archival research' first conducted by Hovland and Sears (1940).

2.4.3.2.3 Case Study Method Other non-experimental methods are field studies and case studies. Case study is a study of a particular participant or a small group of participants which involves a detailed and often descriptive investigation. Example: Behaviour of people after the earthquake.

2.4.3.2.4 Correlation Method In correlation studies, the researcher carefully observes and records the relationship between (or among) two or more factors technically known as variables. For example: Is physical attractiveness related to a student's popularity with other students. In a correlation design, the research does not influence the student's behaviour in any way but merely records information. The hallmark of an experimental design is intervention – with putting people in controlled situations or having confederates. Correlation research asks if there is an association between the variables and whether this association is high (+ve) or low (-ve) or neutral (no correlation). Example: whether or not watching violence on television is related to aggressive behaviour.

The Advantages and Disadvantages of Correlational methods are: 1) Correlation designs enable research to study problems in which intervention is impossible. 2) This design is efficient. It allows research to collect more information and relationships. 3) No clear cut evidence of cause and effect.

2.4.3.2.5 Survey Method It is a research method that involves asking participants to respond to a series of questions, through interviews or questionnaires. Poll survey, marketing surveys are the best examples. Surveys can be administered to a large sample with relative ease and at little expense because surveys are gathered from large numbers and researchers can be sure of its genuinity. The downside to questionnaires is that if they are not very carefully designed they can be misinterpreted by participants. There are also a number of response biases that participants have a tendency to blindly agree with positively worded questions and frequently fail to use the full range of possible responses like 'I don't know' etc.

2.4.4 Other Research Methods As psychology advanced and became global, and started focusing on cross cultural social phenomena, this method became a very important method.

2.4.4.1 Cross Cultural Method It has two goals

a. demonstrates that a particular psychological process or law is the

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universe and it operates the same way in all human beings across various cultures. b. explore the differences among human beings, by examining how culture influences the basic social psychological process.

2.4.4.2 Research Through Internet Recently social psychology has started to conduct research using the internet. The internet offers several advantages to researchers.

a. The

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Internet makes it easier to recruit participants who come from diverse backgrounds, distant geographic regions or specific groups. b. The information collected from the participants is automatically recorded. This increases efficiency of data collection. c. Internet research is less expensive. d. Internet chat rooms and bulletin boards provide a rich sample of human social behaviour, where people discuss current social issues or hobbies on the online forums and study many topics including communication, prejudice and spread of new ideas. In research: • Same subjects can participate in many studies more than once • The identity, responses in a frivolous and malicious manner. • Impossible to monitor participant's behaviour or undesirable distractions

2.4.5 Research Ethics Regardless of the method used to conduct research in social psychology, because it involves people, social psychologists need to be aware of a number of ethical issues. To ensure that research is not physically or psychologically harmful to participants, in 1972, the American Psychological Association suggested a set of principles for ethical conduct to guide the conduction of research. 1) Participant Welfare: It is essential that the physical and psychological welfare of participants is protected. Although it is not too difficult to determine the extent of physical harm to the participants, it is indeed difficult to determine the extent of psychological harm. Some experiments may leave a negative psychological impact (fear, stress, anxiety) for example: Eliciting anger may for example lead to temporarily depressed self esteem (

Carver and Glass 1978).

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So efforts should be made to ensure that the negative psychological impact should be inconsequential and short lived. 2) Deception: In order to avoid the problem caused by 'demand characteristics' or subjective bias. It is important that participants are not aware of the aim of the study Milgram (1963) deceived participants by making them believe that they were really administering electric shocks. This was necessary to gauge the participants' reactions. Many other experiments use confederates – someone who is a participant but who is actually an actor instructed by the experimenter in order to test a particular hypothesis. However, most deception is of a trivial nature, and the participants are told the full purpose of the experiment after completion and there is no evidence that deception causes long term harm. 3) Confidentiality: Participants in social psychology research are often required to disclose information of a personal or intimate nature. To reassure participants that this information will not be used against them in any way social psychologists need to inform participants that data derived from their participation will be completely confidential. Thus the anonymity of participants is also usually safeguarded by identifying them with a 'number' (roll number) rather than name. 4) Informed consent and debriefing: It is a well known practice to obtain informed consent from individuals prior to their participation in a study. The participants provide their full and voluntary consent in writing or they can withdraw from the experiment. After the experiment, participants need to be fully debriefed, this involves telling them the true purpose of the experiment. It gives experimenters the opportunity to demonstrate the importance and relevance of the research and the participants an opportunity to contribute to the genuine cause to the field (of social psychology) research. One of the important risks is the invasion of privacy, which should be respected and valued. The researcher who studies sensitive topics as sex, drug, alcohol use, illegal behaviour, religion, beliefs. Must be protected, the risk involved

must be

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minimal, should be – possible risk for the participants in the research should not be greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life. 2.5 Unit Summary In this unit, we have studied the various terms like social behaviour, social interaction and social influence and their significance in understanding the concept of social psychology. We also came to know the scope of social psychology which basically involves social stimuli and social situations. Later we have studied the different definitions of social psychology. Next we concentrated on how a social psychologist conducts its research. Firstly we became aware that the research starts with setting appropriate goals of research i.e. description, causal analysis theory building application and exploring the basic sources of topic generation from earlier research or personal knowledge and experience. Lastly you were provided with a detailed understanding of various experimental, laboratory, field, non-experimental, observation, archival, case study, correlation and survey methods. Also you would have learnt the new research through

the

internet and how to take care of conducting a fair and scientific research by following ethical code of research. 2.6

Key Terms Sociology: the study of human societies and social behaviour Anthropology: the study of human beings, especially of their origin, development, customs and beliefs Socio linguistics: Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and society's effect on language. It differs from sociology of language, which focuses on the effect of language on society. 2.7 Check Your Progress 1) Discuss the amalgamation of sociology and psychology. 2) What are the research methods in socio psychological research? 3) Discuss the research ethics.

Module II: Social Psychology: Social Processes

Unit 3:

Social Cognition 3.0 Introduction 3.1 Unit Objectives 3.2 Schemas:

Mental Framework For Organizing And Using

Social Information 3.2.1 The Impact of Schemas on Social Cognition -

Attention, Encoding,

and Retrieval 3.2.2

Priming 3.3 Heuristics : Reducing Efforts In Social Cognition 3.3.1 Representativeness Heuristics 3.3.2 Availability Heuristics 3.3.3

Anchoring and Adjustment Heuristics 3.4

Automatic and Controlled Processing: Two Basic Models Of Social Thought 3.4.1 Automatic Processing and Automatic Social

Behavior 3.4.2 Benefits of

Automatic Processing 3.5

Potential Sources Of Errors In Social Cognition 3.5.1 Negativity Bias 3.5.2

The

Optimistic Bias 3.5.3 Counterfactual Thinking 3.5.4 Thought Suppression 3.5.5 Magical Thinking 3.6 Affect And Cognition 3.6.1

Influence of Affect on Cognition 3.6.2

The

Influence of Cognition on Affect 3.6.3 Affect and

Cognition: Social Neuroscience

Evidence 3.7 Unit Summary 3.8 Key Terms 3.9 Check Your Progress 3.0

Introduction

Social cognition refers

to

the ways in which individuals interpret, analyze, remember, and use information about

the

social world.

Social

cognition studies the ways in which social information is processed by people, particularly encoding, storage, retrieval, and

application to social situations. It means application of knowledge and methods of cognitive psychology and

information processing theory to the field of social psychology. For example, if we want to buy a new mobile in a buy-back

offer, then we neither meticulously mathematically calculate the exact price of the old and new mobile nor do we do any

probability calculations to maximize our profits. We simply have a rough estimate of the prices and accept bargains more or

less around that price. We can understand

a

few interesting things about our mind from this example. (a) One, we have frameworks developed from the past experience

(often called as 'schema') regarding selling and buying and we propose a lower price to buy and

a

higher price to sell than our expectations. (b) Two, the mental processes we carry out are faster, automatic and very quick. (c)

Third, at the same time these mental frameworks are prone to systematic errors and biases in decisions we make.

After discussing

the effects of social schema and heuristics on social cognition, getting enlightened on how we think about social reality,

and understanding

that the thinking about the social mind of individuals is affected by the limitations of the structural and processing abilities of

our own minds we will discuss various other aspects of our thought. They are concerned with models of social thought, errors

in social thinking, and complex relationship between affect and cognition. These three aspects of social thinking would help us

in understanding social thought clearly.. 3.1

Unit Objective

In this Unit we shall discuss some of these aspects of social information processing. ●

Schemas: Mental Framework for Organizing and Using Social Information • Heuristics : Reducing Efforts in Social Cognition • Automatic and Controlled Processing: Two Basic Models of Social Thought • Potential Sources of Errors In Social Cognition • Affect and Cognition 3.2

Schemas: Mental Framework for Organizing and Using Social Information Schemas are mental frameworks centering on specific themes that help us to organize social information.

There are various types of schemas. "Self schema" is for organizing knowledge about our-self knowledge. Schemas for other individuals are "person schema".

Schemas

for social roles are called "role schemas" and Schemas for events or situations are called "event schema" (event script). Schemas are

mental frameworks centering on specific themes that help us to organize social information.

While discussing the social schema we would study three aspects of schema: a. Effect of schema on social cognition; b. Effect of priming; and c. Schema persistence. 3.2.1 The Impact of Schemas on Social Cognition - Attention, Encoding, and Retrieval Schemas influence social cognition by acting upon three basic cognitive processes. They are attention, encoding and retrieval. Attention is

the

cognitive process of focusing on specific information while ignoring other things. Encoding is storing this information in memory. Retrieval refers to the processes of recalling the information stored in memory and using it. Attention: Schemas work

as

a

mechanism that helps individuals to focus attention on specific aspects of the

environment. The stimulus that is coherent with schemas is more easily noticed than the stimulus that is not fitting with the schemas one holds (unless the information has high strength of attracting information). E.g., while watching a cricket match we

quickly notice happenings on the ground as compared to the noise in the stadium. Encoding: Information that is consistent with schemas is more likely to be saved in the long- term memory than the one that is less relevant. We easily remember the

instances when people have agreed with us rather than when they have disagreed. In contrast, we also remember some instances, which do not at all fit in the schemas. For example, if you go to the government office and your work is done in five

minutes, most probably you will not forget the instance, because it was contradictory to your expectations. Retrieval: The relationship between schemas and retrieval is a complex issue. Some researchers have shown that information that is consistent with schemas is better retrieved. Others have shown that the information inconsistent with the schemas are more easily stored and retrieved.

3.2.2 Priming We have

a large number of schemas. Out of them a

specific schema is used for interpreting social information. Priming is one of the mechanisms that influence the selection of schema. Priming refers to the events or stimulus that increases the availability of the specific type of information in the memory

or consciousness as compared to other types of information. Usually stronger schemas are used for processing. But priming can also have an impact on the activation of certain schemas. For example, you had a fight with your boss when you came out

of the office. While walking on

the

road, somebody bangs you, and before he says anything you get extremely angry with him. This is because you have

a

schema of aggressively interpreting social information that is activated. Studies on the effectiveness of priming have suggested that the effect of priming lasts for years together.

The effects of priming can decrease. This is called unpriming. If the priming is expressed in

the thinking process or in social action (behavior), then the

effect of priming decreases. This is unpriming. If priming is not expressed, then it does not lose its effect. Figure 3.1: Unpriming of Schemas in Sparrow and Wagner's experiment

Figure given above gives a description of the

experimental study carried out by Sparrow and Wagner (2006) supported this hypothesis. They had two groups of subjects. The task was to incorrectly answer very simple questions. Group 1 did this task twice, first they were asked to answer correctly, and

on the second occasion, they were required to answer incorrectly. The Group 2 had to answer incorrectly on their first trial.

This means that the schema for correct answers was activated for both groups. The Group 1 expressed their schema by giving correct answers on

the

first trial. So the unpriming happened

on the second trial. Group 2 did not express their schema and so no unpriming happened for them (Figure explains the same).

The result showed that Group 1 gave 59% correct answers, and Group 2 gave 49% correct answers. This clearly demonstrates the impact of unpriming on group 1, because of which they could give incorrect answers. 3.3 Heuristics: Reducing Efforts In

Social Cognition Amos Tversky and Daniel Kahneman have carried out

a

series of experiments to demonstrate that human beings use mental short-cuts to make sense of the world under conditions of uncertainty. They proved that individuals do not think rationally while making judgments. They make systematic errors and biases in their inferences. They argued that human beings use heuristics because they cannot manage information. This is known as information overload. Human cognitive system can process

a limited amount of information at a given point of time. When the information is more than it could be processed, we fail to process all information. This is called information overload.

We use smart tactics under conditions of information overload and manage this information. These tactics are known as heuristics. Heuristics are simple rules of thumb or mental shortcuts that help us to make complex decisions and draw inferences in

a speedy and efficient way. They reduce our mental efforts. Tversky and Kahneman have demonstrated the use of three heuristics.

They are: 1. Representativeness Heuristics, 2. Availability Heuristics, and 3. Anchoring and Adjustment Heuristics. Heuristics may help us in making correct judgments. But Tversky and Kahneman have viewed them as potential sources of errors in our thinking. Kahneman was awarded

the Nobel Prize in Economics in 1992 for this work (Tversky died on 2 June, 1996 and Nobel is not given posthumously). Now we will discuss each of these heuristics. 3.3.1

Representativeness Heuristics Have a look at the following example given by Tversky and Kahneman:

Linda is 31 yrs, single, outspoken, and very bright. She majored in philosophy in college.

As a student, she was deeply concerned with discrimination and other social issues, and participated in anti-nuclear demonstrations.

Which statement is more likely? a. Linda is a bank teller. b. Linda is a bank teller and active in the feminist movement. Most of you would answer 'B', that is 'Linda is a bank teller and active in the feminist movement.' In reality, 'A' is more likely than 'B'.

Because 'B' (bank tellers who are feminist activist) is a subset of set 'A' (bank tellers). We know that the

probability of subset is always less than (or at the most equal to) the probability of set. Why did we make this error? It happened because we used something called 'representativeness heuristics'. When likelihood of an event is judged on the basis of the extent that it represents the essential features of the parent population or of its generating process is called representativeness heuristics. When an individual is similar to a typical member of a given group, then he/she is judged to be more likely a member of that group. The heuristic is useful in inductive reasoning.

The use of this heuristic can systematically lead to errors in judgements. One such example is 'base rate fallacy'. In an experiment by Tversky and Kahneman, subjects were told that a profile of Jack is picked from 100 profiles in which 30 are engineers and 70 are lawyers. Jack is

a 30 yr old man. He is married and has no children. He is a man

of high ability and high motivation and promises to be quite successful in his field. He is liked by his colleagues. What is more likely an occupation of Jack? Many responded Engineer. While doing so they ignored very important information regarding base rate. The base rate of engineers is 30% and so the probability of Jack being an engineer can not be more than 30. This is called a base rate fallacy. Subjects ignored base rates because they focused on representativeness. Hence, representativeness heuristics can also lead to errors. 3.3.2 Availability Heuristics

The availability heuristic is a phenomenon in which people predict the frequency of an event, or a proportion within a population, based on how easily an example can be brought to mind. There are situations in which people assess the frequency of a class or the probability of an event by the

ease with which instances or occurrences can be brought to mind. E.g., one may assess the risk of heart attack among middle-aged people by recalling such occurrences among one's acquaintances. Availability is a useful clue for assessing frequency or probability. Kahneman and Tversky asked participants to judge whether letter 'K' would appear more frequently at 1st place or 3rd place in all English language words. Many answered 1st place. This simply happened because you can think of many words that begin with

the letter 'K' than that have the letter 'K' in the third position (Tversky and Kahneman, 1974). Hence,

Availability Heuristics refers to the strategy of making judgements or assessing the frequency of a class or the probability of an event

on the basis of how easily specific types of information can be easily brought to mind.

Availability heuristics may lead to errors in decisions and judgments. A person argues that cigarette smoking is not unhealthy because he knows somebody who smoked three packs of cigarettes a day and lived 100 years. That case could simply be an unusual case that does not

represent the

health of smokers in general. 3.3.3 Anchoring and Adjustment Heuristics Anchoring and adjustment is a heuristic that influences the way people intuitively assess probabilities. While assessing the probability of an event, people start with an implicitly suggested reference point (anchor) and make adjustments to it to reach their estimate. A person begins with a first approximation (anchor) and then makes adjustments to that number based on additional information. For example, in one of the experiments, Kahneman and Tversky asked students to guess the percentage of African nations which are members of the United Nations. One group of students was first asked "Was it more or less than 45%?" whereas other groups of students were asked "Was it more or less than 65%?" The first group of students guessed lower values than the second group. This is because of the use of Anchoring and Adjustment heuristics. The initial question set the high (65%) or low (45%) as an anchor. Then individuals made adjustments around that anchor and gave answers around that

anchor. So individuals under high anchor condition judged the percentage of African nations much higher than those who are in low anchor condition.

Similar patterns of answers have been found for other kinds of estimates. Typically impacts of adjustments are not sufficient to overcome the effect of anchoring. This may be evident in selling and buying of goods. Suppose you go to buy

in the markets where bargaining is possible. You want to buy a 'Jeans', then what is the process you follow? The shopkeeper tells you a price and you bargain around that price and settle for something lower than that. Your bargain is adjusted around the anchor (initial price told by shopkeeper).

Hence,

Anchoring and Adjustment Heuristics refers to the tendency to use some value as an initial point and then adjust the final judgment. So far we have discussed various kinds of heuristics explained by Tversky and Kahneman. Availability, Representativeness and Anchoring-Adjustment heuristics are important biases in judgments and decision making. Recent research has shown that there are many other forms of heuristics that are used by human beings. They are Affect Heuristics, Fast and Frugal Heuristics, etc. 3.4

Automatic and Controlled Processing: Two Basic Models Of Social Thought The distinction between automatic and controlled processing has been well-established. According to this idea, social thoughts are processed in two distinct ways: (a) Automatic Processing, and (b) Controlled Processing. Controlled Processing refers to the processing of social information in a

careful, systematic, logical, rational, and effortful way. In this kind of processing, individuals think systematically and logically to reach a conclusion. E.g When you want to make a travel plan for your holidays, you find out most of the information, carefully choose the destinations and then systematically make the travel plans. Automatic Processing refers to

a fast, relatively effortless, and intuitive kind of processing of social information. This does not necessarily mean that these processes are entirely independent of each other. Some studies have shown that they work together.

Hence, Automatic Processing refers to fast, relatively effortless, intuitive, automatic and non-conscious processing of information due to sufficient experience of the cognitive task or social information. Good amount of correlational as well as experimental research has supported this distinction. In addition, neurological research has also indicated support for

this distinction. It was found that there are two kinds of neural systems that process social information; one for automatic and the other for controlled. The automatic processing of thought is primarily associated with amygdala, whereas controlled processing primarily occurs in the

prefrontal cortex. Now, we shall discuss the effect of automatic processing on automatic social behavior. 3.4.1 Automatic Processing and Automatic Social Behavior We have already learned about the schemas. In order to demonstrate the effect of automatic processing on automatic social behavior, Bargh, Chen, and Burrows (1996) conducted some experiments. In one of the experiments, they wanted to find the impact of rude and polite schema on the

subject's behavior. These schemas were activated by giving scrambled sentences containing words relevant to the

schema. There were three groups of subjects. Group one had received scrambled sentences containing words related to rudeness, group two received words related to politeness and group three received unrelated words. After this task, they were supposed to report to the experimenter and ask for the next task. The experimenter was talking to another person (confederate). Experimenter ignored the subjects. Whether the subject interrupted this conversation or not was the dependent variable. It was found that group 1 subjects interrupted the conversation more than anybody, confirming the hypothesis that the behavior occurred in an automatic manner. Further, it was found that it had no relation with the subject's ratings of the

experimenter's politeness. In another study, they found that when the schema for 'old age' is activated, the subjects walked slower than when it was not activated. Obviously confirming that the stereotypes, which are one type of schemas, have an impact on automatic behavior. In other studies, they have found that automatic processing has more general effects than specific ones. They concluded that once automatic processing is activated, people automatically get ready for the interactions with the people for whom the schema is activated.

3.4.2 Benefits of Automatic Processing It is well known that the automatic processing is comparatively effortless, fast and efficient. In addition, whether it is beneficial than the systematic controlled processing is an interesting question to answer. Dijksterhuis and van Olden (2006) conducted an experiment showing the benefits of automatic processing. They investigated effects of immediate, conscious (controlled, systematic), and unconscious (uncontrolled, automatic) processing on satisfaction with the decision. They had three groups of subjects.

They

looked at posters and indicated their liking. Group 1 (immediate condition) has seen all the posters simultaneously and had to make a decision immediately. Group 2 (Conscious condition) saw each poster for 90 seconds, listed their thoughts and evaluation systematically. Group 3 (Unconscious condition) worked on anagram problem after seeing the pictures, giving them no time to think. Later on they indicated their preferences. Subjects were given the posters of their choice. After five week, they were asked about their satisfaction with the poster and the money that they would want to sell it off. The figure below clearly shows the results obtained by these researchers. These findings clearly indicate that the group that processed the information systematically was

the

most dissatisfied group whereas the one that processed information automatically was the most satisfied group. Figure 3.2: Differences between groups on satisfaction and selling price

This may be due to the different capacity of the two processing styles to process the information, automatic superseding. This and similar studies indicate that automatic processing is not only effortless but can be useful too.

3.5 Potential Sources Of Errors In Social Cognition Human beings reason thoughtfully on most of the social occasions, does not guarantee us rationality of thinking. This means that though we try to be correct in our thought process, we are likely to make errors in our social judgments. We shall explore some errors in cognition. **3.5.1 Negativity Bias** Take

the following example: Niranjan is a

bright, helpful, social, jealous, and friendly person. Which adjective has attracted your attention the most. Perhaps, jealous... right...! This happens because of our tendency called negativity bias. The tendency of Human beings to pay more attention to negative information than positive information is called negativity bias. Social psychologists have recognized this tendency of human beings for a long time.

Hence,

Negativity bias refers to the tendency to show greater sensitivity to negative information than positive information.

We pay more attention to any negative event, characteristics, etc., of social situations. This is seen in a variety of social situations. Such a tendency has a strong evolutionary relevance. Negative information reflects potentially dangerous aspects of the situation which may cause threat to the survival of the individual. Hence, one needs to be sensitive to such information.

Human beings detect negative emotions

more

quickly than positive emotions. This does not mean that we are always negative in our attention. Indeed we also pay attention to positive information, and negativity bias gets eliminated under positive priming conditions. **3.5.2 The Optimistic Bias** We also have an exactly opposite bias called 'optimistic bias'. The optimistic bias refers to the tendency to expect the overall outcomes as positive. Generally,

most people believe that they are more likely to experience positive events

than others. The optimistic bias refers to the tendency to expect the overall outcomes as positive. The effect of optimistic bias is seen on many of our actions and behaviors. Two examples are overconfidence barriers and planning fallacy.

Overconfidence barrier refers to

the

tendency to be more confident about the accuracy of our judgments than sensible. We believe that we are more likely to be successful in studies, relations, marriage, jobs, and live a longer life than what seems reasonable. This bias is called an overconfidence barrier. Another result of the optimism is planning fallacy. Planning fallacy is a tendency to make optimistic bias regarding the time estimations for a given task. We tend to believe that we will finish a task much earlier than what it would actually take. Think of your time-tables for examination studies. We typically never finish our studies in the planned time.

Because we tend to be unrealistically optimistic in our estimations of time. Planning fallacy is a

tendency

to believe that we can do more work in

a

given period of time than

actually

or realistically is possible. The planning fallacy occurs because we tend to ignore how much time a particular task has taken in

the past. We tend to focus on the future and make a narrative account. Even when we focus on the

past we believe that we took more time because of external factors outside our control which may not affect us now. So if we pay careful attention to potential obstacles, then we can correctly estimate the time required and avoid the planning fallacy.

3.5.3 Counterfactual Thinking Suppose your friend applies for a specific college and fails to get admission because of less merit. You quickly think that 'he should have studied more'. If you know that somebody met with an accident and you think 'what if he wouldn't have started at that time. This is typically known as counterfactual thinking. Counterfactual thinking is thinking about a past that did not happen. It is

a tendency to imagine other outcomes in the situation than the ones that have occurred. Counterfactual thinking is not just limited to the negative events. It is

a wide range of automatic thinking that influences our social cognition. Counterfactual thinking is thinking about a past that did not happen. It is

a tendency to imagine other outcomes in the situation than the ones that have occurred.

Counterfactual literally means 'contrary to the facts'. The term counterfactual thinking refers to a set of cognitions involving the simulation of alternatives to past or present factual events or circumstances. Suppose, two of your friends failed

a unit test because they did not study well. Since the outcome is similar, you should feel similar sympathy for them. Now, imagine that A otherwise studies regularly, and B rarely studies. Now for whom you will have more sympathy..? You think of alternatives for the behavior of A than B and feel more sympathetic for him. Counterfactual thinking is a very strong bias in thinking. In order to get rid of counterfactual thinking one needs to suppress counterfactual thoughts or discount them.

Counterfactual thinking can be beneficial or costly for the user depending on how it is used. Suppose you have missed a top position in your class by one point. You think that 'you could have done better' or '

at least you retained second position in class', you are engaging in two different types of counterfactual thoughts: upward and downward. This is one useful classification of counterfactuals based on their direction of comparison (Roese, 1994).

Counterfactuals may result in alternative circumstances that are evaluatively better than actual (i.e., upward counterfactuals) or evaluatively worse than actual (i.e., downward counterfactuals). Often, regret can be confused with counterfactual thinking.

Regret is an emotion whereas counterfactual thinking is thought. 3.5.4 Thought Suppression Human beings can manage to keep some thought out of their consciousness. This is called thought suppression. If certain thoughts are disturbing, we can stay mentally healthy by keeping them out of mind. Thought suppression can be achieved in two stages:

a. Monitoring Process: this is an automatic monitoring process, which identifies an unwanted interrupting thought.

b. Operating Process: this is an effortful, controlled process to find other important thoughts

to distract from the disturbing thought. Individuals engage in thought suppression by influencing their feelings or behaviors.

3.5.5 Magical Thinking Suppose your friend offers you chocolates that have the shape of an

insect, or cockroach. Will you eat that chocolate..? Most probably not.

If you think rationally, the shape of the chocolate does not decide the contents. But still you will not, this is because of magical thinking. Magical thinking involves assumptions that do not hold under rational scrutiny, but still individuals believe in them.

One of the examples of it is, if two things resemble in external appearance, then they share similar fundamental properties. The plastic or rubber model of snakes or lizards can also create panic among the people. Magical thinking involves assumption that does not hold under rational scrutiny

Positive view of Social Cognition: From the earlier discussion it appears that we are making only errors in thinking. Look at various kinds of heuristics that human beings use and various kinds of errors we make in social thinking. This provides a very grim view of social cognition. As if we are making all judgments and decisions irrationally.

But in reality, we are processing

a

huge amount of social information. And still, most of the time, in our social interactions, we are making useful and efficient judgments. It is also true that we are cognitive misers, and lazy about using rationality, but these rules of thumb often give us useful judgments. So we need not feel that this is making our life worse. It is certainly bringing some limitations to human thinking, and hence we are not becoming machines that process information, computers. This is what gives humanness to human thinking.

3.6 Affect And Cognition

In this section we shall discuss the complex relationship between affect and cognition. Cognition involves thinking, decision making, etc., whereas affect is expression of mood, a feeling state. Though these two are independent systems of mind, their interplay has been a matter of extensive research. Affect influences cognition and cognition also influences affect. We shall discuss both in detail.

3.6.1

Influence of

Affect on Cognition Our mood influences perceptions of the world around us. When we are in a sad mood,

everything just looks gloomy to us, whereas when we are in

a cheerful mood, everything seems to be brighter than usual. Mood influences our memory, judgments, perceptions and many other aspects of cognition. Researchers have found that even experienced interviewers are influenced by their mood while evaluating the candidates. Mood in general is seen as a mediatory mechanism that influences cognition. The impact of mood on memory is very well researched. There are two important effects that have been found in this connection. They are mood congruent memory and mood dependent memory. Mood dependent memory refers to the idea that the material can be better recalled in the mood in which the material is learned. (Earlier it was also known as

the

state dependent hypothesis). If we learn (i.e., store in memory) something in a positive mood, then we are more likely to recall it in

a positive mood. The mood in which the material was stored serves as a tag and the current mood serves as a retrieval cue. This is called a mood dependent memory. The mood congruent memory refers to the phenomenon that the present mood determines what would be recalled. If you are in

a positive mood then the positive information would be entered in the memory and recalled from the memory. If you are in the negative mood then the negative information will be easily recalled. So the information consistent (congruent) with the present mood is recalled.

Here mood serves as a filter.

Figure 3.3: Mood Dependent Memory

Figure 3.4 Mood Congruent Memory Among these two effects, the mood dependent is comparatively inconsistent in research literature. The findings regarding mood congruent memory are more consistent. In addition, an asymmetry has also been reported in mood congruent memory. Mood congruent memory for positive mood is far more common than for negative mood. This can be attributed to the motivational mechanism to maintain the mood. Mood also influences other cognitive functions than memory. Several research studies on creativity indicate that

a positive mood influences creativity positively. Mood helps in creating new associations that are required in creativity. We have discussed heuristics in

the above section. People who are in a

positive mood are more likely to use heuristics as compared to those who are in

a negative mood. This may be beneficial for tasks with experience. But it may not be similarly beneficial for novel tasks wherein systematic problem solving is required. Mood also influences the way we attribute motives to people's behavior.

When we are in

a positive mood we tend to attribute positive motives to people's behavior more than when we are

in

a negative mood.

3.6.2 The Influence of Cognition on Affect

As affect influences cognition, cognition can also influence

mood. One of the sources to understand this influence is to understand Schachter's Two-Stage model of emotions. This theory suggests that initial physiological arousal is general and people look out for cues to attribute that arousal. Depending on the cue they find out, they label the emotion. This process of identifying the cue and attribution is cognitive in nature. The second source is through the activation of schemas. If the schema contains affective information, and if that schema gets activated, then the related effect is also experienced.

Cognition and Regulation of Affective States: We need to control our emotional reactions in almost all social circumstances. We also need to manage our own negative feelings in order to function effectively. We employ various techniques to do so. One of them is that we engage in behaviors that give pleasure but are potentially unhealthy. We deliberately give in to our temptations in order to lift our mood. Tice and others (2000) have conducted an experiment where they put the participants in a good and bad mood. They were provided a 15 minutes break to prepare for the IQ test. The bad mood subjects procrastinated and their mood got lifted because of that. Another strategy people use to cope with negative events is 'not to generate counterfactual thoughts'. So, one thinks that the negative outcome was completely unavoidable. This reduces the negativity of the emotional reaction.

3.6.3 Affect and Cognition: Social Neuroscience Evidence It was stated earlier that there is an interplay of affect and cognition, essentially they are two separate systems. Several factor analytic studies have clearly demonstrated that cognition and mood are independent dimensions. In addition, neuroscience research has also confirmed the view that there exist two distinct systems in the brain for these two dimensions. The brain region that is associated with cognition is the prefrontal cortex whereas the limbic system is associated with emotions. Some experimental research on game theory highlights this fact. One of the games is 'ultimatum game'. This first subject is provided with some money. He had to offer some part of it to another individual, if the other individual agrees, the money is shared, and if the other individual doesn't agree then no one gets anything. Classic economics theory would predict that the other person would accept any non-zero amount, whereas in reality the offers below 40% are rejected. The MRI studies indicated that when people make such judgments, both the prefrontal cortex and limbic system are

active. In addition, the research on delayed and immediate gratification through rewards also supports this distinction. Increased activity is observed in

the limbic system for immediate reward than for delayed reward. 3.7 Unit Summary In the unit we discussed some of the issues related to social cognition. Initially we have discussed Social Schemas and their impact on social thought. We have also discussed various other aspects of social schemas. Then we have discussed heuristics and biases in social cognition. We have studied the three heuristics that influence our social judgments and decision making.

In this unit we have seen that two basic processing mechanisms are involved in the processing of social information. They are automatic processing and controlled processing. In addition, we have also learned that various potential sources of errors can lead to mistakes in social judgments and decision making. Hence, we need to guard ourselves against those. Though, 34 heuristics and various other errors in cognition increases vulnerability to make errors in thinking, most of the times they turn out to be useful. We also learned that the mood and cognitions are two distinct systems and both of them affect each other.

3.8 Key Terms • Schemas: 1) a diagrammatic presentation broadly: a structured framework or plan: outline. 2) a mental codification of experience that includes a particular organized way of perceiving cognitively and responding to a complex situation or set of stimuli. • Cognition: the process by which knowledge and understanding is developed in the mind • Heuristics: A heuristic, or heuristic technique, is any approach to problem solving or self- discovery that employs a practical method that is not guaranteed to be optimal, perfect, or rational, but is nevertheless sufficient for reaching an immediate, short-term goal or approximation. • Social Cognition: Social cognition is a sub-topic of various branches

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of psychology that focuses on how people process, store, and apply information about other people and social situations.

It focuses on the role that cognitive processes play in social interactions. 3.9 Check Your Progress 1) What is social schema? Discuss the three aspects of schema. 2) Discuss each of the heuristics in detail. 3) Discuss the two basic models of social thought: Automatic and Controlled Processing 4) Discuss the potential sources of errors in social cognition. 5) Discuss the complex relationship between "affect" and "cognition".

Unit 4:

Social Perception 4.0 Introduction 4.1 Unit Objective 4.2 Definition of Social Perception 4.3 Different Channels of Nonverbal Communication 4.4 Darwin's Theory of Universal Facial Expressions of Emotion 4.5 Attribution, Theories of Attribution and Attribution Bias 4.5.1 Applications of Attribution Theory 4.6

Impression Formation and Impression Management Defined 4.6.1 Research By Solomon Asch on Central And Peripheral Traits In Impression Formation 4.6.2 How Quickly Are First Impressions Formed? And The Role of Schemas In Shaping First Impressions 4.6.3 Cognitive Approach To Impression Formation 4.6.4 Impression Management 4.6.5 Impression Management By Marginalized Persons: The Case of Hijras In India 4.7

Interpersonal Attraction and Close Relationships 4.7.1 Internal Determinants of Attraction: The Need to Affiliate and the Basic Role of Affect 4.7.2

Affect as a Basic Response System 4.7.3 Affect and attraction 4.7.4 Additional Implication of the Affect-attraction Relationship 4.7.5 External Determinants of Attraction: Proximity And Other Observable Characteristics 4.7.6

Factors Based on Interacting with Others: Similarity and Mutual Liking 4.8

Close Relationships: Family and Friends 4.9
Unit Summary 4.10 Key Terms 4.11 Check Your Progress
4.0

Introduction It is a well documented fact that human beings are social animals whose survival is contingent on their ability to interact with others. Naturally, human beings are predisposed to knowing about others' personalities which enables them to deal with them

amicably. Social psychology is the discipline that deals with a scientific analysis of human behavior.

It tries

to

explain

how

the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals are influenced by

the

presence of others.

It examines how our experience is understood in terms of the social influences and relationships vis-a-vis the cultural groups to which we belong. When humans meander through the social milieu, they are constantly bombarded with

a

variety of information through the various senses. Social perception is that

part of perception that allows us to understand the individuals and groups of our social world, and thus is an element of social cognition.

Impression formation and impression management are interrelated topics having considerable practical significance in our everyday life. We very quickly form impressions of people whom we meet. We also make attempts to create favorable impressions on others, so as to gain considerable advantage from them, such as an interview, assignment, getting our work done, etc. We also attempt to influence how others would perceive us and form impressions about us. In this unit we will discuss how impressions are formed and how we influence others' impressions about us. 4.1

Unit Objective This unit shall inform the learners on: •

Definition of Social Perception • Different Channels of Nonverbal Communication • Darwin's Theory of Universal Facial Expressions of Emotion • Attribution, Theories of Attribution and Attribution Bias •

Impression Formation and Impression Management Defined • Interpersonal Attraction and Close Relationships • Close Relationships: Family and Friends 4.2

Definition of Social Perception Social perception and cognition are mental processes that help us to collect and remember information about others, and to make inferences and judgments based on that information.

Social

perception is defined as the study of how we form impressions of

and make inferences about other people. In order to know about other people, we depend on information gained from their physical appearance, and verbal and nonverbal communication. Missing

information

is

filled in by using an implicit personality theory: If a person is observed to have one particular trait, we assume that he or she has other traits related to this observed one. These assumptions help us to categorize people and then infer additional facts and predict behavior. An implicit personality

theory is

a type of schema people use to group various kinds of personality traits together. Like other schemas, using these theories help us form well-developed impressions of other people quickly. Social perceptions are also interlinked with self-perceptions. Both are influenced by self-motives.

Society has the desire to achieve beneficial outcomes for the self and to maintain a positive self-image. Just as you prejudge the people you come across in society, you are being judged by them. As it is natural for humans to want to make a good impression on people, your

self perceptions

almost mirror other's social perceptions.

According to David Krech and Richard S. Crutchfield there are two major determinants of perception, structural factors and functional factors.

By

structural factors we mean those factors driving solely from the nature of the physical stimuli and the natural effects they evoke in the nervous system of the individual. Thus, for the Gestalt psychologist, perceptual organizations are determined primarily by the psychological events occurring in the nervous system of the individual in direct reaction to the stimulation by the physical objects. Sensory factors are independent of the perceiving individual's needs and personality. The functional factors of perceptual organization are those, which derive primarily from the needs, moods, past experience and memory of the individual. All functional factors in perception are social in the usual sense of the term. Social perception is one important component of social competence and successful social life. Being competent in social perception includes three domains of competence: (1) knowing that other people have thoughts, beliefs, emotions, intentions, desires, and the like, (2) being able to "read" other people's inner states based on their words, behavior, facial expression and the like, and (3) adjusting one's actions based on those "readings". That is, a socially competent person can make note of other people's facial expressions, tone of voice, posture, gestures, words, and the like, and on the basis of these clues, make reasonably accurate judgments about that person's state of mind, emotions, and intentions. Socially competent people then use these inferences about other people's inner states to make good decisions about how to behave socially.

Thus

socially competent people must have knowledge of social rules, roles, routines, and scripts in their social lives. Furthermore, they must make use of this knowledge and of these scripts in their decision making and acting. They also have a concern for other people and make it a habit to adjust their behavior based on the needs of others. Finally, they have the confidence needed to interact socially and accept the vulnerability associated with potential rejection. Researchers have confirmed the fact that first impressions are important. Studies show that first impressions are easily formed, difficult to change, and have a long-lasting influence. Rather than absorbing each piece of new information about an individual in a vacuum, it is common for people to invoke a preexisting prototype or schema based on some aspect of the person, modifying it with specific information about the particular individual to arrive at an overall first impression. One term for this process is schema-plus-correction. It can be dangerous because it allows people to infer many things from a very limited amount of information, which partially explains why first impressions are often wrong. If there is no special reason to think negatively about a person, one's first impression of that person will normally be positive, as people tend to give others the benefit of doubt. However, people are especially attentive to negative factors, and if these are present, they will outweigh the positive ones in generating impressions. One reason first impressions are so indelible is that people have a tendency to interpret new information about a person in a light that will reinforce their first impression. They also tend to remember the first impression, or overall schema, better than any subsequent corrections. Thus if a person whom one thinks of as competent makes a mistake, it will tend to be overlooked and eventually forgotten, and the original impression is the one that will prevail. Conversely, one will tend to forget or undervalue good work performed by

someone initially judged to be incompetent. In addition, people often treat each other in ways that tend to elicit behavior that conforms to their impressions of each other. Stereotypes:

Stereotypes are

beliefs about people based on their membership in a particular group. Stereotypes can be positive, negative, or neutral. Stereotypes based on gender, ethnicity, or occupation are common in many societies. Stereotypes have several important functions: 1. They allow people to quickly process new information about an event or person. 2. They organize people's

past experiences. 3. They help people to meaningfully assess differences between individuals and groups. 4. They help people to make predictions about other people's behavior. Nevertheless stereotypes can lead to distortions of reality for several reasons: a. They cause people to exaggerate differences among groups. b. They lead people to focus selectively on information that agrees with the stereotype and ignore information that disagrees with it. c. They tend to make people see other groups as overly homogenous, even though people can easily see that the groups they belong to are heterogeneous. One way to simplify things is to organize people into groups.

For each group, we have a stereotype, a fixed set of characteristics we tend to attribute to all group members. Stereotypes enable us to make quick judgments, but these are often wrong.

Gender stereotypes: Males are considered more independent, dominant, aggressive, scientific, and stable in handling crises. Females are seen as more emotional, sensitive, gentle, helpful, and patient. Evolutionary psychologists have speculated that humans evolved the tendency to stereotype because it gave their ancestors an adaptive advantage. Being able to decide quickly which group a person belonged to may have had survival value, since this enabled people to distinguish between friends and enemies.

Some evolutionary psychologists believe that xenophobia, the fear of strangers or people different from oneself, has genetic roots. They argue that humans are to some extent programmed by their genes to respond positively to genetically similar people and negatively to genetically different people. Now

communication is a vital part of human life. It is what allows us to share thoughts, feelings, wonderings, and knowledge with others and also shapes our social perceptions to a great extent. Though we use both verbal and nonverbal communication, the vast majority of communication we do is through nonverbal channels.

The next section deals with nonverbal communication in detail. 4.3 Different Channels of Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is one of the many interesting topics studied by social psychology. Social psychologists view it as an essential element of social perception. Although there are many other forms of nonverbal communication, the term usually means conveying thoughts and/or feelings without words using body language or sounds as the medium. Nonverbal communication can be defined as the way in which people communicate, intentionally or unintentionally, without words. The main channels of nonverbal communication are facial expressions, eye contact, body movements, posture and touching. Nonverbal communication takes place in every social setting, though often it is not recognized for what it is or for what it means. It makes up a substantial portion of our communicative experience. Much research has been undertaken in recent years to analyze different kinds of nonverbal communication, and much of this research has addressed issues of interpersonal and intergender communication, addressing questions of interpersonal attraction, flirting, interactions in business situations, comparisons of male versus female interpretations of nonverbal behavior, and so on. Many of us associate facial expression and gestures with nonverbal communication, but these are not the only two types involved. There are, in fact, eight

different types of nonverbal communication: 1) Facial Expression This makes up the largest proportion of nonverbal communication. Large amounts of information can be conveyed through a smile or frown.

The

facial

expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, and fear are similar across cultures throughout the world. 2)

Gestures Common gestures include pointing, waving, and using fingers, etc. You can tell a person's attitude by the way they walk or by the way they stand. Same goes for gestures. 3) Paralinguistics

This includes factors such as tone of voice, loudness, inflection, and pitch.

Tone of voice can be powerful. The same sentence said in different tones can convey different messages. A strong tone of voice may indicate approval or enthusiasm, whereas the same sentence said with a hesitant tone of voice may convey disapproval or lack of interest. Vocal Behaviors such as pitch, inflection, volume, rate, filler words, pronunciation, articulation, accent, and silence, often reveal considerable information about others. 4) Body Language and Posture A person's posture and movement can also convey a great deal of information. Arm crossing or leg-crossing conveys different meanings depending on the context and the person interpreting them.

Body language is very subtle, and may not be very definitive. 5)

Proxemics This refers to personal space. The amount of space a person requires depends on each individual's preference, but also depends on the situation and other people involved in the situation. -The Use of Space- The only time you really notice this is when we particularly need the space. For instance, being in a crowded elevator or being in an overcrowded house party.

A lot of times when a person is upset they just need their space to calm down. 6) Eye

Gaze Looking, staring, and blinking are all considered types of eye

gaze. Looking at another person can indicate a range of emotions including hostility, interest, or attraction. -

Eye behaviors- plays a role in several important types of relational interaction. 7)

Haptics: This refers to communicating through touch. Haptics is especially important in infancy and early childhood. -Touch is one of our five senses, but every touch has a different kind of meaning to it and when nonverbally communicating - its something you need to know.

Five major areas of touching are : affectionate touch, caregiving touch, power and control touch, aggressive touch, ritualistic touch. 8)

Appearance Our choice of color, clothing, hairstyles, and other factors affecting our appearance are considered a means of nonverbal communication.

Even Chronemics which implies the way we use time or the way we give time to others makes for a nonverbal behavior. It is indicative of two important relational messages, one concerning value and the other concerning power. Culture and the Channels of Nonverbal Communication Paul Ekman and his colleagues have studied the influence of culture on the facial display of emotions. They have concluded that display rules are particular to each culture and dictate what kinds of emotional expressions people are supposed to show. Eye contact and gaze are also powerful nonverbal cues. The use of personal space is a nonverbal behavior with wide cultural variations. Emblems are nonverbal gestures of the hands and arms that have well-understood definitions within a given culture. Multichannel Nonverbal Communication: In everyday life, we usually receive information from multiple channels simultaneously. The Social Interpretation Task (SIT), which uses videotaped naturally occurring interactions as stimuli, reveals that people are able to interpret such cues fairly accurately by making use of multiple cues. Research with the SIT indicates that extroverts may be better decoders than introverts. Gender and Nonverbal Communication: Women are better than men at both decoding and encoding nonverbal behavior, with respect to whether people are telling the truth. Men, however, are better at detecting lies. This finding can be explained by social-role theory, which claims that sex differences in social behavior are due to society's division of labor between the sexes. Supportive evidence for this interpretation is provided by Hall (1979), who found that women's "nonverbal politeness" or attending to nonverbal cues that convey what people want others to see and ignoring nonverbal cues that leak people's true feelings. It has also been found that decoding is correlated with the degree of oppression of women in the culture. Thus, it is seen that nonverbal behavior is used to express emotion, convey attitudes, communicate personality traits, and facilitate or modify verbal communication. Among the various channels of nonverbal communication much research has been done on facial expressions.

In the following section we will discuss Darwin's theory of universal facial expressions of emotion. 4.4

Darwin's Theory of Universal Facial Expressions of Emotion How do we convey our emotions to others? One obvious way we have of doing this is by making specific facial expressions. We smile when we are happy, we frown when angry, and we may appear tearful when sad. It is remarkable that relatively small movements of the facial musculature can alter dramatically the emotion which we display to others. Our ability to both make and recognise different facial expressions is an indication of an extremely vital social skill. Investigators from a number of fields of psychology have been interested in facial expressions of emotion. Social psychologists studying person perception have often focused on the face. Recent research is examining the relative weight given to the face as compared to other sources of information, the relationship between encoding and decoding, and individual differences. Charles Darwin was the first to suggest that the main facial expressions are universal. In "The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals" (1872), he examined the facial behavior of nonhuman primates in order to find out about the origins of expressions in man. He chose this comparison with primates for they were the closest relatives to the ancestors of man and had to be therefore similar to them. According to his belief in the principles of evolution, they could therefore give a clue about the origins and development of facial movements. His findings were based on his own observations as well as on the observations of zookeepers. The result was that some facial expressions of nonhuman primates are similar to those of man including the expressions of anger, happiness and sadness. Although they share these expressions, they do not always have the same function in primate and man. For example, is the expression of happiness in man a development of the grimace that monkeys have used to signalize fear. It

is interesting to note that he not only described the various different emotional expressions in man and animals in detail, but also attempted to explain the reason for the association of a particular expression with a specific emotion, for example why we blush when we are embarrassed, or why we make a characteristic mouth movement when disgusted. He provided evidence that facial expressions of emotion are universal, i.e., that facial expressions for specific emotions are similar in many different cultures and that human emotional expressions are

universal -- that all humans encode and decode expressions in the same way. Modern research suggests that Darwin was right for the six major emotional expressions: anger, happiness, surprise, fear, disgust, and sadness. ● Face—reveals current moods/feelings. ● Eye contact—reveals friendliness, shyness, aggression. ● Body language (position, posture, movement) — reveals emotional states, status, cultural emblems. ● Touching—reveals affection, interest, dominance, caring, threat and aggression. Further, he investigated the functions of facial expressions. He concluded that facial expressions in nonhuman primates represent, like in man, feelings. Mimic, as a means of communication is essential for a species in order to regulate the social interaction within the group. By facial expressions and sounds, animals indicate if they feel attracted to each other or if they feel hostility toward each other. Additionally, Darwin investigated the determinants of facial expressions and defined them along certain universal principles. The first is the principle of serviceable associated habits meaning that behavior performed consciously in order to survive becomes unconscious with a certain state of mind. Behavior like fleeing from an enemy is then associated with fear. Unconscious performance develops by habit when fear or anger arouse. The second principle is the principle of antithesis meaning that when certain states of mind produce habitual, serviceable actions, the opposite state of mind leads to a strong tendency to produce opposite action although they are not of use. Although facial expressions are a prime source of nonverbal communication, they may sometimes be hard to interpret accurately because people may display affect blends, facial expressions where one part of the face registers one emotion and another part registers a different emotion. The fact that people sometimes try to appear less emotional than they are also makes decoding difficult. Culture also influences emotional expression; display rules that are unique to each culture dictate when different nonverbal behaviors are appropriate to display. As Darwin observed, all humans, regardless of race, use the same muscle contractions and facial movements for simple and complex emotions. These observations lend themselves to the theory that individuals who were better able to communicate through expression were more likely to reproduce and pass on their genes. Darwin further explored the facial expressions of primates and other mammals to prove the evolutionary connections between the species. Most notable are the similarities between humans and primates like the similarities between the expression of simple emotions in human and chimpanzee infants. It is now known through more in-depth evolutionary analysis that chimpanzees are the most closely related species to humans. Over the past two decades, emotion researchers have uncovered convincing data to support Darwin's contention that there are facial expressions with "universal" meanings. Studies have found that human facial structure results in the most telling facial expressions of any species. The presence of eyebrows, more visible white in the eyes, more pronounced lips and additional muscles in the faces has expanded the repertoire of expressions humans can make to articulate more complex emotions, such as love and disappointment. On the other hand, other species can only communicate simple emotions and often must use other body parts to fully express themselves. Therefore, the use of emotional expression was crucial to the development of the more complex communication that is characteristic of Homo sapiens. Although nonverbal behavior and implicit personality theories provide a guide to understanding others, there is still substantial ambiguity about why people act the way they do. Attribution theory describes the way in which

people explain the causes of their own and other people's behavior. 4.5

Attribution, Theories of Attribution and Attribution Bias

Attribution refers to the thought processes we employ in explaining the behavior of other people and our own as well.

Attribution implies an explanation for the cause of an event or behavior. Attribution theory explains how individuals pinpoint the causes of their own behavior or

that of others. We are preoccupied with seeking, constructing and testing explanations of our experiences

and to render it orderly, meaningful and predictable for adaptive action.

Fritz Heider is considered the father of attribution theory. He believed that people are like amateur scientists, trying to

understand other people's behavior by piecing together information until they arrive at a reasonable cause. He proposed a simple dichotomy for people's explanations: internal attributions, in which people infer that a person is behaving a certain way because of something about that person (e.g., a trait or attitude) versus external attributions, in which people infer that a person is behaving in a certain way because of the situation that he or she is in. Heider also noted that people seem to prefer internal attributions

The Two-Step Process of Making Attributions There are two steps involved in the process of attribution. First step: Here

people analyze another's behavior, they typically make an internal attribution automatically. Second step:

Here they

think about possible situational reasons for the behavior. After engaging in the second step, they may adjust their original internal attribution to take account of situational factors. Because this second step is more conscious and effortful, people may not get to it if they are distracted or preoccupied. People will be more likely to engage in the second step of attributional processing when they consciously think carefully before making a judgment, when they are motivated to be as accurate as possible, or if they are suspicious about the motives of the target.

Research has demonstrated that spouses in happy marriages make internal attributions for their partner's positive behaviors and external attributions for their partner's negative behaviors, while spouses in distressed marriages display the opposite pattern.

Internal and external attributions can have dramatic consequences on everyday interactions.

How you react to a person's anger may be dependent on whether you believe that they are having a bad day or that they dislike something about you - the ripples flow into the future and influence how you treat that person henceforth. Jones and Davis's (1965) correspondent inference theory explains how people infer that a person's behavior corresponds to an underlying disposition or personality trait.

Dispositional (internal) cause is preferred as it is stable and renders people's behavior more predictable and increases sense of control. Theory of Causal Attribution: According to this theory in the case of Single-Instance Observation the following principles are used in making attributions.

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on the idea that we should assign reduced weight to a particular cause of behavior if there are other plausible causes that might have produced it. Augmentation principle works on the idea that we should assign greater weight to a particular cause of behavior if there are other causes present that normally would produce the opposite outcome In the case of multiple observations the covariation principle centering on the idea that we should attribute behavior to potential causes that co-occur with the behavior is used. People act as scientists and assign causes of behavior to the factor that co-varies most closely with the behavior. The Covariation Model: The Covariation Theory assumes that people make causal attributions in a rational, logical fashion, like detectives, drawing inferences from clues and observed behaviors. By discovering covariation in people's

behavior

you are able to reach a judgment about what caused their

behavior.

The covariation model of Kelley (1967) focuses on how people decide whether to make an internal or an external attribution and on instances where there are multiple observations of behavior. It explains the attribution process as a search for information about what a particular behavior is correlated (covaries) with: When

behavior

is correlated with the Situation it is called external attribution. When behavior is correlated with the person it amounts to internal attribution The theory views people as naive scientists who analyze the world in a rational manner.

According to Kelly, in order to form an attribution about what caused a person's behavior, we note the pattern between the presence (or absence) of possible causal factors and whether or not the behavior occurs. The most fundamental observation we make about a person's behavior is whether it is due to internal or external causes (Is the behavior determined by the person's own characteristics or by the situation in which it occurs?). The possible causal factors we focus on are: (1) consensus information, or

information about the extent to which other people behave the same way

towards the same stimulus as the actor does; (2)

distinctiveness information, or information about the extent to which one particular actor behaves in the same way to different stimuli i.e., is concerned with whether the behavior occurs in other, similar situations; and (3) consistency refers to whether the behavior occurs repeatedly;. When these three sources of information combine into one of distinct patterns, a clear attribution can be made. 1. Low Consensus, Low Distinctiveness and High Consistency leads people to make an internal attribution of the actor. 2. High Consensus, High Distinctiveness, and High Consistency lead people to make an external attribution. It is something about the situation or target. 3. Finally when Consistency is Low we cannot make a clear internal or external attribution, and so resort to a special kind of external or situational attribution.

A) So when there is a Low Consensus, and High Distinctiveness, it is due to an actor and situation interaction that uniquely causes the outcome. B) When there is High Consensus, and Low Distinctiveness, it is either an actor attribution or a situational attribution. You basically don't know in this situation. Several studies have shown that people often make attributions the way Kelley's model says they should with one exception. In research studies, people don't use consensus information as much as Kelley's theory predicted; they rely more on consistency and distinctiveness information when forming attributions.

People

are most likely to make an internal attribution

when consensus and distinctiveness are low but consistency is high; they are most likely to make an external attribution when consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency are all

high.

When these dimensions are coupled with the internal and external labels

a

powerful tool comes into place to make judgments that influence decisions. For example, high consistency can be associated with both internal and external attributes, while high distinctiveness aligns with external attributes, and high consensus with internal attributes. The covariation model assumes that people make causal attributions in a rational, logical fashion. Several studies generally confirm that people can indeed make attributions in the way that these models predict, with the exception that consensus information is not used as much as Kelley's model predicts. Also, people do not always have the relevant information they need on all three dimensions. Covariation is not causation. Making co-variation judgments requires multiple observations, often this information is not available. We need to be aware that attributes are only inferences. The initial causes of behavior may never be known, what we are doing is guessing.

Attribution Theory in Education: Also, known as the Attribution Theory of Motivation, this theory describes how a person's reasons, alibis and vindications about self or others influence motivation. One of the most prominent psychologists who focused on The Attribution Theory of Education was Bernard Weiner. Mr. Weiner said that all the factors influencing achievement or motivation can be classified as effort, ability, luck and level of task difficulty. These factors mainly provide details of the things which are under or beyond our control; effort, an unstable factor on which we exercise a great deal of control; ability, a stable factor on which we do not have much control; luck, an unstable factor over which we exercise little control and level of difficulty, a stable factor which is beyond our control. **Attribution Biases :** In psychology, an attribution bias is

a cognitive bias that affects the way we determine who or what was responsible for an event or action (attribution). It is natural for us to interpret events and results as the consequences of the purposeful actions of some person or agent. This is a deep-seated bias in human perception which has been present throughout human history.

Our ancestors invariably attributed natural events like earthquakes, volcanoes, or droughts to the angry retaliation of gods. Attribution biases are triggered when people evaluate the dispositions or qualities of others based on incomplete evidence. Attribution biases typically take the form of actor/observer differences: people involved in an action (actors) view things differently from people not involved (observers). These discrepancies are often caused by asymmetries in availability (frequently called "salience" in this context).

For example, the behavior of an actor is easier to remember (and therefore more available for later consideration) than the setting in which he found himself; and a person's own inner turmoil is more available to himself than it is to someone else. As a result, our judgments of attribution are often distorted along those lines.

The attribution bias causes us to under-estimate the importance of inanimate, situational factors over animate, human factors. For instance, we might talk to a person from another country who mentions they only venture outside the house for outdoor recreation only once a week, and assume this means that they are a person who loves the indoors. However, we may be unaware that they live in a cold location where it is freezing outside for most of the season.

The fundamental attribution error (also known as correspondence bias) describes the tendency to over-value dispositional or personality-based explanations for the observed behaviors of others while under-valuing situational explanations for those behaviors. It is most visible when people explain the behavior of others. It does not explain interpretations of one's own behavior - where situational factors are often taken into consideration. This discrepancy is called the actor-observer bias.

Fundamental Attribution Error refers to the tendency to make attributions to internal causes when focusing on someone else's behavior. When looking at the behavior of others, we

tend to underestimate the impact of situational forces and overestimate the impact of dispositional forces. Most people ignore the impact of role pressures and other situational constraints on others and see behavior as caused by people's intentions, motives, and attitudes. **Self-Serving Attributions:** Self-serving attributions are explanations for one's successes that credit internal, dispositional factors and explanations for one's failures that blame external, situational factors.

Self-serving bias is a tendency to attribute one's own success to internal causes and

one's failures to external causes. This pattern is observed in the attributions that professional athletes make for their performances. It has been found that less experienced athletes, more highly skilled athletes, and athletes in solo sports are more likely to make self-serving attributions. One reason people make self-serving attributions is to maintain their self-esteem. A second reason is self-presentation, to maintain the perceptions others have of one self. A third reason is because people have information about their behavior in other situations, which may lead to positive outcomes being expected and negative outcomes being unexpected (and thus attributed to the situation). People often blame themselves for their own misfortune. Because otherwise, they would have to admit that misfortune was beyond their control, and they would be unable to avoid it in the future. Defensive attributions are explanations for behavior or outcomes (e.g., tragic events) that avoid feelings of vulnerability and mortality. One way we deal with tragic information about others is to make it seem like it could never happen to us. We do so through the belief in a just world, a form of defensive attribution wherein people assume that bad things happen to bad people and that good things happen to good people. Because most of us see ourselves as good, this reassures us that bad things will not happen to us. The belief in a just world can lead to blaming the victim for his or her misfortunes. Culture also influences attributional bias. With regard to the belief in a just world, in cultures where the belief is dominant, social and economic injustices are considered fair (the poor and disadvantaged have less because they deserve less). The just world belief is more predominant in cultures where there are greater extremes of wealth and poverty. Our attributions may not always be accurate under many circumstances. First impressions, for example, are not very accurate. However, the better we get to know someone, the more accurate we will be about them. One reason our impressions are wrong is because of the mental shortcuts we use in forming social judgments. Another reason our impressions can be wrong concerns our use of schemas, such as

relying on implicit theories of personality to judge others. Attribution errors are the most pervasive and ultimately the most destructive of the cognitive deficits. Avoiding the attribution bias can be difficult. One strategy is to simply give other people the benefit of the doubt. Another would be to inquire into the background behind the circumstances of a situation, to clarify whether a dispositional explanation is really most plausible. Yet another would be to ask oneself how one would behave in a similar situation. Eliminating the attribution bias completely seems impossible, as it is built into human nature. However, through reflective thinking, it appears possible to minimize its effects. To improve accuracy of your attributions and impressions, remember that the correspondence bias, the actor/observer difference, and defensive attributions exist and try to counteract these biases. 4.5.1 Applications of Attribution Theory Attribution theory helps us to understand why people have depression and prejudices. Attribution and Depression: Depressives have a different attributional style than non-depressives. They are often more realistic in their attributions, which may be why they are depressed! Depressed persons often show a self-defeating pattern of attributions, which is the opposite of the self-serving bias. They attribute negative outcomes to stable, internal causes and positive outcomes to temporary external causes

They are characterized by a particular attributional style - specifically, they tend to make internal-stable attributions for bad events (e.g., I can never do well in mathematics). These are the most punishing of all possible attributions. They undermine the person's self-esteem and make him/her have a dismal outlook about future performances. Depressives may have an unrealistically dark view of life. Attribution and prejudice: A prejudice is a negative belief or feeling about a particular group of individuals. Prejudices are often passed on from one generation to the next. Prejudice is a destructive phenomenon, and it is pervasive because it serves many psychological, social, and economic functions. It allows people to avoid doubt and fear. It gives people scapegoats to blame in times of trouble and can boost self-esteem. Evolutionary psychologists suggest that prejudice allows people to bond with their own group by contrasting their own groups to outsider groups. For example most religious and ethnic groups maintain some prejudices against other groups, which help to make their own group seem more special. Prejudice legitimizes discrimination because it apparently justifies one group's dominance over another. People's social identities depend on the groups they belong to. From a person's perspective, any group he belongs to is an ingroup, and any group he doesn't belong to is an outgroup. People generally have a lower opinion of outgroup members and a higher opinion of members of their own group. People who identify strongly with a particular group are more likely to be prejudiced against people in competing outgroups. Prejudices in workplaces affect how people perceive sexual harassment. Men are more likely than women to attribute blame to the victim. Changing men's attributions regarding sexual harassment may help to prevent it.

The theory also helps in criminal law to understand the psychology of criminals. In today's world, with the increase in crime and global terrorism understanding criminal psychology has become essential. 4.6

Impression Formation and Impression Management Defined Impression Formation: Impression formation deals with the processes involved in the formation of impressions about others. Impression Formation is the process through which we develop our beliefs and evaluations of other people. It refers to the process through which we combine diverse information about other persons into a united impression of them. Forming impressions about others is an elaborate cognitive process. The initial or first impressions about others are very important. It is rightly said that the "First impression is the last impression". The initial impressions we make on others will generally shape the course of our future relations with them in important ways. Once an impression is formed, it is generally resistant to change. Thus, it is necessary to be careful on first dates, interviews and other situations in which we will meet others for the first time. Large number of research studies have shown that first impressions do seem to exert a lasting effect on both social thought and social behavior (Anderson 1981, Wyer et al, 1994).

Impression Management: It is also called self-presentation. It deals with the various methods and efforts that individuals use to produce a favorable impression about himself/herself on others. We often attempt to influence others by projecting ourselves in ways which will present us in a favorable light. We often behave, act, dress and express ourselves in ways that produce favorable impressions on others. Impression Management is a skillful activity. Research on impression management has shown that people who can perform impression management successfully are often successful in many situations as they help others to form positive and good impressions about themselves. 4.6.1 Research By Solomon Asch On Central And Peripheral Traits In Impression Formation

Solomon Asch (1946) did pioneering studies in the areas of Impression formation. He was heavily influenced by the work of Gestalt Psychologists, who believed that "the whole is greater than the sum of its parts".

Like Gestalt Psychologists, Solomon Asch held the view that we do not form

impressions

simply by adding together all

of

the traits we observe in other persons. Rather,

we perceive

these traits in relation to one another, so that the traits

cease to exist individually and become, instead,

part of an integrated, dynamic whole.

Asch studied impression formation by

using a simple method.

He gave

individuals lists of traits supposedly possessed by a stranger, and then asked them to indicate their

impression of this person by

checking the

traits on a long list that they felt fit with their impression of the stranger. In one of his study participants were given the

following two lists. ● Intelligent - skilful - industrious - warm - determined - practical -

cautious. ● Intelligent - skilful - industrious - cold - determined - practical - cautious. The

above

lists differed only with respect to two words: warm and cold. Thus,

if people form impressions merely by adding together individual traits,

the impression formed by persons exposed to these lists

would not differ

very much.

The results of his study revealed that

persons

who read the list containing "warm" were much more

likely to view the stranger as generous, happy, good natured, sociable, popular, and altruistic than

were people who read the list containing "cold."

According to Asch,

the words "warm" and "cold" described central traits -- ones that strongly shaped overall impressions of the stranger and

coloured the other adjectives in the lists.

Asch obtained additional support for this view by substituting the words "polite" and "blunt" for "warm" and "cold." When he did this, the effects on participant's impressions of the stranger

were far weaker; "polite" and "blunt", it appeared, were not central words with a strong impact on first impressions. Thus,

Central traits have a stronger impact on our impressions than Peripheral Traits. In further studies, Asch varied not the content

but the order of adjectives of each list. For example: ● One group read the following list. "Intelligent - industrious - impulsive

critical- stubborn - envious". ● Another - group read: "Envious - stubborn - critical - impulsive - industrious - intelligent. In the

above list the only difference was in the order of the words on the two lists. Yet, again, there were larger differences in the

impression formed by participants. For example, while 32 per cent of those who read the first list described the stranger as

happy, only 5 per cent of those who read the second list did so. Similarly, while 52 per cent of those who read the first list

described him as humorous, only 21 per cent of those who read the second list used this adjective. Harold Kelly (1950)

replicated the studies of Solomon Asch, and found that central traits affect not only our ratings of others, but also influences

our behavior.

On the basis of many studies such as these, Asch and other researchers

concluded that: 1) Forming impressions of others involve more than simply adding together individual traits. 2)

Our perceptions of others are more than the sum of information (Traits) we know about others. 3) Individual Traits are evaluated in relation to other known Traits, and develop an overall picture where all the traits fit together consistently. 4) Impression formation is a coherent, unified and integrated process in which we take a holistic and a global view of the various traits possessed by an individual.

4.6.2 How Quickly Are First Impressions Formed? And The Role Of Schemas In Shaping First Impressions We have a general tendency to quickly form first impressions about others. These first impressions, about others, are formed quickly and without any mental effort. Recent research on impression formation has revealed that we not only form first impressions of others quickly, but also that these impressions play a strong role in our overt actions, including the important behavior of choosing between candidates for political office. Research studies by Willis and Todorov (2006) have revealed that when shown faces of strangers (male and female) individuals form first impressions of these people rapidly. In fact even exposure times of one-tenth of a second are sufficient, and increasing exposure times do not change the first impressions significantly. Thus, we form impressions of others very quickly and often on the basis of limited amounts of information (e.g. their facial appearance). This has considerable practical significance in our interpersonal relationships, business meeting and other professional relationships.

Implicit Personality Theories: Schemas that Shape First Impressions: Implicit personality theories are beliefs about what traits or characteristics are assumed to go together. For example, if someone describes a person as "helpful" and "kind" we would also assume him/her to be sincere. Similarly, if our friend describes a stranger as "practical" and "intelligent" person, we would also assume him/her to be ambitious. This is largely due to the schema we hold about people and or events. For e.g.,

in many societies, it is assumed that "what is beautiful is good " – that people who are attractive also possess other positive traits, such as good social skills and interest in enjoying good times and good things in life. Large number of research studies, especially those related to birth order and personality, reveal that

our impressions of others are often strongly shaped by our beliefs about what traits or characteristics go together. These beliefs are often so strong that we will sometimes bend our perceptions of other people to be consistent with them. We often form impressions of

others that reflect our implicit beliefs more than their actual traits. 4.6.3

Cognitive Approach To Impression Formation

The

term cognitive means perception, thinking, reasoning and other related mental processes. Impression formation is a cognitive process in which we combine available information about others into a weighted average in which each piece of information about another person is

weighted in terms of its relative importance. The various factors that influence the relative weight age are as follows. 1. The Sources of Input: The information from sources we trust or admire is weighted more heavily than information from sources we distrust (Rosenbaum and Levin, 1969). 2. Positive and Negative Nature of Information: We tend to weigh negative information about others more heavily than positive information. 3. Unusual or Extreme Behavior: The information that describes behavior or traits that are unusual or extreme are more valued and weighted. 4. Primacy Effect: Information received first tends to be weighted more heavily than information received later. Modern investigators have attempted to understand impression formation in terms of the basic knowledge of Social Cognition i.e., the ways in which we notice, store, remember and integrate social information. According to cognitive view our basic ideas about how impressions are formed and changed is influenced by two factors: Examples of the trait and mental summaries that are abstracted from repeated observations of others behaviors. We would discuss each of these briefly. ● Exemplars: It refers to concrete examples of behavior others have performed that are consistent with a given trait. According to this view, when we make judgments about others, we recall examples of their behavior and base our judgment (and our impressions) on these. For e.g., we may recall that during our first meeting with

a

person, how he/she was rude, made criticism about others, and did not cooperate with the

sick person who was with us. We will recall all these pieces of information and conclude that this person possesses the trait of "inconsideration." ● Abstractions: It refers to mental summaries that are abstracted from repeated observations of other's

behavior. According to this view, when we make judgment about others we simply bring our previously formed abstractions to mind, and then use these as the basis for our impressions and our decisions. If we have previously judged a person to be unfriendly, pessimistic, etc., we will combine these traits into an impression of this individual.

A large number of research evidence (Klein and Loftus, 1993, Klein et al., 1992) supports the view that concrete examples of behavior and mental abstractions play a role in impression formation. The nature of impressions considerably shifts as we gain increasing experience with others. Research studies by Sherman and Klein (1994) have explained how our impressions of others develop. According to them our initial impression of others consists primarily of examples of behavior they have shown that are indicative of various traits. After we have had more experience with people, however, our impressions shift towards consisting mainly of abstractions ----- mental summaries of their behavior on many occasions. In sum, existing evidence indicates that information does not occur in a cognitive vacuum. On the contrary, mental framework representing our previous experience in many social situations, and basic cognitive processes relating to the storage, recall, and integrating of social information, play a role in it. 4.6.4 Impression Management Impression Management is also called self-presentation. It can be defined as our efforts to produce favorable impressions on others. Impression Management is a skillful activity. Research studies (Schlenker 1980, Wayne and Liden, 1995) have demonstrated that people who can

perform impression management successfully often gain important advantages in many situations such as getting their work done, job promotions, increased popularity ratings, etc. Impression Management: Some Basic Tactics: The two broad tactics of impression management are as follows: a) Self-enhancement: It can be defined as efforts to boost our own self-image. There are many tactics of self-enhancement. One important tactic of self-enhancement is to improve our appearance. This can done in following ways: ● Changes in dress. ● Personal grooming (use of cosmetics, hairstyle, use of perfume). ● Use of various props (such as eye glasses). ● Judicious use of nonverbal cues.

Some additional tactics of self-enhancement include: ● Efforts to describe one in positive terms, ● Explaining how they overcame difficult obstacles, and ● How they faced certain challenges, which are not common, etc. Research studies indicate that all the above techniques work under some or other conditions. Brief summaries of some research studies using self-enhancement as an impression management technique are as follows: Women who dress in a professional manner (business suit or dress, subdued jewelry) are often evaluated more favorably for management positions than women who dress in a more traditionally feminine manner (Forsythe, Drake, and Cox, 1985). It has also been found that eyeglasses encourage the

impression of intelligence, while long hair for women or beards for men tend to reduce such impressions (Terry and Krantz, 1993). Wearing perfume or cologne can enhance first impression provided this particular grooming aid is not overdone (Baron, 1983). Most of these efforts to improve personal appearance are not potentially dangerous to the persons who use them. However, one type of effort to enhance personal appearance ---- developing a suntan ---- is potentially harmful (Broadstok Borland and Gason, 1991). Other tactics of self-enhancement pose different kinds of risks. For instance, recent research by Sharp and Getz (1996) indicates that one reason why at least some young people consume alcohol is that it gives them the right "image." In other words, they engage in such behavior partly for the

purpose of impression management. Research findings (Sharp and Getz, 1996) offer support for the view that some people do drink alcohol as a tactic of impression management to help look good in the eyes of others. b) Other – enhancement: It refers to efforts on our part to make the target person feel good in our presence. There are many ways in which we can enhance other's self esteem. Some of these are as follows:

- Flattery – heaping praise on the target person even if they don't deserve it.
- Expressing agreement with their views.
- Showing a high degree of interest in them.
- Doing small favors for them.

Expressing liking for them, either verbally or non verbally (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). A large body of research evidence suggests that efforts to engage in impression management are highly useful. It has been found that impression management can influence important judgments based on the

impression of others. Research studies by Wayne and Linden (1995) have demonstrated that impression management is a useful tactic during the first six weeks on the job. They found that the greater the extent to which the new employees engaged in other-enhancement (supervisor-focused) tactics of impression management, the more their supervisors viewed them as similar to themselves. Further, the more the employees engaged in self-enhancement tactics, the more their supervisors liked them. Most important, increased liking and feeling of similarity were strong predictors of performance ratings; the more supervisors liked their subordinates and felt similar to them, the higher they rated their performance. These findings and those of many other studies (e.g Wayne and Kacmar, 1991; Paulhus, Bruce, and Trapnell, 1995)

indicate that impression management tactics often do succeed in enhancing the appeal of persons who use them. 4.6.5

Impression Management by Marginalized Persons: The Case of Hijras In India Many marginalized individuals especially hijras and gays have received considerable media attention in India in recent years. They have also raised many issues highlighting their identity and problems. Some have projected them in a favorable light. Many Hijras have contested elections and have defeated prominent Congress and BJP candidates. Research studies have revealed that marginalized persons can face conservative backlash if they reach positions of power through successful impression management. The plight of these marginalized groups, especially hijras and gays have received considerable media attention and some award winning movies have also been made. One such movie is "welcome to Sajjanpur" in which is depicted as to how a character Munnibai contests and wins elections.

Gay individuals, through legal process as well as through media representations has highlighted their plights from time to time and have achieved considerable privileges in terms of increased sympathy, legal protection from courts, increased support from the general public. 4.7

Interpersonal Attraction and Close Relationships In society it can be observed that individuals either get attracted towards each other or do not get attracted. Interpersonal attraction leads to further communication among two or more people.

Interpersonal attraction can be determined by some internal as well as external factors. As a social being we have a need for affiliation. Coupled with the need to be affiliated, emotional response plays a significant role in interpersonal attraction. A positive emotional state leads to a smoother interpersonal attraction and a negative emotional state can lead to

repulsion of some one. There are external determinants in interpersonal attraction like similarity among individuals, physical proximity and the mutual responding. Further, interpersonal attraction leads to formation of relationships. Generally close relations can be categorized into members in the family and the friends from our social milieu. Family is the place where relationships build. These relationships or attachment styles are different for every individual. The attachment styles formed during the interactions with the family can get generalized to the relationships outside the family i.e., spouse, friends and others. 4.7.1

Internal Determinants of Attraction: The Need to Affiliate and the Basic Role of Affect The importance of affiliation for human existence:

Human beings have the basic need to be part of a group, be affiliated and accepted by someone. There are certain internal factors that drive this behavior. This behavior has a survival value of being protected, reproduction and health interdependence. Need for affiliation is the basic motive to seek and maintain interpersonal relationships. It is observed that there are individual differences in expression of need for affiliation. It is like a personality trait which reflects

a person's preferences for need for affiliation. Some may like to affiliate at some time and in particular context and some may not. People with

a high need for affiliation will be more sociable and will desire to interact with others. This appears to be a conscious expression of affiliation. However, some may have

an implicit need for affiliation and would like to be primarily interested in limited two person interaction situations.

It is

a very unpleasant experience to be excluded and ignored. It gives a left-out and neglected feeling as

a reaction to be excluded. This kind of behavior in society generates adverse effects on the individual or group that is excluded. This kind of deprivation results in sensitivity to interpersonal information and cognitive functioning. There are certain situations and contexts where the

need for affiliation is clearly evident. During natural disasters it can be seen that people help each other. This behavior is seen because it provides an opportunity for social comparison. An opportunity to communicate what they feel and think further, generating an experience

of comfort. 4.7.2 Affect as a Basic Response System Affect refers to the emotional state of a person, his positive and negative feelings and moods. It is understood that the

emotional state of a person influences his cognition and emotion as well as the interpersonal attraction. Affect has two basic characteristics: one is the intensity of the "affect", indicating its strength and second is the direction of the emotion, regarding the positive or negative emotion. Affect is considered as a basic aspect of human behavior because it has survival value from the evolutionary perspective. It helps us in avoiding the negative experiences as well as reinforcing positive experiences. The ability to discriminate between positive and negative "affect" serves an important purpose to understand hostility and attraction in social situations. Hence, affect stands as an important internal determinant of interpersonal attraction. 4.7.3 Affect and attraction The role of affect in interpersonal attraction suggests that the positive affect will lead to positive evaluation of other people and negative affect will lead to negative evaluation of the other person. In this manner a direct effect of emotion on attraction is observed. However, a more interesting phenomenon is referred to as

an

associated effect, this effect occurs when another person is simply present in that situation when your emotional state is aroused by some situation or by some person. For example when you are emotionally in

a positive state you will evaluate a person positively, even though he is a stranger and will negatively evaluate a friend in a negative state. This can be understood as a form of classical conditioning where a neutral stimulus paired with a positive

stimulus elicits a positive response and vice versa.

4.7.4 Additional Implication

of the Affect-attraction Relationship

Some applications or implicit relationship between affect and attraction can be observed in daily life situations. Laughter leads to a positive evaluation among individuals in a first interaction. Because something humorous happening makes the "affect" positive and further distracts from the discomfort of the situation and gives

a new perspective to the situation. It is also seen that this understanding leads to manipulating affect to influence behavior. For example, arousing positive "affects" and associating it with some product in an advertisement is very much evident. A political leader can be more humorous and arouses a positive emotional state further leading to attracting the voters. 4.7.5 External Determinants Of Attraction: Proximity And Other Observable Characteristics The power of proximity: unplanned contacts : One of the important external determinants of interpersonal attraction is physical closeness. Interpersonal attraction increases as a result of physical proximity and is referred to as mere repeated exposure effect. For example in a classroom students sitting beside each other are more likely to make positive evaluations just because of repeated exposure. Another example would be of people working in

the same office, where mere physical exposure leads to attraction. The mechanism underlying is that with repeated exposure uncertainty reduces and increases the familiarity in the absence of any harmful consequences resulting in feelings of being safe. Repeated exposure leads to stronger positive evaluation even when the person is not aware of the exposure. The positive "affect" generated due to repeated exposure can get generalized to other new stimuli. It is also understood that initial negative reaction to the stimulus leads to negative evaluation and repeated exposure leads to adding in to the continuous negative evaluation of the stimulus. Application of the knowledge regarding the effect of proximity can help us in

a variety of life situations. If you are in class and prefer to have friends or prefer isolation then you can choose the place to sit in the classroom accordingly. We can also make out how interpersonal attraction gets affected by the structure of the residential complex we live

in. Observable characteristics: instant evaluations: Instant likes and dislikes are seen to be arousing a strong "affect" suggesting a phenomenon that goes against the repeated proximity effect. It is possible because something about the person is responsible to elicit a positive or negative affect. Affect is considered to be based on the past experiences, stereotypes and our attributions. These aspects of a person could be incorrect or irrelevant. However, it is seen that these aspects influence an individual's instant evaluations of other people or situations. The other observable characteristics like physical attractiveness and appearance play an important role. Physical attractiveness is a phenomenon that ranges from being evaluated as beautiful or handsome to one extreme and unattractive at the other extreme. It is observed that people do respond positively to a person who is physically attractive and negatively to the person who is physically unattractive. Hence, physical attractiveness is considered as an initial factor that influences positive or negative evaluations. Appearance anxiety is the apprehension of one's own appearance and possible negative evaluation by other people. One's own negative evaluation can lead to negative self- image and decreased self-esteem. However, stereotypes based on appearance are not necessarily correct. For example, it is generally accepted but not necessary that a physically attractive person will be social and have a high self-esteem and a physically unattractive person will be asocial. The question arises that physical attractiveness is exactly constituted of what? It is understood that child-like features and mature features are seen as characteristics of attractiveness. 4.7.6

Factors Based on Interacting with Others: Similarity and Mutual Liking

The above discussion clearly indicates that interpersonal attraction or beginning of any relationship is influenced by the need for affiliation, positive affect (positive emotional state), physical proximity and the positive evaluation or reaction to the observable characteristic of the other person. These are the internal and external salient features of the attraction phenomenon. However, the verbal communication that takes place among the two individuals is equally very important. There are two aspects of this communication one the similarity which the interacting individuals found among each other and the mutual liking expressed in the interaction. Similarity: It is a well accepted fact that people like to be with persons who are more similar to them. Similarity can be of attitudes, beliefs, values and many more things. The tendency to respond positively

to indications that another person is similar to them and negatively to indications that another person is dissimilar from them is referred

to

as similarity-dissimilarity effect. The similarity effect also makes one judge the similar person having positive traits. More the proportion of similarity among two people, more possibility of attraction can be expected. An idea that was proposed as an alternative to similarity-dissimilarity hypothesis is that rather than people getting attracted on the basis of similarity it is opposite of that, people repulse about dissimilarity. This is referred to as the

repulsion hypothesis. This hypothesis could not stand on empirical ground but it is believed that not only similarity but the dissimilarity among two people generates negative affect and hence influences interpersonal attraction. Research literature provides three theoretical explanations for the phenomenon that similarity generates positive affect and dissimilarity produces negative affect. First is the balance theory which states that people have a tendency to organize their likes and dislikes in a

symmetrical way. When people like each other and find similarity among each other, this generates a balance and elicits a positive emotional state which is a pleasant state of mind. When people like each other and find dissimilarity between them, this generates imbalance which is an unpleasant emotional state. This situation drives the individual to restore balance by either changing one of them for similarity or misperceiving the dissimilarity or deciding to dislike each other. The non-balance occurs whenever two people dislike each other, this does not necessarily generate a

pleasant or unpleasant state. Each person can be just indifferent to each other's similarity and dissimilarity. Second is the social comparison theory. It states that you compare your attitude, views and beliefs with other people as this is the only way to evaluate whether other people agree with you or not. Through this process you keep on evaluating that you are not exceptionally different from other people. This is referred to

as obtaining consensual validation by turning to others. The third approach is to explain this phenomenon by adaptive response to potential danger. This is an evolutionary explanation, which states that we are primed to respond like our ancestors as they used to respond to the individual from another group by moving towards him-for friendship, moving away from him because of some threat and moving against him-being aggressive towards him. This indicates that these behaviors have survival value. Till now our discussion is centered on the fact that affect is central to interpersonal attraction, especially similarity as it elicits positive emotional state and fosters attraction. However, along with affective state the cognitive evaluation is also said to be equally important. Though we follow

an affect centered understanding for interpersonal attraction the role of cognitive factors like stereotypes, beliefs and the factual knowledge needs to be considered. Mutual liking: It will not give us a complete understanding if we ignore a very important process which mediates initial attraction and the established interpersonal relationship. The intention is to refer to the reciprocating cues of liking. The exchange of communicating the likings that leads to generation of positive emotional states. The next in the process is the clear communication of mutual liking which further strengthens mutual liking. 4.8 Close Relationships: Family and Friends Family: where relationships and attachment styles begin: Family is the immediate social unit of an individual in a given society. This is the first experience of interaction. However, there may be relatively quantitative and qualitative differences between the individual and his or her family members. First interaction begins with the caregiver, especially the mother. These interactions shape an individual's world. It has a lasting impact on an individual's future interpersonal behavior.

The degree of security an individual feels in interpersonal relationships is called attachment style. It is understood that an infant develops two basic attitudes as a result of these early interpersonal interactions with adults. These are self-esteem, which is an attitude towards self and second is interpersonal trust, which is an attitude towards others. Development of self-esteem is dependent on the reactions of the caregiver of being important, valued, and loved or the other extreme of being unimportant, unloved, etc. Interpersonal trust is dependent upon being trustworthy, dependable and reliable or the other extreme of this. On the basis of these two basic attitudes and they being high or low can be placed in four types of interpersonal styles as given below: a. Secure attachment style b. Fearful- avoidant attachment style c. Preoccupied attachment style d. Dismissing attachment style Secure attachment style: A secure attachment style is a characteristic of an individual who is high on both self-esteem and interpersonal trust. Person with this type of attachment style is

found to be good at relationships, self-confidence, high on need for achievement and has less fear of failure are other characteristics of secure attachment style. Fearful- avoidant attachment style: This type of attachment style is a result of low self-esteem and interpersonal trust. A person with fearful-avoidant attachment style is poor at interpersonal relationships and also avoids close relationships. Preoccupied attachment style: A negative attitude towards oneself and a high interpersonal trust results in

a

preoccupied attachment style. These types of people are ready to get into interpersonal relationships but are often found to be pessimistic about their relationships. Dismissing attachment style: This type of attachment style is an outcome of high self esteem and low interpersonal trust. Individuals with this attachment style avoid genuine close relationships. They feel insecure due to the belief that they deserve a close relationship but are frustrated because of the mistrust towards others. The above mentioned are the four basic attachment styles as result of the variations in the attitude towards self and others. These attachment styles are assumed to be formed in infancy and continue in adult life, however, certain life experiences can influence and change the attachment style of an individual. It's not only the mother who influences the child. In a given family the presence of others and interaction with them definitely have an impact on the child. Every member in the family has different experiences, different personalities and attitudes. Every interaction of each member of the family with the child is likely to have positive or negative effects. The point is that it is not only the immediate care taker but the interactions with the entire family can influence the child. Interaction among siblings is also a significant factor. There can be

a variety of situations like; single child, two siblings-either both male and female or a combination. These variations can result in different experiences with people outside the home. However, it is observed that relationships among siblings are also dependent upon the interpersonal relation among parents and their marital satisfaction. Beyond the family: friendships: Family where relationships begin and attachment styles develop generally have close relationships among themselves. However, close relationships extend beyond family. A close friendship is

a relationship where people spend a great deal of time together, interact in a variety of situations, are self-disclosing and provide mutual and emotional support. Having friends or not has become a social qualification and a loner is described as

a person having no friends. Friends are an integral part of our life. It is seen as a source of practical and emotional support. Generally it can be understood that the individuals who elicit positive effects can become close friends. Gender difference is seen in friendships. We will find two females discussing more on the topics of their interests than males. It is observed that male gets attracted towards females thinking that eventually their relationship will result in sexual interactions, if not then males eventually end the relationship. In contrast females look for protective roles from males and eventually end the relationship if she finds nothing as expected in the relationship. 4.9

Unit Summary •

Social

perception is defined as the study of how we form impressions of and make inferences about other people. In order to know about other people, we depend on information gained from their physical appearance, and verbal and nonverbal communication. •

Nonverbal communication is one of the many interesting topics studied by social psychology. Social psychologists view it as an essential element of social perception. Although there are many other forms of nonverbal communication, the term usually means conveying thoughts and/or feelings without words using body language or sounds as the medium. •

Charles Darwin was the first to suggest that the main facial expressions are universal. In "The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals" (1872), he examined the facial behavior of nonhuman primates in order to find out about the origins of expressions in man. •

Fritz Heider is considered the father of attribution theory. He believed that people are like amateur scientists, trying to understand other people's behavior by piecing together information until they arrive at a reasonable cause. •

Impression Formation: Impression formation deals with the processes involved in the formation of impressions about others. Impression Formation is the process through which we develop our beliefs and evaluations of other people. It refers to the process through which we combine diverse information about other persons into a united impression of them.

Impression Management: It is also called self-presentation. It deals with the various methods and efforts that individuals use to produce a favorable impression about himself/herself on others. We often attempt to influence others by projecting ourselves in ways which will present us in a favorable light. 4.10

Key Terms Attribution is a term used in psychology which deals with how individuals perceive the causes of everyday experience, as being either external or internal. Models to explain this process are called attribution theory. Interpersonal attraction as a part of social psychology is the study of the attraction between people which leads to the development of platonic or romantic relationships. It is distinct from perceptions such as physical attractiveness, and

involves views of what is and what is not considered beautiful or attractive. 4.11

Check Your Progress 1) Define the term "Social Perception". 2) What are different channels of nonverbal communication? 3) What does Darwin's Theory of Universal Facial Expression of Emotion say? 4) What did you understand about "Attribution". What are the theories of Attribution and Attribution Bias? 5) Define both the terms: Impression formation and Impression Management. 6) What is interpersonal attraction?

Unit 5: Social Motives & Social Learning 5.0 Introduction 5.1 Unit Objective 5.2 Social Motives 5.2.1 Understanding Social Motivation 5.2.2 How Patterns of Interdependence Shape Social Motivation 5.2.3 Transformation of Motivation 5.2.4 Habitual Transformations: Social Orientations 5.3 Social Learning 5.3.1 Cognition and Social Learning 5.3.2 Enactive and Vicarious Learning 5.3.3 Four Conditions Necessary for Social Learning 5.3.4 Albert Bandura And The Bobo Doll 5.3.5 Modeling 5.3.6 Models and Social Learning 5.3.7 Implications 5.3.8 Helping Students Develop Positive Behaviors 5.3.9 Using Social Learning Theory to Enhance Teaching and Learning 5.4 Socialization 5.4.1 Processes and Agents of Socialization 5.4.1.1 The Family 5.4.1.2 The Peer Group 5.4.1.3 The Mass Media 5.4.2 Adult Socialization 5.4.3 Aggressive Behavior 5.4.3.1 Defining Aggression 5.4.3.2 Theories Of Aggression 5.4.4 Prosocial Behavior 5.4.4.1 Why People Help – Motives Behind Prosocial Behavior 5.4.4.2 Personality Variables Associated With Prosocial Behavior 5.4.4.3 Responding To An Emergency 5.4.4.4 Crucial Steps Determine Helping And Non-Helping 5.5 Unit Summary 5.6

Key Terms 5.7 Check Your Progress 5.0 Introduction Social motives are the psychological processes that drive people's thinking, feeling and behavior in interactions with other people. Because social situations confront people with the preferences and needs of others, and not just their own, they require a broader perspective in which the interests of others are incorporated. Humans learn to speak, use tools, and to behave appropriately in social situations mostly by observing and imitating others. This is the essence of social learning theory (sometimes called observational learning). 5.1 Unit Objective This Unit shall inform the learners on: • Social Motives • Social Learning • Socialization • Prosocial Behavior 5.2 Social Motives Social motives are the psychological processes that drive people's thinking, feeling and behavior in interactions with other people. Because social situations confront people with the preferences and needs of others, and not just their own, they require a broader perspective in which the interests of others are incorporated. Social motives reflect the way people value these interests in relation to their own. How they do so has a crucial impact on their understanding of the interaction and on the decisions they make within its context. For this reason, understanding social motivation is crucial for understanding social interactions. This entry explains how social motivation may be shaped by the features of the people who compose the interaction and the features of the interaction situation. It addresses how social motives may affect social behavior and, finally, explains social orientations or (fairly) stable tendencies toward particular social motives. 5.2.1 Understanding Social Motivation In social life, people are continuously confronted with situations in which their individual preferences or interests are different from, or even opposed to, the interests of others. Consider, for example, interactions in close relationships, at the workplace, or on the larger societal level. In many of these situations, actions that correspond with individual preferences are incompatible with those of others. For example, one's partner may not share one's preference for symphonic heavy-metal music. One's friends may not share one's preference for showing up late at appointments. And a society's environmental policy may not correspond with one's preference for long showers. In each of these cases, the actions that are dictated by one individual's motives are incompatible with, or even harmful to, the interests of others. These examples illustrate why it is necessary for people to reinterpret such situations in terms of social implications in order to navigate their social lives effectively. Social situations require that individuals move beyond their individual interests and understanding of the situation to a social perspective on the interaction. This means reinterpreting the situation to consider its implications for others, in addition to for oneself, and deciding how to value their interests, relative to one's self-interest. The relative importance one assigns to the interests of oneself and others constitutes one's social motives within the interaction. The following major motives are typically cited: • Self-interest or maximizing one's personal outcome without any concern for the interests of others • Competition or maximizing the difference between one's personal outcome and the outcomes of others • Cooperation or maximizing the joint outcomes of oneself and others • Equality or minimizing differences between the outcomes of oneself and others • Altruism or maximizing the outcomes of others without any concern for one's personal outcome As a result of this evaluation process, people may shift from an individual interpretation of the situation, and from individual goals, to a social interpretation of the same situation, and to social

goals. For example, one might decide to go to a concert that one's partner likes, too (equality), to leave earlier for an appointment (altruism), or to moderate one's time in the shower (cooperation) – even though none of these behaviors matches one's initial, individual preference. Although a range of possible motives may exist, they will not be relevant to every interaction. Rather, the features of the situation, in combination with the preferences and needs of the individuals therein, determine the type of challenge the interaction represents and the motives that are relevant to it. For example, if people share the same goal, the situation is unlikely to evoke selfishness or competition, and a competitive setting, like a sports match, is unlikely to evoke altruism. To better understand how the features of the interaction may shape people's social motives, I turn to interdependence theory.

5.2.2 How Patterns of Interdependence Shape Social Motivation

Interdependence theory understands social motives as the product of the features of interacting persons and those of the situation in which they interact. Together, these features determine the challenges the parties are faced with and the motives that therefore are relevant to their interaction. To understand this process, the theory advances a classification system by which interaction situations can be analyzed according to six key dimensions. First, level of dependence indicates the extent to which people are exclusively dependent on the interaction (and the interaction partner(s)) for their needs or outcomes. In effect, this dimension defines whether persons have alternatives by which to fulfill their needs outside of the interaction or are fully dependent on it. Interactions on which one is highly dependent (e.g., romantic relationships) tend to evoke a longer-term orientation, which serves to perpetuate the relationship and the fulfillment of one's needs. Thereby, interactions characterized by high dependence can evoke motives like cooperation and altruism, while interactions characterized by low dependence may evoke motives like selfishness. Mutuality of dependence indicates whether each person's dependence on the interaction is balanced or not. That dependence can be equal (i.e., both persons depending much or little on each other) but also unequal (i.e., one person is more dependent on the other). In a context of unequal dependence, the less-dependent person can display motives like selfishness or altruism. In contrast, interactions on which both parties depend are conducive to motives like cooperation and equality. Basis of dependence indicates which person controls the outcomes of the interaction, that is, whether people can influence their own outcomes or whether the outcomes are controlled by the other. In case of partner control (e.g., the love one receives from one's partner in a close relationship), people cannot fulfill their own needs and rely completely on each other. This tends to evoke exchange-based strategies (e.g., iteratively benefiting or harming each other). In contrast, in case of joint control (e.g., buying a house with one's partner), neither person has exclusive control over the other, and each therefore must compromise, which evokes cooperation. Correspondence of outcomes refers to whether people's preferences or needs correspond or conflict in the interaction. In situations where each person's needs correspond (i.e., both persons want the same outcome) no tension exists, and motives like cooperation and equality are likely to emerge. In contrast, in settings where each person's needs are opposed, their interests are irreconcilable, and motives like selfishness and competition are likely to dominate. Particularly interesting are interactions between these extremes, where people's interests are neither completely in line nor completely opposed. Mixed-motive situations like these can evoke both cooperative and competitive motives. Decisions in such interactions, therefore, are particularly indicative of people's personality and their social orientations. Temporal structure reflects whether the interaction represents a single event (e.g., an interaction with a stranger) or is part of an extended interaction (e.g., interactions between romantic partners). Temporal structure can have a powerful impact on people's motives. In single interactions, motives apply exclusively to the present interaction, and there is no direct need to consider future consequences. Such contexts therefore evoke motives like selfishness, targeted at attaining the best possible outcome for oneself (e.g., negotiating the best possible price). In contrast, interactions that are extended are part of a sequence of interactions, such that current decisions will also affect the future of the relationship with the other. Here, people's motives are also shaped by considerations beyond the present situation, such as long term strategies and goals. This often evokes more cooperative and strategic motives, whereby immediate self-interest is sacrificed for better, long-term outcomes. Finally, information refers to the extent to which people possess complete and accurate information within the interaction. This dimension primarily conveys the extent to which people understand or misunderstand each other's dependence (for example, their reliance on the relationship, potential alternatives, felt control), goals and motives. But it can also refer to uncertainty in a broader sense (i.e., the scope of mistakes or misunderstanding). Incomplete information can evoke selfishness and distrust. More generally, it may obscure the relationship between people's motives and their actions, as their decisions may produce different outcomes than they intended.

5.2.3 Transformation of Motivation

What does this, admittedly complex, classification system reveal about social motives? Importantly, by explaining how the structure of an interaction shapes or constrains motivation, it identifies the motives relevant to a specific interaction and thus expressible within it. The next step is to understand how the context may be meshed with people's preferences and needs to form their social motives within the interaction – a process called transformation of motivation, which is attributed to Kelley and Thibaut. Transformation of motivation refers to the process by which people expand their initial, self-centered interpretation of an interaction (i.e., the given structure of the situation – the options and outcomes that would suit their individual goals best, irrespective of the consequences for others) to a social interpretation, which contains its meaning for others and for people's long-term strategies or goals. Depending on how people value these considerations in relation to their immediate self-interest, the result is a re-interpretation of the situation according to its meaning for their social goals (i.e., the effective structure of the situation – the options and outcomes that would suit their social preferences best). Following this transformation, actions that would benefit one's personal needs may seem unappealing, but actions that may be suboptimal (or even detrimental) to one's immediate self-interest now may be preferred, as they may better satisfy one's social goals.

To illustrate, consider the earlier example of going to a concert with one's partner. Should transformation of this situation favor one's interests over the partner's (e.g., one really wants to see the symphonic heavy-metal band, and whether one's partner will have a good time is less important), this situation is likely to evoke selfish motives, which will best be satisfied by going to the concert. In the event that transformation values the partner's interests as much as one's own (e.g., one also wants one's partner to have a good time), the situation is likely to evoke cooperative motives, which will best be satisfied by visiting a different concert that also appeals to the partner. Here, transformation therefore leads one to prefer an outcome that in fact is adverse to one's immediate self-interest. What if the situation does not afford outcomes that match one's preferences? For example, imagine having a nasty fight with one's partner and wanting to deny him or her a good time subsequently (i.e., to act spitefully). If the partner generally likes to go to concerts, this situation is unlikely to produce outcomes that are truly negative for him or her (i.e., the situation does not provide the opportunity for spite). In this case, spite is likely to be manifested as selfishness: Although one's self-interest may no longer be important in the present context, the symphonic heavy-metal concert is the least desirable option for one's partner – and thus will be the most personally appealing. Therefore, when one's preferences are not directly afforded by the situation, people's transformations will favor the outcomes that best approach their outcome preferences. In sum, by understanding social motives as the product of the structure of the situation, the features of the partner, and one's own preferences, it is possible to explain why the same individual may pursue different motives in different interactions in his or her life and may display behaviors that, at first glance, seem inconsistent.

5.2.4 Habitual Transformations: Social Orientations

Although I have primarily discussed social motives as a product of a specific interaction, people's social motives are also shaped by their experiences or history of interaction. The idea that people may adapt to their prior experiences means that people may consistently display particular motives in repeated interactions with specific partners (e.g., self-sacrifice for one's children). However, it also means that people may display a general tendency toward specific motives across a range of situations and interaction partners. Such motives are defined as social orientations. Social orientations represent fairly stable preferences for specific types of outcomes in one's interactions with others. They are adaptations that result from one's upbringing and one's history of interactions. The outcome of this process is that people may habitually transform their social interactions according to a particular perspective (for example, interpreting them in terms of their self-interest or in terms of their meaning for the collective) and thus may display consistent preferences and behaviors across a range of situations and partners. The concept that has been studied most extensively in relation to social orientations is social value orientation (SVO), which distinguishes between people with a consistent preference for maximizing their self-interest, irrespective of consequences for others (an individualistic orientation), people who seek to maximize joint interest and equality in outcomes (a prosocial orientation), and people who seek to maximize their advantage over others (a competitive orientation). These types of orientation have been shown to have substantial stability and to predict behaviors across a range of situations, such as social dilemmas, negotiations, workplace behavior, donations to charitable causes, volunteering, pro-environmental behavior, and political preferences. So-called prosocials show greater cooperativeness and self-sacrifice than do those with the other orientations. Note, however, that SVOs are only relevant to situations that afford the motives (cooperation, selfishness, and competition) they correspond to. Even then, their expression may be contingent on other factors, such as partner impressions or behavior, interaction history, and so forth. For this reason, recent models of SVO characterize these orientations more as probabilities that people will display specific motives – a conceptualization that acknowledges that preferences may not be absolute and unchangeable, and that not everyone may hold the same orientation to the same degree.

5.3 Social Learning

Humans learn to speak, use tools, and to behave appropriately in social situations mostly by observing and imitating others. This is the essence of social learning theory (sometimes called observational learning). This theory falls under the category of behaviorism because it involves observing the behaviors of others and the rewards and punishments that result from those behaviors. Future behaviors are then based on these observations as we learn from vicarious reinforcement and punishment.

5.3.1 Cognition and Social Learning

Cognition plays a part in social learning in the form of expectations. After observing a model we expect that if we behave in the same way we will get rewarded or punished similarly. Instead of having to go through the long trial and error learning (incremental learning) where we gradually eliminate the incorrect responses, we are able to benefit immediately from observing the success or failure of others (insightful learning). Some prefer the term, social cognitive learning theory. Here learning is defined as a change in mental processes that creates the capacity to demonstrate different behaviors that occur as a result of observing others.

5.3.2 Enactive and Vicarious Learning

Social learning involves learning vicariously. Vicarious learning occurs when we learn by imitating or observing others. Enactive learning occurs when we learn by doing. We learn best when both are combined: observe others and learn by doing. In the classroom, this would mean that students would be able to observe somebody engaged in academic or social tasks and then be given chances to experiment or apply what they have learned.

5.3.3 Four Conditions Necessary for Social Learning

There are four conditions necessary for social learning to take place.

1. Attention. Learners need to pay attention to the behavior to be learned. In a classroom, teachers sometimes have to point out specific behaviors. "Boys and girls, did you notice how ..." Also, teachers sometimes ask for students to look for specific behaviors. "When you go into the lunchroom I want you to notice how the 6 th grade class . . ." When I was coaching wrestling I would often call attention to salient elements of a move before the demonstration. "When Rory does the single leg takedown, notice how he ..."

2. Retention. The observer must be able to remember what was observed later when given opportunities to act. Posters with reminder, concept maps, and graphic organizers are all ways to call attention to salient elements. Also, verbal reminders can be used. "We're going to the library. Let's remember the three important things we learned about ..."

3. Production. Observers must be given opportunities to reproduce the behavior. Also, observers must be able to reproduce the behavior. That is, the behavior must be proximal. For example, I could watch Tiger Woods swing a golf club, but since it is beyond my capabilities to reproduce that behavior, it would not be a very effective learning situation. Likewise, I could have an expert tap dancer come into a 3rd grade classroom and model dancing; but again, since it would not be possible for most of them to reproduce the behavior, it would not be a very effective learning situation.

4. Motivation. The observer must be motivated to act. That means that the observer must value the behavior or the rewards that behavior may bring about and that observer must expect to see some sort of reinforcement as a result of the behavior.

5.3.4 Albert Bandura And The Bobo Doll One of the classic studies in psychology related to social learning was conducted by Albert Bandura and colleagues (Bandura, Ross, & Ross, 1961). Here, children were shown a film where adults interacted aggressively (hitting, punching, and kicking), with an inflatable toy known as a Bobo doll. Children were put into four different groups: Group 1 watched a film version where the adult was rewarded for the aggressive behavior. Group 2 watched a film version where the adult was punished for the aggressive behavior. Group 3 watched a film version where the adult had no consequences for the aggressive behavior. Group 4 was the control group. They did not watch any films. Results After watching the film, children were put in a room in which there was a Bobo doll. The results showed that children who saw the adult rewarded for aggressive behavior (Group 1) were more likely to behave aggressively when compared to the other groups. Children who saw the adult punished for aggressive behavior (Group 2) were less likely to behave aggressively when compared to the other groups. This study demonstrates that children's future behaviors are strongly influenced by observing (a) the behavior of adults and (b) how these behaviors are rewarded and punished for their behaviors. Figure 5.1: Bobo doll and aggression.

5.3.5 Modeling Modeling in this context refers to behavioral, cognitive, and affective changes that occur as a result of observing one or more models. There are three types of modeling: The first type of modeling is where you attempt to directly imitate another's behavior. This is called direct modeling. For example, Sam saw Mary study and how she studied. He saw that she got A's on most of her exams. Sam wanted to be as successful. He began to study in the same way that Mary did. The second type of modeling is where you imitate the behaviors of characters in movies, books, video games, or on television. This is called symbolic modeling. This occurs frequently with teenagers and the various media they consume. For example, Phil began talking and dressing the way characters do on his favorite TV show. The third type of modeling where you take bits and pieces from a variety of models. This is called synthesized modeling. For example, Harvey was a beginning teacher. He took ideas and modeled his teaching style from a variety of teachers that he observed during student teaching and his first year of teaching.

5.3.6 Models and Social Learning Gerrig and Zimbardo (2008) identified the following variables as being important in determining how much influence a model will have:

- Status of the model. The model is perceived positively, liked, and respected. Models with high prestige and who are older or more powerful are more apt to influence observational learning.
- Similarity of the model. There are perceived similarities between the model and the observer.
- Potential for modeling. The model's behavior is within the observer's range of competence to imitate the behavior. That is, they have the capacity to imitate the task.
- Perceived competence of the model. Observers are more likely to imitate behaviors in others they perceive as competent. If you were looking to imitate somebody's golf swing, you would find a golfer who is very good.
- Reinforcing consequences. The model gets rewarded or punished for the behavior.
- Noticeable behavior. The model's behavior stands out against the background of competing models.

5.3.7 Implications Children learn by watching the actions and responses of others, particularly older students and adults. As well, they learn customs and social skills and they begin to develop and internalize their own values. This is supported by Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development characterizes thinking as moving from outside in as children take on the thought patterns of their culture and environment. Social learning can be used to help students develop positive behaviors as part of a classroom management plan and to enhance the teaching and learning of academic subjects and skills.

5.3.8 Helping Students Develop Positive Behaviors How do you provide positive role models that reflect the lives and experiences of all students? One simple way to do this is to have an abundance of high quality books that include characters with positive character traits. These books should have an equal number of male and female lead characters that are similar in age and circumstance to the students who are reading them. Books also enable students to see the logical consequences of negative behavior without having to

experience the circumstances. However, this should not involve moralizing or propaganda. This often has the opposite intended effect. Also, model the behaviors you wish to see. For effective modeling make sure that the four essential conditions exist; attention, retention, production, and motivation. Remember also that as a classroom teacher your interactions are being watched. If your interactions demonstrate respect for your students and other teachers, these attitudes are more likely to be reflected by your students. Children learn what they live. 5.3.9 Using Social Learning Theory to Enhance Teaching and Learning Below are four simple ways to use social learning theory to enhance teaching and learning: 1. Student demonstrations. Look for students who do a particular skill well. Allow them to demonstrate to others or teach in small groups. 2. Social interaction. Create learning experiences that utilize social interaction. This could include structured conversations, cooperative learning, T-talks, moral dilemmas, or problem solving activities related to curriculum content in which students are able to work together and hear the thinking and reasoning of others. 3. Multiage classrooms. Multiage classrooms contain two or three grade levels within a single class. This creates a variety of opportunities for many forms of social learning to occur. 4. Cognitive modeling. Use cognitive modeling to teach complex skills or processes. Here a teacher thinks aloud while demonstrating a skill. Cognitive modeling is the process of making your thinking visible. For example, Ms. Haroldson is teaching students how to read a textbook. She thinks out loud as she goes through each step so students know exactly what she is doing and why. 5.4 Socialization What is socialization? In physiological sense, a new born baby is a complete human being but socially that baby is nothing more than just a bundle of biological substance whose only claim to superiority over the flowers in the garden or the chicken in the poultry is that it is capable of making interpretable noises. When it is hungry or thirsty it screams in a particular way. When it feels too cold or too hot it cries in another particular way. Generally, every baby cry has a specific meaning but it is

only pediatricians who can interpret them. At least that is what they claim but whether the claim is valid or not, it is generally known that the infant is completely helpless and has to depend totally on others for its needs. However, by the time this baby becomes a teenager all those physical and social competences have become history because he must have learnt so many things and has become fully human. He must have learnt two or more languages and can now communicate with others orally instead of crying. He also by now knows that the sun always rises in the morning and sets in the evening and that since he must rest as long as the sun remains set, he tries to play as much of the roles society demands of him within the period the sun is up. In other words, as the child grows into adulthood he gradually learns and internalizes a lot of empirical facts about his physical and social environment; he gradually learns and internalizes a variety of skills and bodies of knowledge; he acquires attitudes and values some of which relate to moral standards and etiquette. Of course, quite naturally by the time he becomes an adult he has decided who is a friend and who is an enemy, etc. This process of social learning as the child grows up is what we call socialization. We may say therefore that socialization is the process by which beings that are biologically human become socially human. Put more broadly socialization is the process by which man acquires behavior patterns and builds self identity, irrespective of stage in life. That implies that socialization does not end with the transformation of the child into an adult. It is a life-long process because even as adults one constantly learns to take on behaviors appropriate to the expectations associated with new positions they may occupy in a group, in an organization or in society at large. Let us take an example of a baby girl. At birth the only thing that differentiates her from a baby boy is their sex organs. All other things are the same including the way they cry and suck their mothers' breasts. But the processes of socializing them into the different gender classes begin immediately after. The girl is dressed differently from the boy. She is later given a different set of toys from that of the boy and is constantly reminded of her gender type and the type of roles she is going to play for the rest of her life, like mothering and home-making. When she grows into a young girl and is waiting to be married the girl plays several specific feminine roles in the home and outside; she is taught how to cook, how to look after the baby even though she is not taught how to have one. As a single girl she enjoys considerable degree

of liberty to adopt a life style in dressing, recreational activities, choice of social groups, etc. (as long as she does not embarrass too many people) but the moment she becomes a wife and mother there is a limit to which she can continue to be fashionable and free to engage in certain activities, protect certain values and interests. She now discards some of these activities and behavior and starts learning to adopt new ones that are more appropriate to the expectations associated with her new status. Similarly, when she becomes an old woman (and probably a grandmother) her role in the family and the society assume a new definition. Her values change and she undergoes another round of transformation and a different form of socialization. Even if she still desires fashionable appearance, loves parties and such other youthful excitements she would find it extremely difficult to continue to engage in them because people are likely to see her as irresponsible and as someone refusing to accept that she is old. Therefore, as long as one is alive and interacts with other members of the society he is continuously socialized because that is the only means by which he acquires the knowledge and competence to deal with the demands and expectations of new positions he continuously plays throughout life. 5.4.1 Processes and Agents of Socialization Socialization is different from other processes of change for two reasons: (1) it involves changes in behavior and attitudes that originate from the interaction with other persons; (2) it occurs through learning. For instance, the ability to speak languages, how to dress, observance of etiquette, etc, cannot take place in the absence of interaction with others. It is a gradual learning process. It is therefore impossible to socialize one-self. There must exist structures to actualize the learning process and these structures are what we call agents of socialization. There are three major agents of socialization. These include the family, the peer group and the mass media. 5.4.1.1 The Family A complete process of socialization involves satisfying both the physical and social needs of the child, and in most societies of the world it is the responsibility of the family to satisfy these needs. This is the first important family role in socialization. Physical needs refer to food, water, shelter,

clothing, clean and warm environment, physical contact with adults. Social needs on the other hand include conscious communication with others, awareness and benefits of cultural values, norms, beliefs, sense of security and emotional stability. The point simply, is that no child can be effectively socialized in the absence of a balance between the physical and social needs of that child. There has to be a sufficient amount of each before the process of socialization is completed. In other words, it is not enough to provide sufficient physical needs without giving the child a sense of security, sense of belonging and emotional stability. If all these needs are not sufficiently met by either the correct amount or right types of socializing agents, the child's growth may be permanently damaged. This explains why babies in orphanages, social welfare centers, etc, are often mentally and physically retarded in growth. Children in such places may be the best fed, best clothed, enjoy the best medical attention and may never lack physical needs, but there is usually an extreme lack of human contact and attention. Studies have shown that this lack of parental love and affection and insufficient human contact results in a disease called 'marasmus'. Children suffering from the disease may not have any physical impairment but they are usually dull, moody, mournful and withdrawn. Such children grow into adults as social misfits, lacking the ability to freely associate with people. The second significance of the family as a socialization agent can be seen in its role as a model and a source of imitation to the child. Most social learning, both for adults and children, is through imitation rather than direct teaching. By watching adults the child typifies and categorizes things he does not experience directly. This way the child can elaborate direct experiences and repeat behaviors easily. Children imitate the language, values, goals, morality and general behavior of parents. However, habits formed through imitation are subject to constant attack from new experience. As the child encounters new spheres of influence from the socializing agents some of the habits and ideas learned from parents do change. The child may be taught one thing at home but on getting to school he is told either by the teacher or friends that his parents were wrong. Friends may even urge him to do things forbidden by the parents. In both of these situations, the influence of the parents is weakened and the child may not fully internalize any value because he is not sure which ones are most valuable.

5.4.1.2 The Peer Group Peer group generally refers to a group of social equals. In the peer group the individual associates with others who are approximately of one's own age and social status. How does the peer group influence the socialization process? 1) At the childhood level, the peer group introduces the child to impersonal authority. By this it means that at this stage the child enjoys a new kind of freedom -freedom from the subjective views, opinions, decisions and authority of the family. In the family authority is usually vested in the parents as persons, and they determine what is right and wrong. The child looks unto them as the only source of direction and whatever they say or do is taken as final. But the moment the child starts going to school and becomes a member of a play group a new kind of environment has opened and for the first time his independence from subjectivity is assured. Some of the lessons he has already learnt now become objects of challenge from peers and instructors but more importantly because he now operates in the midst of social equals the peers who cannot impose their own values on him as his parents, he begins to decide things on his own; he begins to develop an objective mind; conceptualizes and rationalizes issues and events without referring to the opinion of anybody. With time his own personality emerges. 2) Within the peer group the child tests the limits of adult tolerance with reduced fear of parental reprisal. Within the peer group the child finds it easier to experiment things he avoids when with the parents. That means the peer group provides a conducive environment to satisfy the child's curiosity. There are so many lessons one needs to learn, which the parents would not teach you either out of ignorance, or negligence or both. For example, even some highly educated parents even in modern period find it abnormal to educate their children on matters relating to sex and other moral issues, they only wait to complain and denounce when the child gets into trouble in the course of seeking the knowledge elsewhere. But then the desire to know how to deal with one's sexuality is natural and parents need to handle it as seriously as any other lessons taught to a growing child; and because parents shy away from it the child has no other alternative than to turn to peer community to find out some of these things. So, depending on the type of parents and the type of society, peer groups play a very significant role in child upbringing and the development of personality.

3) The peer group may or may not support adult values; however it is one of the most effective agencies for the transmission of adult values. The peer group has unanimous capacity to transmit given social values more easily than any of the other agencies of socialization. The other way the peer group influences the socialization process is that it acts as a powerful force for conformity. Like any other socializing agency the peer group represents a system of rewards and punishments, of approval and disapproval. It rewards the skills of sociability and rejects the personality that disrupts the flow of good feeling and smooth personal relations. At any stage of human growth in present day society, people look primarily to their contemporaries for guidance and direction. Modern man values the judgment and approval of others in his environment. The most important values to modern man are the typical values of the peer group. The peer group is therefore now seen by some social scientists as the most important socializing agency.

5.4.1.3 The Mass Media Communication media can be categorized into two- the electronic and print. Electronic media includes such items as the television, internet, handset, video and the radio while under the print media we have such things as newspapers and magazines. To what extent do these organs of communication influence the process of socialization? Compared to the family and the peer group, the mass media is a very significant agent of socialization. In our local context there is a serious impact the internet, the handset, radio and television make on the behavior and / or habits of a growing child. This is because; most houses and schools nowadays have access to such gadgets. The other way through which the mass media affect socialization in this part of the world is through the print media. The current indiscriminate publication and importation of pornographic photographs, obscene stories and what the management of these media house call sex education, is shaping the perception of the youth as they grow into adulthood. Traditional values of chastity, moral purity and uprightness are gradually being regarded as outdated, primitive. Curiously enough such Hausa novels as Zabin Allah, 'Yantatun Mata, Babban Mace Hakima, Alkawari da ciwo etc are so popular with youth especially the females. Most of the youth who are engaged in reading these novels hardly concentrate on their academic activities; as a result may likely fail in their examinations. As these youth failed examinations, the tendency for them to proceed to higher levels is reduced, the implication of which is the possibility of many of them becoming criminals, nuisance, thugs etc. as they have no high educational qualification to be useful to the society and be self reliant (Dansabo, 2011).

5.4.2 Adult Socialization We have so far concentrated on the socialization of the child by the agencies of the family, the peer group and the mass media. The emphasis has been on the child because knowledge of how the child acquires basic habits helps us to understand not only how they develop into adults but also the relationship between the success of an individual and his childhood experiences and opportunities. Socialization at the childhood level is therefore considered more crucial. By middle to late adolescence individuals have acquired adult interactional competence. Basic habits are already formed and the personality is built. This, however, does not mean that growth has stopped. Socialization continues throughout life but after adolescence the rate begins to decrease. Adolescence is a stage where learning is rapid and basic but by the time the individual gets into adulthood he is no longer able to acquire new ways or undergo fundamental personality changes. Socialization at this stage takes a new form. Old typification structures (already formed habits) are consolidated but they keep receiving and organizing new information. As you finish school, get employed and change environment, get into new social circles, and start bothering about such life contingencies as marriage, parenthood, divorce widowhood, financial success or loss of jobs, old behavior patterns and orientations tend to either break up completely, restructured, or re-integrated with values and life style. Therefore, over the total life span individuals change their attitudes, values, behavior, and self – conceptions as they assume new roles and undergo new experiences. Adult socialization can be gradual and partial. This is what we refer to as continuing socialization. Where however the change is basic and drastic, (like abandoning one way of life for another) we call that re – socialization. Important examples of re – socialization include brain – washing, rehabilitation of criminals to godly way of life, etc. In this case, the aim is to remake the person over in fundamental ways and to affect a break with the past.

Factors in Personality Development We have so far considered the factors and agencies that socialize individuals in society and among other things we have been told that even though socialization features quite prominently in the early stages of human growth, it is a life- long process because as long as one is alive he will continue to take on behavior that corresponds with or is appropriate to the expectations associated with new positions he may occupy in a group, in an organization or in society at large. As one graduates from infancy to adolescence, singleness to married life, from parenthood to grandparenthood, some aspects of his attitudes and values have to change in accordance with the dictates of the new statuses and new roles. Put a little more philosophically, we can say that life as a whole is one long induction course. The difference between that course and the one the student undergoes and hopes to undergo later in life is that in the school of life one never really graduates. We all live to exchange one mistake for another, learn one lesson today only to modify and even entirely change the lesson tomorrow until the body becomes too tired to worry about mistakes and lessons. However, whether socialization continues or not after a given period of time in the life of the individual he is so socialized, so molded in a particular way that a unique identity of the person emerges. At this point we say that the individual has acquired a personality. In other words, acquisition of personality begins when some aspects of the individual's behavior would become relatively consistent and enduring and one can now easily point out the similarity between that person and others who possess the same attributes and at the same time distinguish between that individual and some others who have different attributes. Such things as character, temperament skills, style of interaction, etc readily stand out as parameters which we easily tell the similarities or differences between individuals. Therefore, personality is the sum- total of special attributes found in every person. It is not an evaluative term to describe people's worth as some people often regard and use it. It is quite common to hear people remarking that this or that person has personality, by which they mean that the person being referred to has the same positive qualities or qualities that make his presence felt by others or make him popular and attractive. In the same way, some are formed of saying he has no personality when they want to say that the person does not command respect, is dull, unsocial and generally uninteresting. All this is wrong because personality is not what

some people have and others have not. It is not another name for beauty, charisma, celebrity status, political power, financial affluence or whatever qualities we find flamboyant and attractive in personalities and that makes us stand out as unique individuals. Social Influence The central question about how humans differ and how they are alike form the basis for social influence Myers, 2010 argued that: "Two perspectives dominate current thinking about human similarities and differences: an evolutionary perspective, emphasizing human kinship, and a cultural perspective, emphasizing human diversity..." (p. 158) The quotation above attempted to answer the question on how people are influenced by human nature and cultural diversity. Nearly everyone agrees that we need both nature and culture to be alike and to be different. People all over the world are social. We join groups, conform, and recognize distinctions of social status. Everywhere, humans prefer living with others in families and communal groups to living alone. There are thus varied explanations on how humans differ and are alike. These include genetic, evolutionary and behavioral explanations. The genetic explanation is of the belief that universal behaviors that define human nature arise from our biological similarity. To support this assertion Myer (2010) contends that "we not only share certain food preferences but we also share answers to social questions such as, whom should I trust and fear? Whom should I help? etc". Evolutionary psychologists contend that our emotional and behavioral answers to those questions are the same answers that worked for our ancestors. On culture and behavior Myer (2010) opined that our most important similarity, the hallmark of our species, is our capacity to learn and adapt. To him, evolution has prepared us to live creatively in a changing world and to adapt to environments from equatorial jungles to arctic ice fields. In a nutshell, the cultural perspective highlights human adaptability. Human natures are alike, said Confucius; it is their habits that carry them far apart. However, cultural diversity of our languages, customs, and expressive behaviors is socially programmed, not hardwired (Myers, 2010: 160). Despite the diversity in cultures, cross-cultural psychologists see an essential universality (Lonner, 1980).

There is no doubt that western psychologists have attempted to answer the question on how people differ and how they are alike, outlining the genetic, evolutionary and behavioral aspects of social influence. There is thus however, a disjuncture with the creator as observed by Utz (2011): "Islam, as a way of life, outlines a comprehensive model of the human being that incorporates the spiritual, psychological, emotional and social aspects. From its teachings, we discover that at the core, we are spiritual beings who need to cultivate a connection with our creator, Allah" (P. 25). This is not to discount the development and progress of science, but rather to put in its proper perspective. 5.4.3 Aggressive Behavior We are continually reminded of the aggression and violence that surrounds us. Some of us are victims of physical assault, abuse, rape or verbal aggression by strangers, friends, partners, relatives or family. Most of us are aggressive from time to time and some find pleasure in playing aggressive games; shooting, fighting. It is not surprising then that virtually all of us feel that our behavior is constrained in various ways by aggression. Aggression is part of the human condition, but many people feel that the world is each year becoming a more aggressive place. There is little doubt much of the feeling that aggression and violence are on the increase can be attributed to the fact that more people are more frequently exposed to a greater number of more vivid reports of violence. Aggression is an integral part of human nature. Indeed, some theorists have claimed

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that aggression is a basic human instinct, an innate fixed action pattern that we share with other species.

It is therefore an inevitable/ inescapable aspect of our lives. 5.4.3.1 Defining Aggression Psychological definitions are to an extent determined by theoretical perspectives. The concept presents a special problem to social psychologists. There is little consensus within or across the sciences about the components of aggression. For example, one researcher may define aggression

using physical parameters- pushing, striking while another may add other features –threatening speech, verbal insult. To an extent, what is considered aggressive is determined by the social and cultural characteristics of the perceiver. There are cultures and subcultures that regard violence as ordinary and even necessary. There is no shortage of social psychological definitions of aggression. Here are a few: • Behavior that results

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in personal injury or destruction of property (Bandura, 1973). • Behavior intended to harm another of the same species. (Scherer et. al. 1975). • Behavior directed towards the goals of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment. •

The intentional inflictions of some form of harm on others (Baron and Byrne, 2000). 5.4.3.2 Theories Of Aggression

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Explanations of aggression fall into two broad classes, the biological and the social.

Our interest in Social Psychology favors a focus on social factors. However, interest in the biological dimension

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cannot be ignored. After all, violence is a reaction of the bodily system.

81%

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Biological Explanations The starting point for these explanations is that aggression is an innate action tendency. Although modification of the consequent behavior is possible; aggression is an instinct: i.e. a pattern of response that is genetically predetermined.

Psychodynamic Theory

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Freud, 1930 proposed that human aggression stem from an innate 'Death instinct; Thanatos,

that

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is in opposition to a life instinct, Eros. Thanatos is initially directed at self-destruction, but later in development it becomes redirected outwards

at others. Freud's background as a physician heavily influenced his theorizing, and

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his notion of Thanatos was partly a response to the large- scale destruction of the 1 st world war. Like the sexual urge which stems from Eros, an aggressive urge from Thanatos builds up from bodily tensions and needs to be expressed.

It is essentially a one factor theory; aggression builds up naturally and must be released. These ideas were later

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revised by theorists known as Noe-Freudians, who viewed aggression as a more rational, but nonetheless innate, process whereby people sought

for

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healthy release for primitive instincts that are basic to all animal species.

Ethological Theory In the 1960s three books made a strong case for the instinctual basis of animal behavior: A threat display is a fixed- action pattern triggered by an appropriate releaser. Intraspecies aggression in animals is often limited by appeasement gestures.

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Lorenz on Aggression (1960), Ardrey the territorial imperative (1966) and Morris the Naked Ape (1967). The general perspective that underpins this explanation is referred to as ethology, a branch of biology devoted to the study of instincts, or fixed-action pattern, among all members of a species when living in their natural environment. Like the neo- Freudians, ethnologists stressed the

positive,

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functional aspects of aggression, but they also recognized that, while the potential or instinct for aggression may be innate, actual aggressive behavior is elicited by specific stimuli in the environment known as

the

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releasers (specific stimuli in the environment thought by ethnologist to trigger aggressive responses).

Shortcomings of Biological Arguments Generally, biological explanations of aggression have considerable appeal picking up as they do on

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the popular assumption that violence is part of human nature.

Broadly speaking however the view among most social scientists questions

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the sufficiency of the explanation of aggression when it is based totally on the cornerstone of instinct.

Social And Biosocial Explanations Few social psychologists favor theories of aggression defined in terms of an instinct, preferring instead to emphasize learning processes and factors within the social context that appear to be linked to aggressive behavior.

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Frustration And Aggression In its original form, the frustration aggression hypothesis linked aggression to an antecedent condition of frustration. It derived from the work of a group of psychologists at Yale University in the 1930s. 5.4.4

Prosocial Behavior Prosocial behavior as a broad category refers to acts that are valued positively by society- simply contrast it to antisocial behavior. In our culture, helping others is socially valued. Wape (1972) defined prosocial behavior as behavior that has positive social consequences and that contributes to the physical and psychological well being of another person. It can be further defined as voluntary and having the intention of being of benefit to others (Eiseberg et-al 1996). Why do people help?

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Biological position is that just as humans have innate tendencies to eat and drink so they have innate tendencies to help.

This explanation of helping arises primarily from evolutionary social psychology. Social explanation: learned through socialization. 1. Giving instructions: Telling children to be helpful to others thus increases helpfulness. 2. Using reinforcement 3. Exposure to models (observational learning) 4. Attribution processes (Just world hypothesis) Attributions about the person in need are also important and are likely to influence whether help is offered.

61%

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According to learners, people need to believe that the world is just a place where we get what

is deserved. Why do people act prosocially? Batson (1994) has distinguished four quite different motives. 1. Egoism- Prosocial behavior contributes to the welfare of the actor exchange -give to take. 2. Altruism- Prosocial behavior contributes to the welfare of other people. 3. Collectivism:

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Welfare of social groups e.g. one's family, ethnic group or country. 4.

Principlism- Prosocial acts follow from

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a moral principle such as the greatest good for the greatest

reward/status. 5.4.4.1 Why People Help – Motives Behind Prosocial Behavior

The following are the different views that explain helping behavior.

1. Empathy – Altruism: It refers to putting oneself in another's shoes. Understanding the situation from another's perspective.

According to this perspective we help others because we experience empathy towards them; we want their plight to end.

Batson, Duncan Ackerman Buckley and Birch (1981) gave the Empathy Altruism Hypothesis to explain prosocial behavior.

They suggested

that at least

some prosocial acts are motivated only by the desire to help someone in need.

If such motivation

is

strong, the helper is willing to engage even in dangerous and life threatening activity (Batson & Batson et al 1995).

Batson and his colleagues devised an experimental procedure to test this view of helping behavior. The participants were

divided into two groups. One group of participants was told that the victim is similar to themselves. The

other groups held that a victim is not similar to themselves. The participants were presented with an opportunity to help

victims. They were given

the

role of observer who watched fellow students on T.V. monitor as she performed a task while receiving electric shock (victim

was actually a research assistant recorded on videotape) As a task was underway research assistant confided that she was in

pain and in childhood had traumatic experience with electricity. But she said if it was required she would continue the

experiment. Now the experimenter asked participants if they were willing to exchange the victim's place in the experiment. The

result showed that when participants were dissimilar (low empathy) they preferred to end the experience rather than engaging

in painful prosocial acts. Similar

participants who had high empathy were more likely to take the victim's

place and receive shocks. It is difficult to experience empathy when there are many victims who are in need of help. This is the reason why many charitable institutions mention the existence of a large number of people in need of help; they feature the photo of a single child who is in need. This allows individuals for selective altruism, where helping one child may involve ignoring several others (Batson Ahmed et al 1999). 2. Negative State Relief Model:(Cialdini, Baumann & Kenrick 1981) According to this model

we help either because our actions allow us to reduce our own negative feelings. These negative feelings are not necessarily aroused by an emergency situation. We

engage in prosocial acts

as a way to improve our own negative mood. In such cases unhappiness leads to prosocial behavior.

In such situations empathy may be there or not. 3. Empathic Joy: Helping behavior

has been explained by Empathic Joy Hypothesis (Smith, Kealing & Stotland 1989). This theory suggests that a

helper responds and helps victims

not because of empathy but because he wants to accomplish something and doing so is rewarding. The argument goes like this: if we help people only for empathy, then they would not be concerned about feedback. To test this hypothesis Smith Keating and Stotland performed an experiment. In this experiment

a female student said that she might drop out of college because she felt isolated and distressed. She was described as similar to one group and dissimilar to other groups. After watching the videotape the participants were asked to give helpful advice. Some were told that they would be given feedback

on

the

effectiveness of their advice, others were told that they would not come to know what

the

student decided to do.

Results showed that

participants were helpful only if there was high empathy and feedback about

the advice. 4. Competitive Altruism: According to this view people help others because in doing so their status and reputation is enhanced. Thus, the benefits incurred are larger than the cost of the prosocial behavior. Those people who help others get higher status because society will always prefer to have people who engage in prosocial behavior. If helping

a

person has higher status then such a person may be well compensated for engaging in prosocial action. They are not only treated as a star but they may have entire buildings named after them. The best example is

the

dead diction center at Pune, Yerwada, named after P.L. Deshpande, the famous Marathi author. Hardy and Van Vugt performed an interesting study (2006). In this study participants engaged in a public good dilemma. It was a game in which players could earn money for themselves or

the

entire group. At the start participants were given 100 Pence and they were told that they could contribute any amount to a private fund, which they could keep as individuals, and any amount they wished to group fund. This could be divided equally among three group members. In one condition the participants were informed how other members contributed to public and private funds. In one condition the participants received information on other's contributions to the public and private fund and were told that information about their contributions would be also provided to other participants. This was a reputation condition whereby donating to

a

group would bring enhanced reputation and status to donors. In other conditions participants did not receive any information regarding the player's choices. Those acting in prosocial behavior would not receive any information regarding other player's choices and thus it would not necessarily boost the donor's reputation When later were asked to rate each member's status, the results offered clear

support for Altruism Hypothesis. In reputation conditions when prosocial actions were known to others the players donated more generously. The more one donated, the higher was the status. Hardy and Van Vugt (2006) found that the greater the cost involved in behaving in a prosocial manner, greater the gains in status to people who behave in this way. Additional studies also suggest that people engage in prosocial behavior as a way of boosting their social status. In general, helping others is a signal to others that doing so would enhance their status. The benefits that are received are substantially more than the costs incurred. 5.

Kin Selection Theory: Helping ourselves by helping people who share our genes.

The Kin Selection Theory (as given by Cialdini Brown Lewis Luck & Neuberg (Pinker 1997). From the evolutionary perspective the main goal of all the organisms is passing our genes to the next generation. Therefore, we are more likely to help others to whom we are closely related rather than those to whom we are not related. Crandall and Kitayama conducted a series of studies in 1994.

These studies showed that participants in the study preferred to help their close relatives in an emergency situation. Participants also preferred to help younger relatives rather than the older relatives; Kin selection theory suggests that this is done because they had more chances of passing on their genes to the next generation. But it is not always true, many times we help people who may not be even distantly related to us. This is explained by reciprocal altruism theory which suggests that we help people, who are unrelated to us because helping is usually reciprocal. Helping others will ultimately benefit us as that increases our chances of survival. 5.4.4.2 Personality Variables Associated With Prosocial Behavior Empathy and altruistic motivation are related to other positive characteristics such as sense of well being, achievement motivation, sociability and emotional state that is consistently positive. Empathy is found lower in people who are higher in aggressiveness. Similarly, people who score high on Machiavellianism tend to be distrustful, cynical, egocentric, manipulative and controlling. People ranking high on this characteristic are less likely to show prosocial behavior (McCloskey 1999), People having altruistic personality are more likely to show prosocial behavior. Altruistic personality refers to a combination of dispositional variables associated with prosocial behavior.

The components

of altruistic personality are as follows: ●

Empathy, ● Belief in just world, ● Acceptance of social responsibility, ● Having internal locus of control, ●

They are not egocentric. 1) Empathy: Most people who are higher on empathy are more likely to show more prosocial behavior. 2) Belief in just world: Those people who help others, believe in a just, fair and predictable world. They feel that good behavior is rewarded and bad behavior is punished 3) Social responsibility: Those people who help others, believe that each person is responsible for doing her or his best to help anyone who wants to help. 4) Internal locus of control: This is the belief that people can choose to behave in ways that maximize good outcome, minimize bad outcome. People believe that they have the power to shape their destiny. People who do not help are more guided by external locus of control, believe that life is influenced by fate, luck whatever may be done, may not benefit others. 5) They are not egocentric: Altruistic people do not tend to be self absorbed and competitive. 5.4.4.3

Responding To An Emergency

Do you remember the incident that took place some years ago at the Gateway of India. Two young girls sitting at the Gateway of India, were attacked by an unknown person, one girl almost collapsed,

the other was saved by a young man who ran towards them amidst the mob who was only a spectator to the event. This is a situation, in which witnesses towards emergency stood around and did nothing except the young man. The question is why such

a difference in behavior is found?

When a

stranger is Distressed: The word heroism is often used to describe anyone who completes

a difficult job or task. Becker and Eagly (2004) suggested that heroism actually refers to actions that involve courageous risk taking to obtain socially valued goals. Someone who engages in risky behavior for the sake of fun is also not

a heroic deed. Someone who chooses a prosocial occupation like nursing is not a

heroic act. The brave acts performed by ordinary citizens for saving or attempting to save

the

life of others are an example of bravery. On Republic day bravery awards are given to policemen and army personnel who have lost their lives while saving others. How can one forget the heroic act of Mr. Tukarem Ombale, a policeman? Who caught hold of Kasab, who emptied his entire gun in Ombale's body? Terrorist attack of 26th Nov will remain a permanent mark in the history of Mumbai when several members of anti terrorist squad lost their lives while trying to save the lives of others. Becker & Eagly (2004) also apply the term here to individuals who take risks in less dangerous and dramatic ways. Such as donating someone's

kidney, who is in

need of the transplant. Helping people affected by natural disasters such as Tsunami. Those individuals who are willing to help others are really Prosocial and unselfish by nature. There are instances, when people still behave in an unresponsive manner that shows selfishness, unconcern and apathy. These are the situations when victims are left to fend for themselves. We generally feel that more bystanders are present in any situation, more likely a victim to receive help from people. But reality is different. The famous murder in New York City during mid 1960's made psychologist to really, think about the prosocial behaviour.

In this tragic crime, a young woman Catherine (kitty) Genovese was assaulted by a man in a location where many people could see and hear what was going on.

She screamed for help

and many people overlooked the scene. Despite this,

the

attacker continued to stab the victim for many minutes and even left and returned to continue to assault her. But not every single person reported the crime to

the

policeman or tried to stop the attacker. Investigators found that this forty five minute attack was witnessed by residents of the area but not even one called the police. After this incident

there was much speculation about selfishness and indifference of people in general

from cities. Darley and Latane developed several possible explanations for such behavior. These explanations were tested

through research. This research has become classic in the area of social psychology.

5.4.4.4 Crucial Steps Determine Helping And Non-Helping

Latane

and Darley (1970) proposed that

the

likelihood of a person engaging in prosocial is determined by

a

series of decisions that must be made quickly

by those who witness an emergency.

When we are suddenly and unexpectedly faced with an emergency situation

that is difficult

to interpret, before acting we must first figure out what if anything is going on and what we should do about it. This requires

a

series of decisions

that will determine whether we will help a person. The following factors determine the helping behavior during

an emergency. 1.

Noticing or failing to notice that something unusual is

happening.

In our day to day life we are thinking about something and concentrating on something else. For example when you are

traveling by a local train, you hear a noise and hear that someone

is

having a problem with breathlessness. We may not notice, maybe we are in sleep or deeply engrossed in some thinking,

concentrating on something else. Here we may fail to notice that something unusual is happening.

In everyday life we ignore many sights and sounds that are not relevant to us, and may not notice the emergency situation.

Darley and Latane performed a simple experiment on the students who were trained to become priests, those who are more

likely to help. These priests were given a task of walking nearby the campus and giving a talk. One group was told that they had

plenty of extra time to reach the campus. The second group held that they were right on schedule with just enough time to get

there, and the third group held that they were late for speaking assignment and they needed to hurry. Along the route to

campus an emergency situation was staged. A stranger, actually stumped in the way coughing and groaning. The question was,

would students notice an emergency? The group that was least preoccupied (who had sufficient time) 63% of the participants

provided help. The group that was on schedule, moderately preoccupied group, (The group that was on schedule) 45 percent

helped. In the preoccupied condition, i.e. The Third group, only 9 percent responded to strangers. Many of the preoccupied

students paid less or no attention to a stranger. This study clearly indicates that when

a person is too busy to pay attention to his surroundings, he fails to notice

obvious emergencies. 2.

Correctly interpreting an event as an emergency – Even those who pay attention to an emergency situation have incomplete

information about what is happening? Most of the time whatever is noticed may not always be an emergency. Whenever

potential helpers are not

aware of what is happening, they are likely to hold back and wait for

further information. It may be that when Genovese was murdered, people around could not understand what was happening, when they heard the screams it was felt that man and a woman were possibly having a fight. The situation itself was quite ambiguous for those who were possibly having a fight. The situation itself was quite ambiguous for those who were witnessing it. In such situations people tend to accept the interpretation that is most comfortable to them. It is observed that when there are many witnesses for a given incident. The help may not be given because of diffusion of responsibility, like when there are so many people who can help why me? Help is generally not given in such a situation with the fear of being misinterpreted by people generally, when we are uncertain about the situation and our actions we land up doing nothing. In the presence of others, we generally engage in a social comparison, we look at others as to how they are reacting and if others do not react we may feel foolish to react. It is always safe to follow the

majority. This situation is described as "pluralistic ignorance". It refers to the fact that because none of the witnesses responds to an emergency, no one knows for sure what is happening and each depends on others

for interpretation of the situation. Latane and Darley (1968) performed an experiment to demonstrate how far people will go to avoid making possibly inappropriate responses to a situation that may be or may not be an emergency situation. The investigators

placed students alone or with two other students and asked them to fill out a questionnaire. After several minutes had passed, experimenter's secretly pumped smoke in the room through a vent. When participants were working alone (75%) they stopped and left the room to report the problem. When three people were there in the room, only 38% reacted to the smoke. Even after smoke became so thick that it was difficult to work, only 62% percent continued to work on the questionnaire and failed to make any response to a smoke filled room.

This study showed that the presence of others inhibited a response even when it meant risking their life. The inhibiting effect is less, especially, when

a group consists of friends because friends are more likely to communicate about what is happening, (Rutkowski, Ciruder & Romer 1983). The inhibiting effect is less if people are from small towns, when they are more likely to know each other. Similarly, this inhibiting effect

is still lesser under the influence of alcohol because anxiety about reactions of others and fear of doing wrong is reduced under the effect of alcohol, as a consequence, helping behavior is more likely to be seen (Nitchlow & Liu 1985).

3. Deciding that it is your responsibility to provide help: Building catches a fire, cards collide, in this situation responsibilities are clearly indicated. Firemen, policemen, etc., take the lead. But when the responsibility is not clear, people assume that someone must take responsibility. But when no one is present, the lone bystander has to take the responsibility. 4. Deciding that you have the necessary knowledge and skills to act: Prosocial behavior cannot occur unless a

person knows how to become helpful. Some emergencies are sufficiently simple; almost everyone knows how to become helpful. But when emergencies require special help only some of the bystander can be of help. e.g. Good swimmer can help a person who is drowning or a doctor can help a patient with a

heart problem. 5. Making final decision to help: During emergency situations, help is given to a person, only when a bystander makes a decision to help. Many times helping behavior may be inhibited by potential negative consequences of the behavior. Fritzsich and others held that helper engages himself in cognitive algebra where he weighs positive and negative consequences of it. In Mumbai, if any accident victim asks for help, the first consideration that a bystander has is what will be the consequences? Will he be questioned by the policeman for helping a person after the accident? To summarize, deciding whether to help or not to help is not a simple process. It requires a series of decisions to be taken by the helper. 5.5 Unit Summary ●

Social motives are the psychological processes that drive people's thinking, feeling and behavior in interactions with other people. Because social situations confront people with the preferences and needs of others, and not just their own, they require a broader perspective in which the interests of others are incorporated. ● Humans learn to speak, use tools, and to behave appropriately in social situations mostly by observing and imitating others. This is the essence of social learning theory (sometimes called observational learning). ● In physiological sense, a new born baby is a complete human being but socially that baby is nothing more than just a bundle of biological substance whose only claim to superiority over the flowers in the garden or the chicken in the poultry is that it is capable of making interpretable noises. When it is hungry or thirsty it screams in a particular way.

5.6 Key Terms • Social Motivation refers to the human need to interact with other humans and to be accepted by them. These interactions are considered to be social behaviors that address, either directly or indirectly, other people with the purpose of soliciting a response. • Social learning theory suggests that social behavior is learned by observing and imitating the behavior of others. • Socialization, the process whereby an individual learns to adjust to a group (or society) and behave in a manner approved by the group (or society). • Prosocial behavior was defined as behavior through which people benefit others (Eisenberg, 1982), including helping, cooperating, comforting, sharing, and donating (Eisenberg and Fabes, 1998; Greener and Crick, 1999). 5.7 Check Your Progress 1. What did you understand about “social motivation”? 2. What is the transformation of Motivation? 3. What is social learning? Discuss in detail. 4. What are the processes and agents of socialization? 5. What is adult socialization? 6. What is aggressive behavior? Define aggression? Discuss the theories of aggression. 7. What is prosocial behavior? 8. Why do people help? What are the motives behind the prosocial behavior?

Module III: Social Psychology: Social Influences & Group Influences

Unit 6: Attitude & Persuasion 6.0 Introduction 6.1 Unit Objective 6.2 Attitude 6.2.1

Attitude Formation: How Attitudes Develop 6.2.2 Attitude Development 6.2.3 When and Why do Attitudes Influence Behaviour 6.2.4 How do attitudes guide behaviour 6.3 The Fine Art of Persuasion: How Attitudes Are Changed 6.3.1 Resisting Persuasion Attempts 6.4 Cognitive Dissonance 6.5

Unit Summary 6.6 Key Terms 6.7 Check Your Progress 6.0

Introduction Attitudes are dynamic phenomena that interact with all other elements of an organism. The concept of attitude originated in the United States. Allport described it as

probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American Social Psychology.

In their study of the Polish Peasant, Thomas and Znaniecki used the term attitude extensively. Often the term attitude is identified with prejudices, biases, states of readiness, beliefs or ideas with an emotional tinge. Attitudes exercise a great influence on life and behaviour. Attitudes indicate the direction and intensity of response of the person to stimuli. They reveal the drives which lead to some form of behaviour. It is a clear fact that every individual has a vast array of attitudes: e.g., Attitudes towards health, children, food, clothes, God, pets, etc. 6.1

Unit Objective This Unit shall inform the learners on: • Attitude • The Fine Art Of Persuasion: How Attitudes Are Changed • Cognitive Dissonance

6.2 Attitude

Attitudes are dynamic phenomena that interact with all other elements of an organism. The concept of attitude originated in the United States. Allport described it as

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a mental and neural set of readiness, organised through experience exerting a directing or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.

Gordon Allport. An attitude is a readiness to respond

in such a way that behaviour is given a certain direction. According to Allport attitudes are three types : 1. Social Attitudes 2.

Attitudes towards specific persons. 3. Attitudes towards specific groups. 6.2.1 Attitude Formation : How Attitudes

Develop

Attitudes are a result of beliefs. Beliefs about the object, feelings towards the object, behavioural intentions regarding the object and actual behaviour thus shown are all steps towards attitude formation. For example, if employees believe that their current job will provide them with experience and training, a positive attitude is developed in them towards the job. There are four processes in attitude formation. It is similar to how beliefs are formed. They include:- 1. Past experience: People develop an

attitude on the basis of their past experience.

2. Available Information: A piece of information that is happy will influence the beliefs. This will consequently affect the attitude formation. For eg: If an employee hears about the promotion of many people in an industry his attitude changes. 3.

Generalisation : Generalisation comes from similar situations or events. Eg: No one in a job is promoted. This will give a general feeling that there is no promotion. The most important thing to remember about attitude formation is that it is learned. Family, friends, experienced co-workers, are involved in attitude formation. 6.2.2 Attitude Development In

the

early development stage (infant) attitudes exist in their most primitive form, as simple pleasant or unpleasant states of the infant. Some of these feelings are results of satisfied or unsatisfied biological needs. Others are produced by pleasurable or unpleasurable responses from mother, father or siblings. An infant gains pleasure from being helped and protected. But a child in the early period of walking is likely to resent and reject the helping hand. Developmental changes produce changes in child attitude with objects and situations. Child's attitude towards authority figures is an important element of socialisation. It determines his behaviour in school. A rebellious attitude towards authority (teacher, principal, peer group) can bring conflicts. Teachers can influence the attitude of a child considerably. Attitudes of Children have their origins in the family relationships at home. The parental attitude of 'acceptance – democratic' seemed to facilitate growth and development more than others. Attitudes developed during the preschool years are associated with the general culture. Day to day experiences and the child's perception of them have a strong influence on the development of attitude. Attitude develops moment by moment. Some of them are formed without direction. Others are a result of careful planning by a person or persons who desires to encourage the development of attitudes. Much of citizenship training is a matter of attitude formation. Emotional attitude plays a great role in one's life. Children should gain an unbiased attitude through content mastery. School becomes a very important factor in the development of existing attitudes and to create new ones. Teachers play a great role in this respect.

An individual's attitude is determined by various developmental factors. They are as follows: 1. Physical growth and development: This is responsible for poor emotional and social adjustment. Social adjustment has important effects on the formation of attitude. 2. Intellectual development: The components of intelligence like memory, understanding, thinking and reasoning play a significant part in attitude formation. This is because they help in gaining perceptual experience. 3. Emotional Development: Emotions play

a dominant role in converting behaviour into attitudes. 4. Social Development: Social interaction is a key to attitude formation at any age of human development. Social attitudes can be picked up from respective groups. 5. Ethical and Moral Development: Individuals enhancing his feelings of self-esteem tries to develop those attitudes that increase his values and ideals. In attitude formation, both home and family environment plays a leading role.

Attitudes

offer great possibilities for successful achievement as well as failure in life. They are an important motivator of behaviour and influence all human values. 6.2.3 When And Why Do Attitudes Influence Behaviour How attitudes are formed and how to get it changed? They are an important determinant of behaviour. The link between attitudes and behaviour is quite weak. Therefore, knowing someone's attitude was not very useful in predicting their behaviour. There is a gap between one's attitude and behaviour on many occasions. Attitudes often do exert important effects on our behaviour. Research findings show the possibility of predicting people's behaviour from their attitudes. Social psychologists made progress in understanding the link between attitude and behaviour. Attitude – Behaviour Link Lapiere (1934) conducted a study to understand the attitude behaviour link. During those days, social psychologists generally defined attitudes in terms of behaviour. Allport (1924) defined attitude as tendencies to behave in certain ways in social situations.

Lapiere studied the relation of attitude and behaviour by travelling with a young Chinese couple. His results indicated a sizable gap between attitudes and behaviour between what people say and what they actually do. Attitude does not strongly influence overt behaviour. According to some social psychologists, research shows that under certain conditions, attitudes do indeed influence behaviour.

There are several factors that affect the strength of the relationship between attitude and behaviour. These factors determine the extent to which attitudes influence overt behaviour. Attitudes influence behaviour (1) When situational constraints moderate the relationship between attitudes and behaviour (2) when situational pressure shapes the extent to which attitudes can be expressed. (3) when attitudes are powerful and strong. The term attitude is used in describing people, and in explaining their behaviour. eg: "He has a poor attitude", "I Like her attitude", etc. Attitudes are complex cognitive processes that influence life. Attitude and behaviour has a relationship. In gaining a clear understanding of the relationship between attitude and behaviour both the causes and effects of attitude need to be examined. Fishbein and Ajzen, have done a study in this respect. Accordingly, the beliefs about the object provide the attitude. The behavioural intentions describe what the person is inclined to do. The actual behaviour is a function of attitudes and other many factors. 6.2.4 How Do Attitudes Guide Behaviour In

the late 1960s, social psychology was experiencing a serious crisis. Many studies concluded the fact that the link between attitudes and behaviour is actually quite weak. This means knowing someone's

attitude was not very useful in predicting their overt behaviour. Later studies support the fact that our attitudes often do exert important effects on our behaviour.

Research findings in this respect supported the possibility of predicting people's behaviour from their attitudes. The attitude behaviour link: Study was conducted by Lapiere (1934). His study results indicated that there is a sizable gap between attitudes and behaviour. That is between what people say and what they actually do. Later studies indicated that attitudes do indeed influence behaviour. It is the type of attitude that matters in behaviour. Ambivalent attitudes are weaker predictors of behaviour. Recent research in this area, concluded that when attitudes are not

ambivalent, that is, when attitudes have no positive and negative feelings—attitudes do indeed predict behaviour. Situational constraints moderate relationships between attitudes and behaviour. There are several aspects of attitudes that guide behaviour

: (1) Attitude origin – Evidence indicates that attitudes on the

basis of direct experience have stronger effects on behaviour. (2) Attitude strength.

The stronger the attitudes are, the greater their impact on behaviour. (3)

Attitude specificity. This is

the extent to which attitudes are focused on specific objects.

Attitude behaviour link is stronger when attitudes and behaviours are measured at the

same level of specificity.

Attitudes seem to influence behaviour through two different mechanisms.

When we can give careful thought to our attitudes, intentions derived from our attitudes strongly predict behaviour. In situations, where we cannot engage in deliberate thought, attitudes

influence

behaviour. 6.3

The Fine Art of Persuasion: How

Attitudes are Changed Persuasion

is the

effort

to change our attitudes through the use of various kinds of messages.

It is a part of daily life. Studies of social psychologists yielded insights into the cognitive process that plays a role in persuasion.

For attitude change, persuasive communication plays a vital role. Persuasive communication is such a skill which is employed by a person to persuade other person or persons. The skill may be based on reason. In persuasive behaviour communication is

vital. It can be through dialogue, written ideas, television or film Through these media, the messages sent might bring changes in our view point. Some persuasive appeals do not succeed in attitude change. Example : Some advertisements fail to sell the

goods advertised; while others are successful. The various ingredients of persuasion are: The communicator, communication, process of communication, these four elements include, 'What means', and to 'whom'. There are two routes to persuasion.

They are : (1) The central route to persuasion. Persuasion that occurs when interested people focus on the arguments. e.g:

Advertisement of computers.

(2) Peripheral Route to persuasion. Persuasion that occurs when people are influenced by incidental cues. e.g: Attractiveness of the speaker. The Early Approach to Persuasion: It is found that source credibility is an important factor in persuasion. Following

are some interesting findings of early research on persuasion. •

Communicators who are credible are more persuasive. Experts with respect to the topics are more persuasive than non-experts. • Communicators who are

attractive in some way. E.g. physically attractive. • People are more susceptible to persuasion. • When the

audience 's attitude is contrary to that of the persuader. • People who speak rapidly are often more persuasive than persons who speak more slowly. •

Persuasion can be enhanced by messages that arouse strong emotions (especially fear) in the audience. 6.3.1

Resisting Persuasion Attempts We are highly resistant to persuasive messages. If we are not, our attitudes would be in a constant state of change.

Several factors contribute to such resistance to persuasion. 1. Reactance: It is a

negative reaction to efforts by others to limit our personal freedom.

In other words we tend to protect our personal freedom. 2. Forewarning: It is the prior knowledge of persuasive intent. It is the knowledge that someone is trying to change our attitudes. 3.

Selective Avoidance: It is

a tendency to direct our attention away from information that challenges our existing attitudes. 4.

Counter arguing against competing views: When exposed to persuasive messages we actively counter argue against the information they contain. This also increases our resistance to persuasion. 5. Biassed assimilation and attitude polarisation:

These are two additional processes that play a role in resistance to persuasion. Biassed assimilation is the tendency to evaluate information that disconfirms our existing views as less convincing than that confirms these views. Attitude polarisation is the

tendency to evaluate information in such a way that it strengthens our initial views.

6.4

Cognitive Dissonance

Cognitive dissonance is

an unpleasant

internal state that results when individuals notice inconsistency between two or more

of their attitudes.

It can also be an unpleasant state between attitudes and behaviour. It is a frequent occurrence in everyday life. It can sometimes lead us to change our attitudes. Cognitive Dissonance Theory proposed by Leon Festinger in 1957 begins with the idea that people do not like inconsistency and are uncomfortable when it occurs. Dissonance can be reduced through direct as well as indirect techniques. Direct Approaches: 1. Change of our attitude or behaviour so that these are more consistent. 2. Reduce cognitive dissonance by acquiring new information to support our attitude. 3. Trivialization.

A technique for reducing dissonance in which the importance of attitudes and behaviours that are inconsistent with each other is cognitively reduced. Direct approach focuses on attitude behaviour discrepancies that are causing dissonance. Indirect Approaches: Research by Steele (1988) and his colleagues indicate that : 1. Positive self evaluations by focusing on their positive self attributes reduce dissonance. 2. Engaging in distracting activities that takes one's mind off the dissonance (Zanna and Aziza 1976). Scientific evidence relates to

the fact that dissonance is unpleasant. Also dissonance is indeed a universal aspect of human thought. But the conditions under which it occurs and the tactics individuals choose to reduce it appear to be influenced by cultural factors. 6.5

Unit Summary •

Attitudes are dynamic phenomena that interact with all other elements of an organism. The concept of attitude originated in the United States. Allport described it as

probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept in contemporary American Social Psychology. •

Persuasion is the effort

to change our attitudes through the use of various kinds of messages.

It is a part of daily life. Studies of social psychologists yielded insights into the cognitive process that plays a role in persuasion. For attitude change, persuasive communication plays a vital role. Persuasive communication is such a skill which is employed by a person to persuade other person or persons. The skill may be based on reason. In persuasive behaviour communication is vital. It can be through dialogue, written ideas, television or film Through these media, the messages sent might bring changes in our view point. Some persuasive appeals do not succeed in attitude change. •

Cognitive dissonance is an unpleasant

internal state that results when individuals notice inconsistency between two or more of their attitudes.

It can also be an unpleasant state between attitudes and behaviour. It is a frequent occurrence in everyday life. It can sometimes lead us to change our attitudes. • Cognitive Dissonance Theory proposed by Leon Festinger in 1957 begins with the idea that people do not like inconsistency and are uncomfortable when it occurs. Dissonance can be reduced through direct as well as indirect techniques. 6.6

Key Terms • Attitude: In psychology, an

95%	MATCHING BLOCK 77/115	SA MSc Psychology - PAPER – II (Social Psychology ... (D165577905)
attitude refers to a set of emotions, beliefs, and behaviours toward a particular object, person, thing, or event. Attitudes are often the result of experience or upbringing, and they can have a powerful influence over		

behaviour. •

92%	MATCHING BLOCK 78/115	SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)
Persuasion: persuasion, the process by which a person's attitudes or behaviour are, without duress, influenced by communications from other people.		

One's attitudes and behaviour are also affected by other factors (for example, verbal threats, physical coercion, one's physiological states). • Cognitive dissonance: In the field of psychology, cognitive dissonance is the perception of contradictory information. Relevant items of information include a person's actions, feelings, ideas, beliefs, values, and things in the environment. 6.7 Check Your Progress 1.

What is persuasion? 2. How can you change attitudes? 3. State the findings of early research on persuasion? 4. What are the factors contributing to

resistance to persuasion? 5. What is cognitive dissonance?

6.

Define attitude? 7. How are attitudes formed? 8. How have your attitudes been affected during the past week? 9. Explain attitude - behaviour link ? 10. Give examples to show attitude development.

Unit 7.0

Stereotyping, Prejudice And Discrimination 7.0 Introduction 7.1 Unit Objective 7.2 Stereotype 7.2.1

How Members of Different Groups Perceive Inequality? 7.2.2 Nature And Origins Of Stereotyping 7.3

Prejudice And Discrimination 7.3.1 Techniques To Counter Prejudice And Its Effects 7.4 Unit Summary 7.5 Key Terms 7.6 Check Your Progress 7.0 Introduction

Stereotypes: Beliefs about members of a specific group. Prejudice: Negative feelings towards members of a specific group.

Discrimination: Negative behaviours / actions directed at members of a specific group.

Prejudice is

belief about certain specific groups which may not be expressed in behaviour. When prejudice is expressed in behaviour it is called discrimination. There are many different techniques for countering prejudice and its effects, which are discussed in this unit. 7.1

Unit Objective This unit shall inform the learners on: • Stereotype: Nature And Origins Of Stereotyping • Prejudice And Discrimination 7.2

Stereotype Stereotype - A conventional, formulaic, and oversimplified conception, opinion, or image. A partiality that prevents objective consideration of an issue or situation. A preconceived opinion; bias; sentence passed before proper examination of the circumstances. Stereotypes can be either positive ("black men are good at basketball") or negative ("women are bad drivers"). But most stereotypes tend to make us feel superior in some way to the person or group being stereotyped.

Stereotypes ignore the

uniqueness of individuals by painting all members of a group with the same brush. Prejudice – A prejudice evolves from a stereotype. Prejudices can be positive as well as negative. Positive stereotypes can also lead to discrimination but largely not as harmful as negative. Based on our stereotypes, if we start forming hostile or negative opinions of others or when a person dislikes another for no good reason, or has formed a hostile opinion of someone before even getting to know them it is prejudice. It is in other words a negative judgement or opinion formed about an individual or group without knowledge of the facts. Discrimination -- Treating people in a less favorable way because they are members of a particular group. Discrimination is prejudice in action. Let us take a concrete example. For instance you perceive 'A' community as violent because of stereotyping. You might not show your hatred with words, but your prejudice is there and when you take a negative action you discriminate. For instance if you are the boss of a company and a person from that community applies for a job you already have a prejudice against them and so you might not select the candidate even if he/she is meritorious. This is discrimination. So you see how the three terms described above are interrelated. Thus there is a relationship between stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination. Prejudice and discrimination occur with respect to differences in race, ethnicity, gender, language and a variety of other social categories. Thus, stereotypes and prejudice is a widespread phenomenon, present in all societies of the world. Our society often innocently creates and perpetuates stereotypes, but these stereotypes often lead to unfair discrimination and persecution when the stereotype is unfavorable.

Social perception involves the development of an attitude towards another person or group of persons.

A stereotype is an attitude towards a person or group on the basis of some physical characteristic or physical fact. A "stereotype" is a generalisation about a person or group of persons. We develop stereotypes when we are unable or unwilling to obtain all of the information we would need to make fair judgments about people or situations. In the absence of the "total picture," stereotypes in many cases allow us to "fill in the blanks." For example, if we are walking through a dark lane at night and encounter three senior citizens wearing kurtas and having walking sticks, we may not feel as threatened as if we were met by three college-aged boys wearing jeans and leather jackets. Why is this so? We have made a generalisation in each case. These generalisations have their roots in experiences we have had in the past,

read about in books and magazines, seen in movies or television, or have been narrated to us by friends and family. In many cases, these stereotypical generalisations are reasonably accurate. Yet, in virtually every case, we are resorting to prejudice by ascribing characteristics about a person based on a stereotype, without knowledge of the total facts.

For instance we may assume that a person from 'A' community will be illiterate or backward. Sometimes we may have positive over generalisations or stereotypes like all Tamilians are good in Mathematics. Television, books, comic strips, and movies are all abundant sources of stereotyped characters. For example the Sardar jokes in movies and joke books depicting them to be foolish, Afro- Americans portrayed as being unintelligent, lazy, or violence-prone. As a result of viewing these stereotyped pictures or news items, we encourage prejudice. So generally prejudice would emerge from a stereotype. Social psychologists define a stereotype as the cognitive component of the prejudiced attitude. It is defined as a generalisation about a group whereby identical characteristics are assigned to virtually all members, regardless of actual variation among the members. Prejudice is defined as the affective component - hostile or negative attitude toward a distinguishable group of people based solely on their group membership and discrimination is the behavioral component of the prejudiced attitude - an unjustified negative or harmful action toward members of a group based on their membership. Possible prejudicial effects of stereotypes are: • Justification of ill-founded prejudices or ignorance.

- Unwillingness to rethink one's attitudes and behaviour towards stereotyped groups.
- Negative attitudes towards different social groups resulting in hatred, alienation.
- Preventing some people of stereotyped groups from entering or succeeding in activities or fields.

In simple words stereotypes distort our perceptions. Once a stereotype is activated, these traits come easily to the mind and will affect the way we perceive things. Another important ill effect is we will tend to attend more to stereotype-consistent information and reject information that does not conform to the stereotype we have. Thus, stereotypes obviously influence social judgments we make about the other group, they influence how much we like or dislike a person or a given group.

7.2.1 How Members of Different Groups Perceive Inequality? People's perceptions always have to be analysed carefully and critically and there can be several reasons why society may be considered unequal. First of all, the inequality may be structurally reproduced. This means that the existing system in a society does not guarantee people justice principles that are promised by the state and expected by the people. It means that people's basic needs in a society are not satisfied, equal liberties are not guaranteed, there is discrimination, no equal opportunity to get ahead in life and the input of people is not fairly rewarded. If structural inequality exists then everybody should notice that. Empirically it means that all or at least the majority of people in a society should perceive high inequality – independent of their own socio- economic position. The perceived inequality is often influenced by personal experiences. People who have a higher socio-economic position usually think they have achieved their status in a fair competition. On the other hand, people in a lower position in a society tend to think that the reasons for them to be unsuccessful are restrictions created by the society and the structural system. Generally it can be seen that people from lower socio-economic status perceive more inequality and vice versa. So an assumption can be made that perceived inequality depends on the individual's position in a society. There are many types of inequality that lead one group to perceive the other group as less equal. E.g. Racial inequality. Racial group – a category of people who have been singled out, by others

or themselves, as inferior or superior, on the basis of subjectively selected physical characteristics such as skin colour, hair texture and eye shape. E.g. White or non-white. Racism is a set of attitudes, beliefs and practices used to justify the superior treatment of one racial or ethnic group and the inferior treatment of another racial or ethnic group. Another very old and strong inequality that exists is gender inequality. Gender inequality leads to gender prejudice called sexism. It is a term coined in the mid 20th century, refers to the belief or attitude that one gender or sex is inferior to, less competent, or less valuable than the other. Gender Prejudice is a universal phenomenon though more rampant in less advanced countries. India is a good example of rampant gender prejudice. In addition, today we have perceived regional and caste inequalities, religion, etc., all reasons for perceived inequalities to come into play. We see people from other religions as different and begin to associate negative characteristics with them. Some of the different forms of prejudice arising from perceived inequality is given in the table below.

Prejudice	Inequality felt on the basis of differences in
Example Racism / anti-Semitism	Skin, colour, Race
Religion	Culture, Dress
Country/origin	White, black, yellow
Caucasian, Asian, Arab etc.	Moslem, Hindu, Christian
Asian, American, oriental etc.	Sari, headscarf, burkha,
Country developed/developing	Classism
Economic class	Intellectual class
Social	class
Poor or rich	College degree, Blue-collar, White collar etc
Social group, interests, activities, sport, etc.	Sexism
sex and gender	Sexual or gender orientation
Male, female, girls, boys, men, heterosexual, homosexual.	Lookism
Appearance and looks	Attractive, unattractive, facial, body features, etc
Ableism	Physical and Mental Ability
Differently abled, strengths, weaknesses, intelligence, etc.	Ageism
Age	Adults, youths, elderly, etc.

7.2.2 Nature And Origins of Stereotyping From where does stereotype and prejudice emerge? Why do they exist? Why do people even today carry stereotypes leading to prejudice and discrimination? There are many possible sources from where this stems. 1.

Direct inter-group conflict (competition as a source of Prejudice): It is sad but true that people want and value most good jobs, nice homes, high status,

which is always in short supply. This fact serves as the oldest explanation for stereotypes and prejudice. This is the realistic conflict theory, the view that prejudice stems from direct competition between various social groups over valued commodities and opportunities. 2. The social learning view : A second explanation for the origins of stereotype and prejudice is straightforward. It suggests that prejudice is learned and that it develops in the same manner and through the same basic mechanisms as other attitudes towards social groups because we hear such views expressed by parents, teachers and others and because they are directly rewarded for adopting such views. Another reason is also conformity with social norms or with groups to which they belong. The development of stereotype and prejudice comes from this tendency. "If the members of my group dislike them, then so should I." 3.

Social categorization: Us versus–Them Effect : A third perspective on the origins of stereotyping and prejudice begins with this basic fact that

people generally divide the social world into two distinct categories Us and Them– social categorization Ingroup is us and the Outgroup is them. Persons in the Ingroup are perceived favourably while those in the latter are perceived more negatively. This tendency to make more favourable and flattering attributions about members of one's group than members about the other group is known as the ultimate attribution error. Research evidence shows that individuals

seek to enhance their self-esteem by identifying with some special groups. And so the final result is inevitable, each group seeks to view itself better than the rivals.

Thus, one of the important sources of stereotyping and prejudice is to divide our world into two opposing camps. 4.

Outgroup Homogeneity Effect: Tendency for social perceivers

to assume there is greater similarity among members of outgroups than among members of ingroups.

Sometimes we come across statements like, you know what they are like? "They are all the same if you have met one you have met all" this means members of our group are more similar than the ingroup. 7.3 Prejudice and Discrimination

It is important to understand how our perception of inequality leads to forming outgroups. Beliefs about the characteristics of social groups and members of these groups are known social stereotypes. And prejudice is the unjustifiable attitude towards outgroups. This could sometimes include negative feelings like hatred, anger, fear, dislike, disgust, etc., Example, You may be denied housing or a job because you belong to a particular group or category. Stereotypes are pre-learned from parents, adults, peers, media. Ruscher's research (2001) shows that even four year olds stereotype about appropriate activities for boys and girls. Children acquire negative attitudes toward various social groups through direct and vicarious learning experiences. Parents, teachers, friends, the mass media all play roles in the development of prejudice. Consider how minority groups or the two genders have been portrayed in the media. Some even argue that we are "born" with a bias to perceive dark stimuli as more fearful than lighter stimuli or fair colour. Prejudice is an extreme stereotype. The cognitive component is the stereotype; the affective component is a feeling of liking or disliking; the behavioural component is the various types of discriminatory action. Feelings and actions towards the social groups can progress, according to Allport, in five stages: (1) Anti-locution comprising such things as malicious gossips, verbal put downs and nasty jokes; (2) avoidance;

(3) discrimination— when the object of the stereotype is excluded from certain rights; (4) physical attack; (5) extermination.

Allport's definition (1954) of prejudice is, "an antipathy based on faulty and inflexible generalisation directed towards a group as a whole or towards an individual because he is a member of that group. It may be felt or expressed." Feelings and actions towards different social groups are fairly stable over time, which means that once you have a prejudice then you will keep it.

Many research studies demonstrate that people often recall those facts that support their stereotype. Thus, a filtering process reinforces and sustains prejudice. Why Do Stereotypes leading to Prejudice and discrimination persist? Confirmation bias:

People look for confirming evidence to support the stereotype they hold Ethnocentrism: ● The belief that one's own ethnic group, nation, or religion, region or language is superior to all others and a corresponding disdain for all other groups. ● Aids survival by making people feel attached to their own group and willing to work on their group's behalf. Intergroup conflict: ● People favour ingroups over outgroups in order to enhance their self-esteem ● Our self-esteem has 2 components: 1) personal identity 2) social identities (based on the groups we belong to) 7.3.1

Techniques To Counter Prejudice And Its Effects Given that prejudice is common in all human societies and exerts damaging effects both on the victims and on those who hold such views, the important question to address is 'Is it possible to remove prejudice? What steps can be taken to do this? Considering the growing prejudice among

people over religion, region, language, race, it seems almost like prejudice is inevitable. But stereotyping and prejudice can be definitely reduced to a large extent by becoming aware and educating ourselves. And with a concentrated multi-pronged approach we can do many things to counter prejudice. 1. Teaching children Acceptance Instead of Bigotry

(narrowmindedness): Homes and schools are places where children learn to get their generalisations leading to stereotypes. It is the responsibility of parents, teachers to bring their children up with acceptance and positive attitudes towards other groups and be role models. Because often the attitudes and prejudiced notions are not necessarily taught but 'caught' from adults and the environment the children operate in. There is sufficient evidence, today, that teachers can be victims of bias and prejudice and can reflect in their classrooms. 2. Teaching children from an early age to respect all groups: We must teach children,

including ones very different from their own - prejudice can be nipped in the bud or at least curbed. Valuing Diversity is very important. Ethnocentrism should be discouraged. The education of young children should promote respect for a multicultural society and tolerance and acceptance virtues that need to be developed quite consciously. 3. Increased Intergroup Contact:

This is based on the Contact hypothesis: the theory that direct contact between hostile groups will reduce prejudice. Recent findings indicate that if people merely know that friendly contact

between members of their own group and members of various out groups (groups in which we do not belong) is possible, their prejudice towards these groups can be sharply reduced. E.g., The various Mohalla committees that operate in different areas after the 1992 communal riots in Mumbai are based on this reasoning that increased inter-group contact can remove prejudice and hatred. However, there are some conditions like the groups interacting must be roughly equal in status, the contact situation must involve cooperation and not competition. They should work towards shared goals and the setting should help them understand each other better. In short, direct intergroup contact can be an effective tool to combat cross-group prejudice. 4. Recategorization: redrawing the boundary between 'Us and Them': Once individuals mentally include people, once excluded from their ingroup (groups in which we belong) within it, prejudice toward them may disappear. Reminding people that they are part of

large groups - for instance, that they are all Indians, Americans Canadians or even human beings - can help accomplish this kind of recategorization. 5. Undermining-Stereotypes: Stereotypes suggest that all persons belonging to specific social groups alike - they share the same characteristics. Such beliefs can be weakened if people are encouraged to think about others as individuals not simply as members of social groups. Also, some evidence suggests that affirmative action programs in schools and colleges, offices may actually encourage positive perceptions and the persons who benefit from them will look at people and events more objectively. This will serve to counter prejudice by undermining(deflating) stereotypes. There must be an effort to look down upon people with prejudiced attitudes. 6. Reducing Prejudice through Cognitive interventions: Weakening stereotypes: Stereotypes involve category-driven processing -- thinking about others in terms of their membership in social categories or groups. Stereotypes can be reduced if persons can be made to engage in attribute-driven processing -- thinking about the unique characteristics of individuals and objective judgement. 7. Cooperative activities: Cooperative activities such as team building exercises, workshops involving games that help to remove bias and prejudice should be carried out in schools, colleges, work places, etc. It is a good way to reduce animosity and bitterness that stems from low self esteem and stereotyped attitudes. Thus, non-competitive contact between in and out groups

in terms of equal status and the pursuit of common, superordinate goals which are attainable by cooperation is the way forward. 8. Media responsibility: Instead of perpetuating stereotypes the media should take responsibility to remove prejudices and negative attitudes. It is the responsibility of every individual to be aware of the stereotypes and take care so as to not to discriminate and create a more equitable society. 9. Role of educational institutions: Educational inequality leads to bias and discrimination. High standards of educational experience should be available to every student. In addition schools and colleges have to deal with so many other situations that cause prejudice and hatred. Efforts to address bias, prejudice and discrimination should be comprehensive in nature.

7.4

Unit Summary

Stereotype - A conventional, formulaic, and oversimplified conception, opinion, or image. A partiality that prevents objective consideration of an issue or situation. A preconceived opinion; bias; sentence passed before proper examination of the circumstances. Stereotypes can be either positive ("black men are good at basketball") or negative ("women are bad drivers"). But most stereotypes tend to make us feel superior in some way to the person or group being stereotyped. Stereotypes ignore the

uniqueness of individuals by painting all members of a group with the same brush. Prejudice – A prejudice evolves from a stereotype. Prejudices can be positive as well as negative. Positive stereotypes can also lead to discrimination but largely not as harmful as negative. Based on our stereotypes, if we start forming hostile or negative opinions of others or when a person dislikes another for no good reason, or has formed a hostile opinion of someone before even getting to know them it is prejudice. It is in other words a negative judgement or opinion formed about an individual or group without knowledge of the facts. Discrimination -- Treating people in a less favorable way because they are members of a particular group. Discrimination is prejudice in action. Let us take a concrete example. For instance you perceive 'A' community as violent because of stereotyping. You might not show your hatred with words, but your prejudice is there and when you take a negative action you discriminate. For instance if you are the boss of a company and a person from that community applies for a job you already have a prejudice against them and so you might not select the candidate even if he/she is meritorious. This is discrimination. So you see how the three terms described above are interrelated. 7.5

Key Terms • In social psychology, a stereotype is a generalised belief about a particular category of people. It is an expectation that people might have about every person of a particular group. • Prejudice is an unjustified or incorrect attitude (usually negative) towards an individual based solely on the individual's membership of a social group. For example, a person may hold prejudiced views towards a certain race or gender etc. (e.g. sexist).

7.6 Check Your Progress 1) What did you understand by the term "Stereotype"? 2) How Members of Different Groups Perceive Inequality? 3) What are Prejudice and Discrimination? 4) What are the techniques to counter prejudice and its effects ?

Unit 8 Group Dynamics 8.0 Introduction 8.1 Unit Objective 8.2 Groups 8.3

Groups: When we join and when we leave. 8.4 The Benefits of Joining

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Group 8.5 The Composition and Functions of Groups 8.5.1 Social Norms 8.5.2 Social Roles 8.5.3 Group Cohesiveness 8.5.4 Group Diversity 8.6 Types of Groups 8.7 Unit Summary 8.8 Key Terms 8.9 Check Your Progress 8.0 Introduction

Groups are a fundamental part of social life. As we see they can be very small - just two people - or very large. They can be highly rewarding to their members and to society as a whole, but there are also significant problems and dangers with them. All this makes them an essential focus for research, exploration and action. 8.1

Unit Objective This Unit shall inform the learners on: • Groups: Definition •

Groups: When we join and when we leave. • The Benefits of Joining

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Group • The Composition and Functions of Groups: Social Norms, Social Roles, Group Cohesiveness, Group Diversity • Types of Groups

8.2 Groups

A group consists of two or more people who interact and are interdependent

in the sense that their needs and goals cause them to influence each other (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Lewin, 1948; Turner, 1982). (However, groups are usually larger than two, with two people sometimes referred to as a dyad instead; Moreland, 2010.) Like a president's advisers working together to reach a foreign policy decision, citizens meeting to solve a community problem, or people who have gathered to blow off steam at a party, groups consist of people who have assembled for a common purpose. Think for a moment of the number of groups to which you belong. Don't forget to include your family, campus groups (such as clubs or political organisations), community groups, sports teams, and more temporary groups (such as your classmates in a small seminar). All of these count as groups because you interact with the other members and you are interdependent: You influence them, and they influence you.

As researchers turned to the systematic exploration of group life, different foci for attention emerged. Some social psychologists looked at the ways in which, for example, working in the presence of others tends to raise performance (Allport 1924). Others looked at different aspects of the group process. Kurt Lewin (1948), for example, found that nearly all groups were based on interdependence among their members – and this applied whether the group was large or small, formally structured or loose, or focused on this activity or that. In a famous piece Lewin wrote, 'it is not similarity or dissimilarity of individuals that constitutes a group, but interdependence of fate' (op. cit.: 165). In other words, groups come about in a psychological sense because people realise they are 'in the same boat' (Brown 1988: 28). "Hundreds of fish swimming together are called a school. A pack of foraging baboons is a troupe. A half dozen crows on a telephone line is a murder. A gam is a group of whales. But what is a collection of human beings called? A group. [C]ollections of people may seem unique, but each possesses that one critical element that defines a group: connections linking the individual members.... [M]embers are linked together in a web of interpersonal relationships. Thus,

a group is defined as two or more individuals who are connected to one another by social relationships". [

Donelson R. Forsyth (2006: 2-3)]

In part differences in definition occur because writers often select those things that are of special importance in their work and then posit 'these as the criteria for group existence' (Benson 2001: 5). This said, it is possible, as Jarlath F. Benson has done, to identify a list of attributes: ● A set of people engage in frequent interactions. ● They identify with one another. ● They are defined by others as a group. ● They share beliefs, values, and norms about areas of common interest. ● They define themselves as a group. ● They come together to work on common tasks and for agreed purposes (Benson 2000: 5). 8.3 Groups: When we join and when we leave. Group Formation : Well functioning groups do not just form out of the blue. It takes time for a group to develop to a point where it can be effective and where all members feel connected to it. Bruce Tuckman has identified four stages that characterise the development of groups. Understanding these stages can help determine what is happening with a group and how to manage what is occurring. These four group development stages are known as forming, storming, norming, and performing as described below and the skills needed to successfully guide a group through these stages are described. 1. Forming : This is the initial stage when the group comes together and members begin to develop their relationship with one another and learn what is expected of them. This is the stage when team building begins and trust starts to develop. Group members will start establishing limits on acceptable behaviour

through experimentation. Other members' reactions will determine if a behaviour will be repeated. This is also the time when the tasks of the group and the members will be decided. 2. Storming: During this stage of group development, interpersonal conflicts arise and differences of opinion about the group and its goals will surface. If the group is unable to clearly state its purposes and goals or if it cannot agree on shared goals, the group may collapse at this point. It is important to work through the conflict at this time and to establish clear goals. It is necessary that there should be discussion so everyone feels heard and can come to an agreement on the direction the group is to move in. 3. Norming: Once the group resolves its conflicts, it can establish patterns of how to get its work done. Expectations of one another are clearly articulated and accepted by members of the group. Formal and informal procedures are established in delegating tasks, responding to questions, and in the process by which the group functions. Members of the group come to understand how the group as a whole operates. 4. Performing: During this final stage of development, issues related to roles, expectations, and norms are no longer of major importance. The group is now focused on its task, working intentionally and effectively to accomplish its goals. The group will find that it can celebrate its accomplishments and that members will be learning new skills and sharing roles. After a group enters the performing stage, it is unrealistic to expect it to remain there permanently. When new members join or some people leave, there will be a new process of forming, storming, and norming engaged as everyone learns about one another. External events may lead to conflicts within the group. To remain healthy, groups will go through all of these processes in a continuous loop. When conflict arises in a group, do not try to silence the conflict or to run from it. Let the conflict come out into the open so people can discuss it. If the conflict is kept under the surface, members will not be able to build trusting relationships and this could harm the group's effectiveness. If handled properly, the group will come out of the conflict with a stronger sense of cohesiveness than before. 8.4 The Benefits of Joining

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Group 1) Sharing common interests: If you joined a group of weekend bikers, you already know what the central topic and subtopics are. You'll probably talk about motorcycle magazines, accessories, maintenance, detailing and tuned exhaust pipes. You will also share a bunch of biking stories, run-ins with the law, and near misses that could make the hairs on the back of everyone's necks stand at attention. 2) Flow of new ideas: Imagine giving, receiving and recommending tips, tools and pointers that foster your group's growth. You get to pool together the resources of your entire group to solve problems, share tactics and testify to success stories. 3) Minimal investment: Most special interest groups, clubs or organisations do not charge high dues for membership. Their goal is to build a steady, growing membership.

It's

when

you get involved with business groups, investment clubs and marketing mentorship you

can expect to pay anywhere from two- to four-figures a month. 4) Networking opportunities: You can expand your business network and exposure through word-of-mouth marketing, referrals and sponsored events. The more people know and like you-the more business will come your way.

It's easier to land a

big account if someone in your sphere of influence puts in a good word for you. 5) Forming new friendships and alliances: This is the icing on the cake. Not only do you share common interests already, but also you get to share it with people you like. And you get to look forward to deeper and more meaningful experiences the more time you spend together. 8.5

The Composition and Functions of Groups The groups to which you belong probably vary in size from a few members to several dozen members. Most groups, however, have three to six members (Desportes & Lemaine, 1988; Levine & Moreland, 1998; McPherson, 1983). If groups become too large, you cannot interact with all the members; for example, the college or university that you attend is not a group because you are unlikely to meet and have interdependent goals with every other student. 8.5.1 Social Norms Social norms are a powerful determinant of our behaviour (Hogg, 2010; Kameda, Takezawa, & Hastie, 2005; Sanfey, Stallen, & Chang, 2014). All societies have norms about which behaviours are acceptable, some of which all members are expected to obey (e.g., we should be quiet in libraries) and some of which vary from group to group (e.g., what is appropriate to wear to weddings and funerals). If you belong to a fraternity or sorority, you can probably think of social norms that govern behaviour in your group, such as whether alcoholic beverages are consumed and how you are supposed to feel about rival fraternities or sororities. It is unlikely that your singing group, drama ensemble, or other groups to which you belong share these same exact norms. The power of norms to shape behaviour becomes clear when we violate them too often: We are shunned by other group members and, in extreme cases, pressured to leave the group (Jetten & Hornsey, 2014; Marques, Abrams, & Serodio, 2001; Schachter, 1951).

8.5.2 Social Roles Most groups have a number of well-defined social roles, which are shared expectations in a group about how particular people are supposed to behave (Ellemers & Jetten, 2013; Hare, 2003). Whereas norms specify how all group members should act, roles specify how people who occupy certain positions in the group should behave. In a business, a boss and an employee occupy different roles and are expected to act in different ways in that setting. Like social norms, roles can be very helpful because people know what to expect from each other. When members of a group follow a set of clearly defined roles, they tend to be satisfied and perform well (Barley & Bechky, 1994; Bettencourt & Sheldon, 2001). There are, however, potential costs to social roles. People can get so far into a role that their personal identities and personalities get lost. Suppose that you agreed to take part in a 2-week psychology experiment in which you were randomly assigned

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to play the role of a guard or a prisoner in a simulated prison.

You might think that the role you were assigned to play would not be very important; after all, everyone knows that it is only an experiment and that people are just pretending to be guards or prisoners. Philip Zimbardo and his colleagues, however, had a different hypothesis. They believed that social roles can be so powerful that they overwhelm our personal identities to the point that we become the role we are playing. To test this idea, Zimbardo and colleagues conducted a highly unusual (and controversial) study. They built

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a mock prison in the basement of the psychology department at Stanford University

and paid students to play the role of guard or prisoner (Haney, Banks, & Zimbardo, 1973; Zimbardo, 2007). The role students played was determined by the flip of a coin. Guards were outfitted with a uniform of khaki shirts and pants, a whistle, a police nightstick, and reflective sunglasses. Prisoners were given a loose-fitting smock with an identification number stamped on it, rubber sandals, a cap made from a nylon stocking, and a locked chain attached to one ankle. The researchers planned to observe the students for 2 weeks to see whether they began to act like real prison guards and prisoners. As it turned out, the students quickly assumed these roles— so much so that the researchers ended the experiment after only 6 days. Many of the guards became abusive, coming up with increasingly creative ways of verbally harassing and humiliating the prisoners. The prisoners became passive, helpless, and withdrawn. Some prisoners, in fact, became so anxious and depressed that they had to be released from the study earlier than the others. Remember, everyone knew that they were in a psychology experiment and that the prison was only make-believe. But the roles of guard and prisoner were so compelling and powerful that this simple truth was often overlooked. People got so far into their roles that their personal identities and sense of decency somehow got lost. In fact, one major methodological criticism of Zimbardo's study—beyond the obvious ethical questions regarding the treatment of research participants— is that the students quickly figured out what the study was about and role-played in the manner that they thought was expected of them (Banuazizi & Movahedi, 1975; Griggs & Whitehead, 2014). But what is clear is that it didn't take coercion, bribery, or weeks and weeks of training to prompt these "guards" and "prisoners" to slip easily into their roles and that, in particular, some of the student guards clearly and quickly took things much too far.

8.5.3 Group Cohesiveness

Another important aspect of how a group functions is how cohesive it is. Group cohesiveness refers to the qualities of a group that bind members together and promote mutual liking (Dion, 2000; Hogg, 1993; Holtz, 2004; Rosh, Offermann, & Van Diest, 2012). If a group has formed primarily for social reasons, such as a group of friends who like to go to the movies together on weekends, then the more cohesive the group is, the better. This is pretty obvious; would you rather spend your free time with a bunch of people who don't care much for each other or a tight-knit bunch of people who feel committed to you and other group members? As you would expect, the more cohesive a group is, the more its members are likely to stay in the group, take part in group activities, and try to recruit new like-minded members (Levine & Moreland, 1998; Pickett, Silver, & Brewer, 2002; Spink, Ulvick, Crozier, & Wilson, 2014). If the function of the group is to work together and solve problems, however—as it is for a military unit or sales team at a company—then the story is not quite so simple. Doing well on a task causes a group to become more cohesive (Mullen & Cooper, 1994; Picazo, Gamero, Zornoza, & Peiró, 2014), but is the reverse true? Does cohesiveness cause a group to perform well? It does if the task requires close cooperation between the group members, such as the case of a football team executing a difficult play or a military unit carrying out a complicated manoeuvre (Casey-Campbell & Martens, 2009; Gully, Devine, & Whitney, 1995). Sometimes, however, cohesiveness can get in the way of optimal performance if maintaining good relations among group members becomes more important than finding good solutions to a problem.

8.5.4 Group Diversity

Related to cohesiveness is the matter of how diverse a group's composition is. More often than not, members of a group tend to be alike in age, sex, beliefs, and opinions (Apfelbaum, Phillips, & Richeson, 2014; George, 1990; Levine & Moreland, 1998). There are at least two reasons for the relative homogeneity of groups. First, many groups tend to attract people who are already similar before they join (Alter & Darley, 2009; Feld, 1982). People are attracted to others who share their attitudes and thus are likely to recruit fellow group members who are similar to them. Second, groups tend to operate in ways that encourage similarity in the members (Moreland, 1987). In short, people tend to gravitate toward groups with similar others, and such similarity typically predicts group cohesiveness. Consider a study conducted by McLeod, Lobel, and Cox (1996) in which college students were assigned to brainstorming groups ranging in size from three to five. Half of these groups were comprised entirely of White students. That is, these groups were not diverse at all with regard to race—they were racially homogeneous. The other half of the groups were racially diverse, including White students as well as Asian American, African American, and/or Latino students. All groups, regardless of their diversity, were assigned the same task: to spend 15 minutes brainstorming ideas for how best to attract more tourists to the United States. At the end of each session, participants were asked how much they liked the other members of their group. As you might predict based on the conclusion that homogeneous groups are often cohesive, members of all-White groups reported liking their fellow group members more than did members of diverse groups. But remember that just because a group is cohesive does not mean it is performing at its optimal level. Indeed, when McLeod and colleagues (1996) analyzed the ideas each group developed for

boosting tourism, they found that the diverse groups had come up with more feasible and effective possibilities. Participants may have enjoyed being in a group with similar others, but their performance was strongest when in a diverse group. These findings are consistent with more general conclusions that while diversity—of all types, not just related to race—can sometimes come at the expense of a group’s cohesiveness and morale, a diversity of backgrounds or perspectives often predicts improved performance in terms of group creativity, information sharing, and flexible problem solving (De Dreu & Weingart, 2003; Phillips, Mannix, Neale, & Gruenfeld, 2004; Sommers, 2006). There is no simple answer to the question of how diversity affects groups (Apfelbaum et al., 2014; Mannix & Neale, 2005; van Knippenberg, van Ginkel, & Homan, 2013). For that matter, as we just alluded to, there are many ways to define a group’s diversity—in terms of race and other social demographics, sure, but also diversity in terms of experience, education, attitude, and other dimensions. Increasingly, though, a variety of organisations seem to be betting on the positive potential of diversity. There is a reason why institutions such as universities, the military, and Fortune 500 companies currently spend effort and resources to achieve diversity in their ranks: They believe that it will lead to improved performance, whether in terms of learning environment or the corporate bottom line (Herring, 2009; Page, 2008). In a more recent experimental study using a stock market simulation, researchers found that traders randomly assigned to an ethnically diverse marketplace made better, more accurate decisions about how to price stocks than did equally experienced traders assigned to a homogeneous market, supporting the conclusion that the friction caused by diversity can upend conformity and improve decision making (Levine et al., 2015). And still other research indicates that the threats to cohesiveness and morale posed by diversity are usually short term, lessening over time as group members learn to work with one other and even come to take pride in their group’s diversity (Allmendinger & Hackman, 1995; Jehn, Northcraft, & Neale, 1999). In short, while no one ever said navigating diversity would be easy, research findings support the proposition that group diversity often brings with it a variety of long-term performance benefits.

8.6 Types of Groups We can classify groups in different ways. First, it can be divided into two main parts considering the degree of intimacy as the basis of classification.

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Primary group: There is an intimate face-to-face relationship among the members and the members are having ‘we feeling’ to the maximum. Family, play groups

and village communities come under this category. • Secondary group: Here

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the relationships are more or less casual and marked by common interest. Clubs, trade unions etc. are under this category. •

In-group/ we group: Here we identify ourselves with that group which has a

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common object and common interest. They have a sense of ‘we’ feeling. The members of the in groups treat others as outsiders. These groups can be formed on the basis of relationship,

same country, similar political interests and economic interests etc. • Out-group: It is the group

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in which the members are considered as outsiders by us. Groups other than

the in-group are generally called out-groups. On the basis of norms and rules, groups can be categorised into the following types: •

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Formal group: It is generally formed on the basis of specific norms, rules and values. The group of students in a classroom comes under the category of formal group. So, school is one of the formal group settings. • Informal group: The nature of the group is not formed at all. The rules are usually flexible. Play groups, peer groups and social clubs etc. are examples of informal groups.

Besides the above two,

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groups can also be classified into various categories as given below: • Organised groups: The groups which are formed for specific purposes and are carefully planned are called organised groups. The family, the school etc. are also called organised groups. • Spontaneous groups: The groups are formed without any careful planning. Audience may be considered as

a spontaneous group after listening to the speech by a renowned speaker. •

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Command groups: Command groups are specified by the organisational chart. It consists of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to the supervisor. • Task groups: A group of people work together to achieve a common task. In many situations there is a specified time period. This can be referred to as task forces. • Functional groups: Functional

groups are

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generally created by the organisation to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional

groups

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generally exist after achievement of current goals and objects. • Interest groups: It usually continues over time and may last longer than general informal groups. It is seen that

the interest of the member

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may not be part of the same organisational department but they are bound by some common interest. • Friendship groups: It may be of different types. These groups are formed by the members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values and other common bonds. • Reference groups: This is the group

where the people

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evaluate themselves. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behaviour.

Temporary Group: Studies indicate that temporary groups come together for a certain purpose and disperse after the task is over. These groups have their own unique sequencing of actions. The salient features are: • Their first meeting sets the group's direction. • The first phase of group activity is one of inertia. • A transition takes place at the end of this first phase, which occurs exactly when the group has used up half its allotted time. • A transition initiates major changes. • A second phase of inertia follows the transition. • The group's last meeting is characterised by markedly accelerated activity. There are other types of groups, a few of which are listed below: Clique: An informal, tight-knit group, usually in a High School/College setting, that shares common interests. There is an established yet shifty power structure in most Cliques. The effects of Cliques are varied.

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Club: A club is a group, which usually requires one to apply to become a member. Such clubs may be dedicated to particular activities,

such as sports clubs.

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Community: A community is a group of people with a commonality or sometimes a complex net of overlapping commonalities, often, but not always, in proximity with one another with some degree of continuity over time.

They often have some organisation and leaders.

Franchise: This is an organisation which runs several instances of a business in many

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locations. Gang: A gang is usually an urban group that gathers in a particular area. It is a group of people that often hang around each other. They can be like some clubs, but much less formal.

Group: A group is a basic term for a number of people that associate themselves with each other. This is a basic term which has many uses.

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Mob: A mob is usually a group of people that has taken the law into their own hands. Mobs are usually

a group which gathers temporarily for a particular reason. Posse: A posse was initially an American term for a group of citizens that had banded together to enforce the law. However,

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it can also refer to a street group. Squad: This is usually a small group, of around 3-8 people, that would work as a team to accomplish

a certain goal. Team: This is

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similar to a squad, though a team may contain many more members. A team works in a similar way as a squad. 8.7

Unit Summary •

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A group consists of two or more people who interact and are interdependent

in the sense that their needs and goals cause them to influence each other (Cartwright & Zander, 1968; Lewin, 1948; Turner, 1982). (However, groups are usually larger than two, with two people sometimes referred to as a dyad instead; Moreland, 2010.) Like a president's advisers working together to reach a foreign policy decision, citizens meeting to solve a community problem, or people who have gathered to blow off steam at a party, groups consist of people who have assembled for a common purpose. • The groups to which you belong probably vary in size from a few members to several dozen members. Most groups, however, have three to six members (Desportes & Lemaine, 1988; Levine & Moreland, 1998; McPherson, 1983). If groups become too large, you cannot interact with all the members; for example, the college or university that you attend is not a group because you are unlikely to meet and have interdependent goals with every other student. 8.8 Key Terms •

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Attitude: An enduring system of evaluations or feelings in favour of or against a person or group. •

Belief: Acceptance of a statement about an object, event, person or group. • Cohesiveness: The social force which keeps the group together. •

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Group: A collection of individuals who are in an interdependent relationship with one another sharing common norms of behaviour and attitude. •

Informal group: A group which is not organised. • Group structure: The differences of roles and status relations within a group. •

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Group dynamics: The way in which changes take place in the behaviour of other members of the group. Groups can mobilise powerful forces which may be constructive or destructive. • Peer group:

A primary group composed of persons who are closely alike in age and interests. • Value: Values are ideas about desirable states of affairs shared by the members of a group or culture. 8.9 Check Your Progress 1. Define the term "groups". 2. When and why we join groups and why do we leave a group? 3. What are the benefits of joining a group? 4. What is the composition of a group? 5. What are the functions of a group? 6. What are the types of groups?

Unit 9: Group Influence 9.0 Introduction 9.1 Unit Objective 9.2 Conformity: Group Influence In Action 9.3 Social Interaction and Social Process 9.3.1 Social Contact 9.3.2 Communication 9.4 Cooperation 9.4.1 Types of Cooperation 9.4.2 Role of Cooperation 9.5 Competition 9.5.1 Characteristics of Competition 9.5.2 Value of Competition 9.6 Social Facilitation 9.6.1 Drive Theory of Social Facilitation 9.7 Unit Summary 9.8 Key Terms 9.9 Check Your Progress 9.0 Introduction

Groups with similar attitudes are more cohesive than groups with dissimilar attitudes, successful groups are more cohesive than unsuccessful groups, and groups with clear paths to goals are more cohesive than groups lacking clear paths.

Conformity is

a type of social influence in which individuals change their attitude or behaviour

in order to adhere or to stick to the existing social norms.

Each and every person is a social and cultural being. It is very difficult for people to live in isolation. Human beings always live in various groups and associations. They act and behave in a certain manner. In each and every moment, the behaviour of each individual is affected by the behaviour of others.

Cooperation is an integrating activity and is believed to be the opposite of competition. The word "cooperation" is derived from the two Latin words "co" meaning together and "operari" meaning to work. It is thus a joint activity in pursuit of common goals or shared rewards. It is a goal oriented and conscious form of social interaction. Competition is the most important form of social struggle. According to Anderson and Parker, "Competition is that form of social action in which we strive against each other for the possession of or use of some limited material and non-material goods."

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Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. 9.1

Unit Objective This unit shall inform the learners on: • Conformity: Group Influence In Action • Social Interaction and Social Process • Cooperation • Competition • Social Facilitation 9.2

Conformity: Group Influence In Action

Conformity: A type of social influence in which individuals change their attitude or behaviour

in order to adhere or to stick to the existing social norms. Factors affecting Conformity: Cohesiveness, Group Size, and Type of Social Norms: Cohesiveness and Conformity: We are going to discuss how cohesiveness has

an

impact on conformity. With respect to conformity, cohesiveness can be defined as the degree of attraction felt by an individual toward an influencing group.

Groups with similar attitudes are more cohesive than groups with dissimilar attitudes, successful groups are more cohesive than unsuccessful groups, and groups with clear paths to goals are more cohesive than groups lacking clear paths. A classic finding of social psychology is that when cohesiveness (attraction) is high, pressures toward conformity are magnified. This is a basic reason why most persons are more willing to accept social influence from friends or persons they admire than from others. E.g., if we join a new college and we have been put in a group of students for project work. Over the period, you realise that they have conservative views about educational policies. It is interesting to think whether our own views change as a function of working together with these new friends. There is

a

strong possibility that we may find ourselves agreeing with them more and more as time passes. It may happen because of cohesiveness i.e., Degree of attraction with the group of friends working on the

same project. Conformity and Group Size: Group size has the important effects on the tendency to conform i.e., the size of the influencing group. We are likely to conform to the opinion held by the group if the number of group members holding the same opinion is large i.e., group size is large. However, there is an interesting finding which says that conformity increases with group size up to about three members, but then seems to level off. The possibility for this may be that subject concludes that group members are not expressing individual views but are actually working together to influence them. When too many people agree, therefore, this may be perceived as a signal and tendency to be cautious while conforming. Descriptive and Injunctive Norms:

Descriptive norms are ones indicating what most people do in a given situation. They influence behaviour by informing us about what is generally seen as effective or adaptive behaviour in that situation. e.g., witnessing somebody blow out the cigarette before entering the bus.

In contrast,

injunctive norms specify what ought to be done, what

is approved or disapproved behaviour in a given situation.

e.g., an instruction displayed in the bus "Smoking is prohibited in the public places". The Bases of Conformity: Why We Often Choose to "Go Along"-and What Happens after We Do: One of the basic questions concerning groups is as to what makes people choose to go along with social rules or expectations instead of resisting them? The answer is primarily two types of needs

possessed by all human beings-the desire to be liked or accepted by others and the desire to be right and also the cognitive processes that lead us to view conformity as fully justified after it has occurred.

Here are some of the tactics to make people conform to our opinions, decisions. The Desire to Be Liked: Normative Social Influence: One of the most successful tactics is that we can make conscious efforts to appear to be as similar to others as possible. From childhood, we learn that agreeing with the persons around us, and behaving as they do, causes them to like us.

One important reason we conform is simple: we learn that doing so can generate the approval and acceptance we expect. This source of

social influence- and especially

of conformity-is known as normative social influence, since it involves making others

alter their behaviour to meet our expectations. The Desire to Be Right; Informational Social Influence: There are many matters or topics on which we have strong desire to be correct or appropriate e.g., about questions like which colour of dress suits you best? Whether your political or social views are correct or not? Or Which hair style suits you? However, is there a difficulty in finding a system through which we can accurately get answers to these things? But the solution to these questions is obvious: to answer these questions, there is

a necessity of approaching other people. We use their opinion and their actions as guides for our own. The verbal and non-verbal feedback given by them helps us to satisfy questions mentioned earlier to

a

major extent. Obviously, such reliance on others can be another source of conformity, for in an important sense, other people's actions and opinions define social reality for us.

This source of social influence

is known as informational social influence, since it is based on our tendency to depend upon others as a source of information about many aspects of the social world.

Therefore, we conform to other people's

feedback because there is no availability of alternate systems to get answers to some typical questions or topics discussed earlier. Justifying Conformity: The Cognitive Consequences of Going Along with the Group : Asch reported that some people who conform do so without any much thinking. They conclude that they are wrong and the others are right. For these people, conforming to others poses only a temporary dilemma, at most. However, for many people,

the decision to yield to group pressure and do what others are doing is not so straight but it is more complex. Such persons feel that their own judgement is correct, but at the same time, they do not want to be different from their group; so they behave in ways that are inconsistent with their private beliefs i.e., they follow behaviour or opinion followed by the

group to which they belong. This process can be interpreted as

a

defence mechanism adapted by a person to overcome his anxiety of not following his own opinion. Recent findings suggest that one may involve a tendency to alter their perceptions of the situation so that conformity appears or rather to be justified for his decision to follow group's or others' decision or opinion. Several studies suggest that the decision to conform may be followed by changes in perceptions of the facts that make justification available for conformity. The Need for Individuality and the Need for Control: Why, Sometimes, We Choose Not to Go Along: It becomes important to understand the underlying process or reasons for the ability of an individual to resist even powerful pressures toward conformity. Research findings point to two key factors underlying this process. First, most of us have a desire to maintain our uniqueness or individuality. Even though we have

a tendency to be like others still not to the extent that we lose our personal identity. Most of us possess a desire for individuation-for being distinguished from others in some respects.

Second, many individuals have

a desire to maintain control over the events in their lives. The conforming behaviour develops a feeling of being driven away by external factors, which threatens the desire to control life events. Therefore, they choose to resist group pressures. Most people

want to believe that they can determine what happens to them, and yielding to social pressure sometimes runs counter to this desire. Minority Influence: Does the Majority Always Rule? We have often noted that minorities do influence the

majority on many occasions. It will be interesting to know the process, which makes them successful.

Research findings suggest that they are most likely to succeed under certain conditions,

which are discussed below: First, the members of such minority

groups must be consistent in their opposition to majority opinions. If they show signs of yielding to the majority view, their impact is reduced. Second, the members of the minority must avoid appearing to be rigid and dogmatic.

A minority that merely repeats the same position over and over again is less persuasive than one that demonstrates degree of flexibility. Third,

the general social context in which a minority operates is important. If a minority argues for a position that is consistent with current social trends (

e.g., conservative views at a time of growing conservatism),

its chances of influencing the majority are greater than if it argues for a position that is out of step with such trends.

Symbolic Social Influence: How we are Influenced by others even when they are not there:

Other people can influence us when they are present and trying to do so is not that surprising

but growing evidence suggest that others can influence us even when they are not present and not trying to change our behaviour or thoughts,

a process that can be described as symbolic social influence. Symbolic Social Influence can be defined as social influence resulting from the mental representations of others or of our relationships with them.

It will be interesting to know

how the psychological presence of others in our mental representations of others or of relationship with them influence our behaviour and thought. Some of the explanations are given below: First, we have

relational schemas i.e.,

mental representations of people with whom we have relationships, when these relational schemas are triggered, in turn, goals relevant to them may be activated.

These goals, in turn, can affect our behaviour, our thoughts about ourselves, and our evaluations of others.

e.g., if we think of our professor in university, the goal of respecting and following the instructions given by him/her is activated. Then we become more inclined toward giving respect to other faculty members in the department.

Second,

the psychological presence of others may trigger goals with which

those persons are associated-goals they want us to achieve. For instance, if we have thoughts of our friend, we know that he wants to start a student's movement in college, and our commitment to this goal may be increased and we may put efforts to attain it, especially if we feel very close to him.

Therefore, it is

to the extent that others are psychologically present in our thoughts, the nature of our relationships with them, goals we keep in these relationships

and

goals these people themselves want us to achieve can all be stimulated

or triggered, and these ideas strongly affect our decisions to behave in particular ways. 9.3

Social Interaction and Social Process Each and every person is a social and cultural being. It is very difficult for people to live in isolation. Human beings always live in various groups and associations. They act and behave in a certain manner. In each and every moment, the behaviour of each individual is affected by the behaviour of others. This interaction is the essence of social life. Green defines social interaction as "the mutual influences that affect groups. Also these groups affect one another in their attempts to solve problems and in their striving towards goals". According to Dawson and

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Gettys, "Social interaction is a process whereby men interpenetrate the minds of each other."

Gish defined social interaction as, "it is the reciprocal influence in which human beings exert on each other through inter stimulation and response." Thus we can say that social interaction refers to the entire range of social relationships, wherein there is reciprocal stimulation and response between individuals. Social interaction produces some definite influence upon social relations that exists among human beings. Two essential conditions of social interaction are: i) social contact ii) communication

9.3.1 Social Contact

Social contact can be established through the medium of radio, letters, telephones and other media of communication. Social contact is the first and important phase of interaction. It may be positive or negative. If it is positive, they lead to cooperation, mutual understanding and assimilation. If it is negative, they create hatred, jealousy and conflict. The above forms of social interaction are termed as social processes. Maclver observes, "social process is the manner in which the relations of the members of a group are brought together to acquire a certain distinctive character. According to Gillin and Gillin, "by social processes we mean those ways of interacting by which we can establish a system of relationships or find out what happens when changes of relationships occur or what happens when changes disturb already existing modes of life." In this context we can use three important terms, viz., cooperation, competition and conflict.

9.3.2 Communication

Social interaction requires essential communication. Besides this, communications are essential adjuncts of social contact. Language, gestures, symbols, radio, telephone, television, newspaper etc. are the media for communication. Human interaction is undoubtedly a communicative interaction. In this context, we can further say that social interaction usually takes place in the form of co-operation, competition, conflict, accommodation and assimilation. Cooperation means working together in the pursuit of a common interest. It is a joint activity. It is the conscious form of social interaction where two or more persons work together to gain a common end. Cooperation may be of different types. Cooperation for human beings is both a psychological and social necessity. On the other hand, competition is an unconscious, impersonal and continuous struggle between individuals and groups for satisfaction. It is a contest to obtain something which does not exist in a quantity sufficient to meet the demand. Competition, like co-operation, is indispensable in social life. Competition performs many useful functions in society. At different levels, competition occurs. It may be economic, cultural, social, and political. There is no society which is exclusively competitive or exclusively cooperative. Besides competition and cooperation, conflict is another important process in human relations. Conflict is a conscious action as well as personal activity. It lacks continuity but it is a universal phenomena. Causes of conflict are mainly individual differences, cultural differences, clash of interest, social change etc. Besides this, conflict serves constructive and positive ends. Conflict has both integrative and disintegrative effects.

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Interaction is a two-way process whereby each individual or group stimulates the other and in varying degrees modifies the behaviour of the participants. The behaviour and personality characteristics of individual members of a group affect the behaviour of others and make a significant impact over the functioning of a group as a whole.

The behaviour of each individual is affected by the behaviour of other individuals. This is known as the interaction process and it is the essence of social life. According to Eldredge and Merrill, "social interaction is the general process whereby two or more persons are in meaningful contact as a result of which their behaviour is modified, however slightly." Social interaction refers to the entire range of social relationship, wherein there is reciprocal stimulation and response between individuals. Social interaction is of a dual nature, of persons with persons and of groups with groups. The main forms of social interaction are cooperation, competition, conflict, accommodation and assimilation. Combinations of these are called social processes. Social interaction and social processes are: 1) sequence of events 2) repetition of events 3) relationship between events 4) continuity of events 5) special results. Actually society is an arena where there is expression of different social processes. Social processes are fundamental to the life of a community. Society exists wherever several individuals are in reciprocal relationships. It constitutes an aggregation of individuals in a society. So we can say that there are two forms of social interaction i.e. i) conjunctive ii) disjunctive. Social contact initiates interaction. Social process has a variety of view-points. Social behaviour can be classified on the basis of - (a) their intrinsic nature, (b) the inherent drives, instincts, interests, desires etc. and (c) the observable behaviours upon which observers can agree. We are concerned with the

fundamental types, i.e., cooperating, competition, conflict, accommodation and assimilation. Actually interaction occurs in the form of the above mentioned processes.

9.4 Cooperation

Cooperation is an integrating activity and is believed to be the opposite of competition. The word "cooperation" is derived from the two Latin words "co" meaning together and "operari" meaning to work. It is thus a joint activity in pursuit of common goals or shared rewards. It is a goal oriented and conscious form of social interaction. Actually it involves two elements – (i) common end and (ii) organised effort. It is the process by which individuals or groups combine their effort, in a more or less organised way for the attainment of common objectives. Generally co-operation means working together for a common objective. In many festivals, volunteers work together to collect money from different parts and want to organise the program successfully and everybody wants to stretch forward their hands to celebrate the occasion successfully. Among the members of the group, there seems to be indication of a good interaction process. All of them behave in a co-operative manner. Co-operation is brought about by several factors which includes the following:

- desire for individual benefits
- desire to give and share
- total decision on common purposes
- situational necessity and
- desire to achieve larger goals.

9.4.1 Types of Cooperation

We can classify cooperation into five categories, viz.

- Direct cooperation
- Indirect cooperation
- Primary cooperation
- Secondary cooperation and
- Tertiary cooperation

1. Direct cooperation: The essential characteristics of this kind of cooperation are that people do things in company which can also be done separately. In this category cooperating individuals do things of common interest together and perform identical functions. Playing together, worshipping together are examples of direct cooperation.
2. Indirect cooperation: In this type of cooperation individual work towards a common end each has his own specialised functions. Thus, we can say that indirect cooperation is obtained when people perform dissimilar tasks towards a common end, i.e., each has its specialised role to play. In the modern society it is the indirect cooperation which is more in play than the direct cooperation because technological changes require specialisation of skills and functions.
3. Primary cooperation: There is an identity of interest between the individual and the group. It is the cooperation which is found in primary groups such as family. Not only family but also peer groups are also called primary cooperation where people have to choose face-to-face relations. We can also say that the interest of the individual merges with the interest of the primary group.
4. Secondary cooperation: This type of cooperation is generally found in the secondary group, viz., government, industry, church and trade union etc.
5. Tertiary cooperation: This is the interaction between various big and small groups to meet a particular situation. Here the individual or group who wants to compete with one another, come together and cooperate with each other for a specific purpose. In such a type of cooperation the attitudes of the cooperating parties are purely opportunistic.

9.4.2 Role of Cooperation

It is a universal phenomenon. Cooperation for human beings is both a psychological and social necessity. Individual as well as collective goals can not be achieved without cooperation. Cooperation is essential for maintenance of social order. We can not do anything without cooperation, if we are to live as members of society. Family members cooperate with each other in terms of sharing economic, emotional and social requirements of one another. All the activity in each and every family is done in a cooperative way. People learn their first lesson in cooperation as members of the family. The physical, mental and even the spiritual needs of the individual remain unsatisfied if he does not agree to cooperate with his fellow members

9.5 Competition

Competition is the most important form of social struggle. According to Anderson and Parker, "Competition is that form of social action in which we strive against each other for the possession of or use of some limited material and non-material goods." According to Sutherland, Woodward and Maxwell, "Competition is an impersonal, unconscious continuous struggle which, because of their limited supply, all may not have." Competition is a form of interaction. It is the struggle for position to gain economic status. It occurs whenever there is an insufficient supply of anything that human beings desire - insufficient in the sense that all cannot have as much of it as they wish. Sometimes competition happens because of limited supply and also difficult for equal distribution.

9.5.1 Characteristics of Competition

The characteristics of competition are:

- Competition is impersonal struggle. Park and Burgess defined competition as "interaction without social contact." We can say it is an inter-individual struggle that is impersonal. It is usually not directed against any individual or group in particular.
- Competition is universal. There is no society which is devoid of competition. Not only this, the degree of competition may vary from society to society. It is very common for society as well as culture.
- Competition is considered as conducive to progress. Competition provides the individuals better opportunities to satisfy their desires for new experiences and recognitions.
- Both associative and non-associative dimensions of social processes indicate competition.
- Competition is mainly an unconscious activity but personal competition or rivalry is a conscious activity.
- Competition may create emotional disturbances.
- Competition is an innate tendency.
- Competition is a social phenomenon.
- Degree of competition is determined by social values and social structure.

9.5.2 Value of Competition

Competition is indispensable in social life. Competition performs many powerful functions in society. Sometimes competition is extremely dynamic. It performs five positive functions.

- It helps to determine the status and location of individual members in a system of hierarchy.
- It tends to stimulate the economy, efficiency and inventiveness.
- It tends to enhance one's ego.
- It prevents undue concentration of power in an individual or group of individuals.
- It creates respect for the rules of the same group.

We can say that competition determines who is to perform what function. According to Ross, "Competition performs that broad function of assigning to each individual in his social world. Competition is a progressive force which fulfils and does not necessarily destroy." We can further say that fair competition is conducive to economic as well as social progress. Competition provides the individuals better opportunities to satisfy their desires for new experiences and recognition. It believes in achieved status. Sometimes competition has some negative function. It may lead to frustration. It may lead to monopoly. It may lead to conflict. It may create emotional disturbances. It may develop unfriendly and unfavourable attitudes among the persons or groups toward one another. It is true that unfair competition has the most disintegrating effects. Sometimes unlimited competition leads to monopoly. Competition and cooperation differ in many respects. No society is exclusively competitive or exclusively cooperative. Actually, the social system is a balance between competitive and cooperative forces. But some competition is healthy and fair. 9.6

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Social Facilitation Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. Allport (1920) defined the term social facilitation as one of the improvements in performance produced by the mere presence of others, either as audience or as co-actors that is the persons performing the same task, but independently. Some basic principles are as follows: 1) When arousal increases, the tendency to make dominant responses also increases. 2) Dominant responses may be correct or incorrect for any given task. 3) The presence of another person will facilitate performance when an individual's dominant responses are the correct ones in a given situation or vice-versa. 4) Learning to perform a new task has a significant role in this context. 5) Social facilitation was not always facilitating, sometimes it appears to be misleading. 6) Individuals sometimes believe that their performance may be observed and evaluated by others. 7) There are large individual differences with respect to basic forms of group influence. 8) Evaluation apprehension takes an important role in social facilitation. 9) Good sense improves the performance. 10) Mere presence of others is arousing and influences performance, but that the possibility of being evaluated by others increases even more, and produces even stronger social facilitation effects. 11) When individuals have little reason to pay attention to others present on the scene, social facilitation fails to occur, when they have strong reasons for paying attention to others, social facilitation occurs. 12) Social facilitation is the 'simple type of group influence'.

9.6.1 Drive Theory of Social Facilitation The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is that the presence of others produce increments in arousal, which affect our performance. Thus, it can be said that the presence of others will facilitate performance when a person's dominant responses are the correct ones in a given situation but the presence of others will impair performance, when a person's dominant responses are incorrect in a given situation. When individuals have little reason to pay attention to others present on the scene, social facilitation fails to occur, but when

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they have strong reason for paying attention to others, social facilitation occurs. 9.7

Unit Summary •

Groups with similar attitudes are more cohesive than groups with dissimilar attitudes, successful groups are more cohesive than unsuccessful groups, and groups with clear paths to goals are more cohesive than groups lacking clear paths.

Conformity is

a type of social influence in which individuals change their attitude or behaviour

in order to adhere or to stick to the existing social norms.

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Each and every person is a social and cultural being. It is very difficult for people to live in isolation. Human beings always live in various groups and associations. They act and behave in a certain manner. In each and every moment, the behaviour of each individual is affected by the behaviour of others. • Cooperation is an integrating activity and is believed to be the opposite of competition. The word "cooperation" is derived from the two Latin words "co" meaning together and "operari" meaning to work. It is thus a joint activity in pursuit of common goals or shared rewards. It is a goal oriented and conscious form of social interaction. • Competition is the most important form of social struggle. According to Anderson and Parker, "Competition is that form of social action in which we strive against each other for the possession of or use of some limited material and non-material goods." •

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Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. 9.8

Key Terms •

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Conformity is a type of social influence involving a change in belief or behaviour in order to

fit in with a group. This change is in response to real (involving the physical presence of others) or imagined (involving the pressure of social norms / expectations) group pressure. • Social facilitation is a psychological concept relating to the tendency for the presence of others to improve a person's performance on a task. While this might seem like a straightforward definition, it is actually a very complex concept with many nuances 9.9 Check Your Progress 1. What is conformity? 2. Discuss social interaction and social process both in detail. 3. What is cooperation? What are its kinds and roles? 4. What are the characteristics of competition? 5. What is social facilitation?

Unit 10: Group Influence-2 10.0 Introduction 10.1 Unit Objective 10.2 Leadership in Groups 10.3 Group Effectiveness 10.4 Group Decision Making 10.4.1 Group Polarisation 10.4.2 Group Think 10.5 Conflict In A Group 10.5.1 Causes of Conflict 10.5.2 Outcomes of Conflict 10.5.3 Strategies of Conflict Resolution 10.6 Unit Summary 10.7 Key Terms 10.8 Check Your Progress 10.0 Introduction Another critical issue related to group decision making is the role of a leader in group outcomes. The question of what makes a great leader has intrigued psychologists, historians, and political scientists for some time (Bass, 1998; Chemers, 2000; Fiedler, 1967; Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2013; Klenke, 1996; Simonton, 1987). One of the best-known answers to this question is the great person theory, which maintains that certain key personality traits make a person a good leader, regardless of the nature of the situation the leader faces. The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a sense of status and socialised power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment, thereby sustaining the group as a team. Group decision making is also known as collaborative decision making which refers to the process of taking collective decisions by the members of the group. The decision is taken as well as accepted by all the members of that group. Basically there can be two processes involved in taking group decisions - group polarisation and groupthink. Conflict is a situation in which an individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest. Conflict is the recognition of incompatible interest between the members which may or may not be true (DeDreu & Van Lange, 1995). Conflict is different from competition in a way that conflict is just a perception; whereas, competition includes a behavioural component as well. A conflict may lead to competition but not all competitive behaviours are the result of conflict. 10.1 Unit Objective This unit shall inform the students on: • Leadership in Groups • Group Effectiveness • Group Decision Making • Conflict In A Group 10.2 Leadership in Groups Another critical issue related to group decision making is the role of a leader in group outcomes. The question of what makes a great leader has intrigued psychologists, historians, and political scientists for some time (Bass, 1998; Chemers, 2000; Fiedler, 1967; Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2013; Klenke, 1996; Simonton, 1987). One of the best-known answers to this question is the great person theory, which maintains that certain key personality traits make a person a good leader, regardless of the nature of the situation the leader faces. If the great person theory is true, we ought to be able to isolate the key aspects of personality that make someone an effective leader. Is it a combination of intelligence, charisma, and courage? Is it better to be introverted or extroverted? Should we add a dollop of ruthlessness to the mix as well, as Niccolò Machiavelli suggested in 1513 in his famous treatise on leadership, The Prince? Or do highly moral people make the best leaders?

Great Person Theory The idea that certain key personality traits make a person a good leader, regardless of the situation

Transactional Leaders Leaders who set clear, short-term goals and reward people who meet them

Transformational Leaders Leaders who inspire followers to focus on common, long-term goals

Leadership and Personality People of all different personality types can become successful leaders. Compared to nonleaders, for example, leaders tend to be only slightly more intelligent, extroverted, charismatic, open to new experiences, confident in their leadership abilities, and assertive (Ames & Flynn, 2007; Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Van Vugt, 2006). Surprisingly few personality characteristics correlate strongly with leadership effectiveness, and the relationships that have been found tend to be modest (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; von Wittich & Antonakis, 2011). For example, Dean Simonton (1987, 2001) gathered information about 100 personal attributes of all U.S. presidents, such as their family backgrounds, educational experiences, occupations, and personalities. Only three of these variables— height, family size, and the number of books a president published before taking office—correlated with how effective the presidents were in office. Tall presidents, those from small families, and those who have published books are most likely to become effective leaders, as rated by historians. The other 97 characteristics, including personality traits, were not related to leadership effectiveness at all.

Leadership Styles Although great leaders may not have specific kinds of personalities, they do appear to adopt specific kinds of leadership styles. Transactional leaders set clear, short-term goals and reward people who meet them. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, inspire followers to focus on common, long-term goals (Bass, 1998; Haslam et al., 2013). So while transactional leaders do a good job of making things run smoothly, it is transformational leaders who think outside the box and inspire their followers to exert themselves to meet big-picture goals. Interestingly, these leadership styles are not closely linked with personality traits; it is not as if people are “born to be” one type of leader or the other (Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Nielsen & Cleal, 2011). Further, these styles are not mutually exclusive; in fact, the most effective leader is one who adopts both styles (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). If no one was minding the day-to-day operation of an organisation or people were not being rewarded for meeting short-term objectives, the organisation would suffer. At the same time, it is important to have a charismatic leader who inspires people to think about long-term objectives.

The Right Person in the Right Situation As you know by now, one of the most important tenets of social psychology is that, to understand social behaviour, it is not enough to consider personality traits alone—we must take the social situation into account as well. For example, a business leader can be highly successful in some situations but not in others. Consider the late Steve Jobs, who, at age 21, founded the Apple Computer Company with Stephen Wozniak. Jobs was anything but a traditional suit-and-tie corporate leader. A product of the 1960s counterculture, he turned to computers only after experimenting with LSD, travelling to India, and living on a communal fruit farm. In the days when there were no personal computers, Jobs’s offbeat style was well suited to starting a new industry. Indeed, within 5 years, he had become the leader of a billion-dollar company. But Jobs’s unorthodox style was ill suited to managing a large corporation in a competitive market. Apple’s earnings began to suffer, and in 1985 Jobs was forced out. Undeterred, Jobs co-founded Pixar in 1986, the first major company to make computer-generated animation, and then sold it to the Disney Company in 2006 for \$7.4 billion. And in the 1990s, Apple faced some of the same technological challenges it had at its inception, needing to revamp the operating system for its Macintosh computers and regain market share. Whom did Apple hire to lead this new challenge? Steve Jobs, of course, whose ability to think creatively and inspire his workforce to take risks made him the right person to lead these companies in times when a new direction was called for. A comprehensive theory of leadership thus needs to focus on the characteristics of the leader, the followers, and the situation. The best-known theory of this type is the contingency theory of leadership, which argues that leadership effectiveness depends both on how task oriented or relationship oriented the leader is and on the amount of control and influence the leader has over the group (Fiedler, 1967; Yukl, 2011). There are basically two kinds of leaders, the theory argues: task-oriented leaders, who are concerned more with getting the job done than with workers’

feelings and relationships, and relationship-oriented leaders, who are concerned more with workers' feelings and relationships. Task-oriented leaders do well in high-control work situations, when the leader's position in the company is clearly perceived as powerful and the work needing to be done by the group is structured and well defined (e.g., a corporate manager with control over each worker's performance review and merit raise). They also do well in low control work situations, when the leader is not perceived as powerful and the work needing to be done is not clearly defined (e.g., the supervisor of a newly formed group of volunteers). What about relationship-oriented leaders? They are most effective in moderate-control work situations. Under these conditions, the wheels are turning fairly smoothly, but important work still needs to be done; the leader who can promote strong relations between individual employees will be the most successful. The contingency theory of leadership has been supported in studies of numerous types of leaders, including business managers, college administrators, military commanders, and postmasters (Ayman, 2002; Chemers, 2000; Van Vugt & DeCremer, 1999; Yukl, 2011).

10.3 Group Effectiveness

The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a sense of status and socialised power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment, thereby sustaining the group as a team. Although these are the broader criteria of group effectiveness, organisations and groups differ in their specific criteria of effectiveness. Any group has its own particular environment (socio-cultural and technological), group task and life-span. These specific given circumstances interact with the internal dynamics of the group to produce a particular degree of group effectiveness. There is substantial agreement among psychologists working in the field of group functioning about the classes of factors that influence group outcomes. Among the most useful frameworks for thinking about groups and their effectiveness are the input-process-output models summarised by McGrath (1984). The model reflects that the success of a group (its outcomes) depends upon inputs or resources which the group has to work with (e.g., the members and the task they have been assigned) and the interaction among team members (e.g., communication, conflict, conformity, socialisation, leadership, status, in-group-out-group differentiation, etc.). By influencing the group process, inputs have both direct and indirect effects on group effectiveness. Inputs include resources, such as personnel, tasks, tools and time. Groups composed of more competent people, having appropriate knowledge, skills, and motivation, will on average be more effective than groups with less competent members. Work groups that are functionally diverse have a larger stock of ideas to draw upon, and differences in assumptions that allow them to generate more creative solutions. Members who have expertise in a wide variety of disciplines have the potential to be highly creative, bringing together old ideas in new ways (Hargadon & Sutton, 1997).

10.4 Group Decision Making

Group decision making is also known as collaborative decision making which refers to the process of taking collective decisions by the members of the group. The decision is taken as well as accepted by all the members of that group. Basically there can be two processes involved in taking group decisions.

10.4.1 Group Polarisation

It is a general conception that decisions made by groups are better than those made by individuals. However, it is not always true. Sometimes, decisions taken by groups are more extreme than those taken by the individuals. This

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tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held

by its members is known as group polarisation (Burnstein, 1983). More precisely, during a discussion among group members the initial preference of the group is strengthened leading to the final outcome being a more extreme decision. Hence the group shows a phenomenon of risky shift, (if the initial preference of the group members is towards a riskier decision) to shift towards increased caution (if initial preference of the group is towards a cautious approach). There are two factors which contribute to this phenomenon of group polarisation. First, in order to prove themselves worthy and loyal, the members of the group hold a view which is in line with the group's overall image and simultaneously more extreme than others. For example, in a terrorist group extreme ideas to create chaos will be considered more worthy. Hence members will try to hold views which are more extreme than others. Second, due to persuasion, a group's initial preference gets strengthened leading to extreme decisions.

10.4.2 Group Think Another phenomenon observed in highly cohesive groups is groupthink. Members of a highly cohesive group think that their decisions cannot be wrong and all the members must support the decision taken by the group. Moreover, they are also under pressure to reject any information which is contrary to the group's decision. Once this tendency develops, the group is highly resistant to change its decision. It is the high cohesiveness among group members which is responsible for developing such a tendency among them. Members are so well connected to each other that they think that any member of the group cannot be wrong and even if any member of the group is wrong, it is their moral responsibility to support him/her. Secondly, the norms of a highly cohesive group suggest that the group is superior and infallible. The group sometimes may also fail to share the information relevant to the issue held by their members. This may affect the quality of the decisions taken by the group. This is even more problematic if the unshared information is critical to the decision.

10.5 Conflict In A Group

Conflict is a situation in which an individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest. Conflict is the recognition of incompatible interest between the members which may or may not be true (DeDreu & Van Lange, 1995). Conflict is different from competition in a way that conflict is just a perception; whereas, competition includes a behavioural component as well. A conflict may lead to competition but not all competitive behaviours are the result of conflict.

10.5.1 Causes of Conflict

- In many cases a faulty attribution can lead to conflict (Baron, 1990). After a failure to achieve one's own interest people try to attribute this failure to someone else. If somehow, they attribute this failure to other's interference then they are likely to develop conflict with the suspect interferer.
- Faulty communication may also cause conflict among members. If someone is criticised for his/her action then he/she may feel agitated and thus may develop conflict with the person who has criticised (Cropanzano, 1993). Faulty and improper communication may sometimes develop suspicion about others' interest which also consequently leads to conflict.
- A tendency to consider our views as objective and closest to reality while that of others as biased and selfish leads to conflict (Keltner & Robinson, 1996).
- Initially the poor performance of the group followed by the negative feedback may force the members to blame each other for the group failure. This ultimately generates conflict among them. Studies have been reported showing that the more negative feedback received by the group, higher the level of conflict reported (Peterson & Behfar, 2003).
- A feeling of deprivation and discontentment is developed when any member feels that he/she is not equally useful as the other members of the group are. This may trigger conflict in them.
- Perceived inequity with respect to work share and reward distribution also leads to conflict among the group members.
- Feeling that the other group does not respect norms of our group may also lead to conflict.

10.5.2 Outcomes of Conflict

Just like competition and cooperation, conflict is also a chain reaction. Once it seeds in the thoughts of one party, it becomes visible in their actions and thus generating even more conflict in the mind of one or both the parties. Following may be the possible outcomes of the conflict:

- Poor communication, mistrust and suspicion among the group members.
- Magnification and escalation of even the trivial differences.
- An effort to increase one's own power and legitimacy over the other.
- Formation of sub groups and factions leading to separation in the group.

10.5.3 Strategies of Conflict Resolution

- Introduction of superordinate goal: The organisation may introduce superordinate goals for reducing the conflict among members as well as groups. Superordinate goals are those goals that both the parties having conflict, needs to achieve. These goals can be achieved only by the combined efforts of both the parties. In real life, the super-ordinate goals are usually superior to the conflict interest and are necessary for survival (Sherif, 1958).
- Altering perceptions: Persuasions, education, media appeals etc. change the perception about each other and thus can reduce the conflict.
- Increasing intergroup contacts: Bringing together both the parties involved in a conflict on a neutral ground (task other than conflict interest) may reduce conflict. This gives them a chance to understand each other's stand. Best example of this type of conflict resolution strategy is frequent organisation of friendly cricket matches between India and Pakistan. However, for this technique to be successful the contact needs to be maintained.
- Redrawing group boundaries: Creating conditions in which conflicting parties perceive themselves as a part of a common group can redraw the group boundary and thus reduce the conflict.
- Negotiations: Both parties undergoing conflict can be convinced to achieve a mutually acceptable solution. Such negotiation can help in reducing the conflict significantly. This strategy requires a mediator who allows them to focus on the discussion on relevant issues.
- Structural solutions: Redistribution of the resources according to various principles of justice, viz. The principle of equality (equal distribution), principle of need (distribution according to need) and principle of equity (distribution according to contribution) may reduce the feeling of injustice and therefore, can ease the conflict.
- Respect for other group's norms: Many Times conflict among various groups arises from the feeling that the other group does not respect norms of our group. If, somehow, we are able to instil respect for other groups this conflict may be resolved.

10.6 Unit Summary

- Another critical issue related to group decision making is the role of a leader in group outcomes. The question of what makes a great leader has intrigued psychologists, historians, and political scientists for some time (Bass, 1998; Chemers, 2000; Fiedler, 1967; Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2013; Klenke, 1996; Simonton, 1987). One of the best-known answers to this question is the great person theory, which maintains that certain key personality traits make a person a good leader, regardless of the nature of the situation the leader faces.
- The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a sense of status and socialised power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment, thereby sustaining the group as a team.

- Group decision making is also known as collaborative decision making which refers to the process of taking collective decisions by the members of the group. The decision is taken as well as accepted by all the members of that group. Basically there can be two processes involved in taking group decisions - group polarisation and groupthink.
 - Conflict is a situation in which an individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest. Conflict is the recognition of incompatible interest between the members which may or may not be true (DeDreu & Van Lange, 1995). Conflict is different from competition in a way that conflict is just a perception; whereas, competition includes a behavioural component as well. A conflict may lead to competition but not all competitive behaviours are the result of conflict.
- 10.7 Key Terms • From a psychological perspective, broadly defined, intergroup conflict is the perceived incompatibility of goals or values between two or more individuals, which emerges because these individuals classify themselves as members of different social groups.
- 10.8 Check Your Progress 1. What is leadership in groups? 2. What is group effectiveness? 3. What are the two processes involved in taking group decisions? 4. Discuss the causes of conflicts in a group?
- Module IV: Social Problems & Social Psychology

Unit 11: Understanding Social Problems 11.0 Introduction 11.1 Unit Objective 11.2 What Is a Social Problem? 11.3 Applying Social Psychology to Fix Social Problems 11.4 Unit Summary 11.5 Key Terms 11.6 Check Your Progress

11.0 Introduction The world faces many social problems: poverty and hunger, racism and sexism, drug use and violence, and climate change, to name just a few. Why do these problems exist? What are their effects? What can be done about them? This module tries to answer these questions.

11.1 Unit Objective This Unit intends to inform the learners on:

1. Define "social problem."
2. Explain the objective and subjective components of the definition of a social problem.
3. Understand the social constructionist view of social problems.
4. List the stages of the natural history of social problems.

11.2 What Is a Social Problem? A social problem is any condition or behaviour that has negative consequences for large numbers of people and that is generally recognized as a condition or behaviour that needs to be addressed. This definition has both an objective component and a subjective component. The objective component is this: For any condition or behaviour to be considered a social problem, it must have negative consequences for large numbers of people. How do we know if a social problem has negative consequences? Reasonable people can disagree on whether such consequences exist and, if so, on their extent and seriousness, but ordinarily a body of data accumulates—from work by academic researchers, government agencies, and other sources— that strongly points to extensive and serious consequences. A current example is climate change:

Although the overwhelming majority of climate scientists say that climate change (changes in the earth's climate due to the buildup of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere) is real and serious, fewer than two-thirds of Americans (64 percent) in a 2011 poll said they "think that global warming is happening" (Leiserowitz, Maibach, Roser-Renouf, & Smith, 2011). Leiserowitz, A., Maibach, E., Roser-Renouf, C., & Smith, N. (2011). Climate change in the American mind: Americans' global warming beliefs and attitudes in May 2011. New Haven, CT: Yale Project on Climate Change Communication. This type of dispute points to the subjective component of the definition of social problems: There must be a perception that a condition or behaviour needs to be addressed for it to be considered a social problem. This component lies at the heart of the social constructionist view of social problems (Rubington & Weinberg, 2010). Rubington, E., & Weinberg, M. S. (2010). The study of social problems: Seven perspectives (7th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. In this view, many types of negative conditions and behaviours exist. Many of these are considered sufficiently negative to acquire the status of a social problem; some do not receive this consideration and thus do not become a social problem; and some become considered a social problem only if citizens, policymakers, or other parties call attention to the condition or behaviour. The history of attention given to rape and sexual assault in the United States before and after the 1970s provides an example of this latter situation. These acts of sexual violence against women have probably occurred from the beginning of humanity and certainly were very common in the United States before the 1970s. Although men were sometimes arrested and prosecuted for rape and sexual assault, sexual violence was otherwise ignored by legal policymakers and received little attention in college textbooks and the news media, and many people thought that rape and sexual assault were just something that happened (Allison & Wrightsman, 1993). Allison, J. A., & Wrightsman, L. S. (1993). Rape: The misunderstood crime. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. Thus although sexual violence existed, it was not considered a social problem. When the contemporary women's movement began in the late 1970s, it soon focused on rape and sexual assault as serious crimes and as manifestations of women's inequality. Thanks to this focus, rape and sexual assault eventually entered the public consciousness, views

of these crimes began to change, and legal policymakers began to give them more attention. In short, sexual violence against women became a social problem. The social constructionist view raises an interesting question: When is a social problem a social problem? According to some sociologists who adopt this view, negative conditions and behaviors are not a social problem unless they are recognized as such by policymakers, large numbers of lay citizens, or other segments of our society; these sociologists would thus say that rape and sexual assault before the 1970s were not a social problem because our society as a whole paid them little attention. Other sociologists say that negative conditions and behaviors should be considered a social problem even if they receive little or no attention; these sociologists would thus say that rape and sexual assault before the 1970s were a social problem. This type of debate is probably akin to the age-old question: If a tree falls in a forest and no one is there to hear it, is a sound made? As such, it is not easy to answer, but it does reinforce one of the key beliefs of the social constructionist view: Perception matters at least as much as reality, and sometimes more so. In line with this belief, social constructionism emphasises that citizens, interest groups, policymakers, and other parties often compete to influence popular perceptions of many types of conditions and behaviours. They try to influence news media coverage and popular views of the nature and extent of any negative consequences that may be occurring, the reasons underlying the condition or behaviour in question, and possible solutions to the problem. Social constructionism's emphasis on perception has a provocative implication: Just as a condition or behaviour may not be considered a social problem even if there is strong basis for this perception, so may a condition or behaviour be considered a social problem even if there is little or no basis for this perception. The "issue" of women in college provides a historical example of this latter possibility. In the late 1800s, leading physicians and medical researchers in the United States wrote journal articles, textbooks, and newspaper columns in which they warned women not to go to college. The reason? They feared that the stress of college would disrupt women's menstrual cycles, and they also feared that women would not do well in exams during "that time of the month" (Ehrenreich & English, 2005)!Ehrenreich, B., & English, D. (2005). *For her own good: Two centuries of the experts' advice to women* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Anchor Books. We now know better, of course, but the sexist beliefs of these writers turned the idea of women going to college into a social problem and helped to reinforce restrictions by colleges and universities on the admission of women. In a related dynamic, various parties can distort certain aspects of a social problem that does exist: politicians can give speeches, the news media can use scary headlines and heavy coverage to capture readers' or viewers' interest, businesses can use advertising and influence news coverage. News media coverage of violent crime provides many examples of this dynamic (Robinson, 2011; Surette, 2011).Robinson, M. B. (2011). *Media coverage of crime and criminal justice*. Durham, NC: Carolina Academic Press; Surette, R. (2011). *Media, crime, and criminal justice: Images, realities, and policies* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth. The news media overdramatize violent crime, which is far less common than property crime like burglary and larceny, by featuring so many stories about it, and this coverage contributes to public fear of crime. Media stories about violent crime also tend to be more common when the accused offender is black and the victim is white and when the offender is a juvenile. This type of coverage is thought to heighten the public's prejudice toward African Americans and to contribute to negative views about teenagers. The Natural History of a Social Problem We have just discussed some of the difficulties in defining a social problem and the fact that various parties often try to influence public perceptions of social problems. These issues aside, most social problems go through a natural history consisting of several stages of their development (Spector & Kitsuse, 2001).Spector, M., & Kitsuse, J. I. (2001). *Constructing social problems*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction. Stage 1: Emergence and Claims Making A social problem emerges when a social entity (such as a social change group, the news media, or influential politicians) begins to call attention to a condition or behaviour that it perceives to be undesirable and in need of remedy. As part of this process, it tries to influence public perceptions of the problem, the reasons for it, and possible solutions to it. Because the social entity is making claims about all these matters, this aspect of Stage 1 is termed the claims-making process. Not all efforts to turn a condition or behaviour into a social problem succeed, and if they do not succeed, a social problem does not emerge. Because of the resources they have or do not

have, some social entities are more likely than others to succeed at this stage. A few ordinary individuals have little influence in the public sphere, but masses of individuals who engage in protest or other political activity have greater ability to help a social problem emerge. Because politicians have the ear of the news media and other types of influence, their views about social problems are often very influential. Most studies of this stage of a social problem focus on the efforts of social change groups and the larger social movement to which they may belong, as most social problems begin with bottom-up efforts from such groups. A social problem emerges when a social change group successfully calls attention to a condition or behaviour that it considers serious. Protests like the one depicted here have raised the environmental consciousness of Americans and helped put pressure on businesses to be environmentally responsible.

Stage 2: Legitimacy Once a social group succeeds in turning a condition or behaviour into a social problem, it usually tries to persuade the government (local, state, and/or federal) to take some action—spending and policymaking—to address the problem. As part of this effort, it tries to convince the government that its claims about the problem are legitimate—that they make sense and are supported by empirical (research-based) evidence. To the extent that the group succeeds in convincing the government of the legitimacy of its claims, government action is that much more likely to occur.

Stage 3: Renewed Claims Making Even if government action does occur, social change groups often conclude that the action is too limited in goals or scope to be able to successfully address the social problem. If they reach this conclusion, they often decide to press their demands anew. They do so by reasserting their claims and by criticising the official response they have received from the government or other established interests, such as big businesses. This stage may involve a fair amount of tension between the social change groups and these targets of their claims.

Stage 4: Development of Alternative Strategies Despite the renewed claims making, social change groups often conclude that the government and established interests are not responding adequately to their claims. Although the groups may continue to press their claims, they nonetheless realise that these claims may fail to win an adequate response from established interests. This realisation leads them to develop their own strategies for addressing the social problem.

11.3 Applying Social Psychology to Fix

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Social Problems Social psychology is the scientific study of how the actual or perceived (1) thoughts, feelings

and behaviours of people and (2) whole social situation impacts an individual's thoughts, feelings and behaviours (Allport, 1954; Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2018; Baron, Byrne, & Suls, 1989; Schneider, Gruman, & Coutts, 2017). Social problems are issues that stem from a conflicting relationship between individuals and their environment (social or innate, domestic or international) (Manion, 2015). Examples of social issues have included racism, homelessness, increasing altruism, drug addiction, conservation of natural resources and any other issue deemed as (1) undesirable by society as it damages a certain region, group of people or community and (2) something in need of correction (Aronson et al., 2018; Parillo, 2008). This paper covers two main ways social psychology can solve social problems: theory-driven applied social psychology, also known as basic research and problem-driven applied social psychology, also referred to as applied research (Aronson et al., 2018; Buschini, Guimond, & Breakwell, 2010; Ruitter, Massar, Kok, & Vugt, 2012). The paper concludes with an illustration of the commonalities between the two approaches which allow for the development of effective solutions to complex social dilemmas.

Theory-Driven Applied Social Psychology The first way involves analysis of a social problem or an intervention in light of a particular theory (Buschini et al., 2010). Psychologists who pursue this method use the practical settings in which social issues occur as a way of testing the validity of a theory of interest which leads to greater understanding of the psychological processes underlying a problem (e.g. why people behave the way they do) (Ruitter et al., 2012). The findings of such research often have obvious applied applications (Aronson et al., 2018). Take for example Milgram's (1963)'s study. The study examined under when and what conditions, obedience or defiance of authority would occur (Milgram, 1963). The study's findings increased people's understanding of how the development of contexts in which authority/subject proximity, authority's legitimacy, attribution of responsibility and dissonance can culminate in law-abiding citizens committing violence against

innocent strangers – such comprehension of human behaviour have in turn suggested that awareness and resistance of the power of authority via political and individual action as a means of preventing unnecessary harm (Milgram, 1963; Ross & Nisbet, 1991; Rozwadowska, 2018). Maxim (1951, p. 169) eloquently summed up the presupposition of basic research when he said “There is nothing so practical as a good theory”. Problem-Driven Applied Social Psychology The second way entails focusing on changing or reducing a practical problem (Buschini et al., 2010; Ruiter et al., 2012). Psychologists who adopt this approach can either (1) act as an objective reporter of social psychological phenomena, impartially chronicling data that has high external validity (social cognition approach), (2) work actively with a community to address its needs (engaged research approach) or (3) act as an engaged researcher with a primary focus on power and the emancipation from oppression (critical approach) (Schneider et al., 2017). Unlike the former approach, in all three forms of problem-driven applied social psychology, demonstrating that a theory is sufficient to be used for a particular issue is secondary to solving a particular problem (Aronson et al., 2018; Buschini et al., 2010). The study by Terrier and Marfaing (2015) is an excellent example of the social cognition approach and its positivism foundation – the study merely found and reported that guests in a hotel are likely to reuse the towels in their room if a card indicating that 75% of guests chose to do so. As for the engaged research approach and its underlying advocacy or participatory framework, take for example the study by Shura, Siders and Dannefer (2011). By working with residents, experts and support systems, the researcher came up with research goals and generated changes that improved the living conditions of a long- term elderly care institution (Shura et al., 2011). It is important to note that most engaged researchers do not forfeit traditional validity and reliability – in addition to such values however, they prioritise impact validity (Massey & Barreras, 2013). An illustration of the critical approach and its critical theory basis is best found in Ponterotto’s (2005) work (as cited in Schneider et al., 2017) which investigated how subliminal forms of power-structures affected health, functioning and freedom. The critical approach is the least empirical of all three types of applied research (Buschini et al., 2010).

Commonality of Basic Research and Applied Research Both approaches assume that an individual’s behaviour is strongly influenced by the social situation and use rigorous methodology such as scepticism, open-mindedness, ethics, accuracy and objectivity to study it, albeit to differing degrees – with basic research and social cognition approach ranking the highest in terms of adherence to the scientific method, followed by the engaged research approach and finally the critical approach (Schneider et al., 2017). Such pursuit of truth is likely to aid in solving problems as (1) virtually all social problems have a psychological component and (2) truth reduces human suffering and chaos (Mill, 1864; Peterson, 2018; Walton & Derek, 2009). If all social psychologists, regardless of their approach, are equally committed to institutionalised disconfirmation to overcome their inherent motivated reasoning, there are no limits to the positive change social psychology can yield (Haidt, 2012). In conclusion, social psychologists solve social problems by truthfully describing, predicting, determining causality and explaining a phenomenon via basic or applied research.

11.4 Unit Summary • The definition of a social problem has both an objective component and a subjective component. The objective component involves empirical evidence of the negative consequences of a social condition or behaviour, while the subjective component involves the perception that the condition or behaviour is indeed a problem that needs to be addressed. • The social constructionist view emphasises that a condition or behaviour does not become a social problem unless there is a perception that it should be considered a social problem. • The natural history of a social problem consists of four stages: emergence and claims making, legitimacy, renewed claims making, and alternative strategies.

11.5 Key Terms A social problem is any condition or behaviour that has negative consequences for large numbers of people and that is generally recognized as a condition or behaviour that needs to be addressed. This definition has both an objective component and a subjective component. Legitimacy: conformity to the law or to rules.

11.6 Check Your Progress 1. What do you think is the most important social problem facing our nation right now? Explain your answer. 2. Do you agree with the social constructionist view that a negative social condition or behaviour is not a social problem unless there is a perception that it should be considered a social problem? Why or why not?

Unit 12: Social Problems & Social Psychology: Poverty 12.0 Introduction 12.1 Unit Objective 12.2 Poverty and Social Psychology: 12.2.1 Previous Social Psychological Accounts of Poverty 12.2.1.1 Causal attributions of poverty 12.2.1.2 Poverty as a process 12.2.1.3 Outcomes of poverty 12.2.2 Social Psychological Arguments and Class-based Approach 12.2.3 Arguments of Social Constructionist Approach: Social context, Power relations, Ideology 12.2.4 Gender 12.2.5 Migration 12.3 Unit Summary 12.4 Key Terms 12.5 Check Your Progress 12.0 Introduction As one of the most important social problems in the world, poverty has been studied by various disciplines. Although poverty is a basic subject of economics, it has also become one of the prominent research fields of social sciences in recent years. Poverty also relates to many psychological processes and mechanisms just as in the other social problems in the world. It is assumed that the social-psychological approach to poverty may contribute to establishing different road maps in combating poverty. 12.1 Unit Objective This Unit shall inform the learner on the social problem - poverty and the role of social psychology in that concern.

12.2 Poverty and Social Psychology Poverty has been increasing in parallel with globalisation, which is characterised by rapid technological developments and different political and economic balances. Although there are aspects of information and technology that facilitate human life, these advances do not bring the same prosperity for everyone. It is known that not everyone lives equally well or easily, and some masses lack even the basic needs. Therefore, poverty is a phenomenon that affects large social groups, and its individual and social consequences have been tried to be overcome. There are numerous studies on poverty and combating poverty. These studies generally focused on the definition of poverty, economic analysis, and economic effects of poverty with globalisation and social rights. According to the general definition, poverty refers to the deprivation of economic, material, and cultural resources, and the deprivation of welfare. While another definition of poverty describes poverty as a permanent or temporary lack of quality, technical, physical strength, intellectual ability, freedom, and individual dignity, different types of poverty are also mentioned in the literature, such as female poverty, child poverty, urban–rural poverty, etc.. Consequently, poverty has multiple dimensions, and diverse effects, and it might be addressed regarding its economic, political, individual, and social basis. For psychological inquiry, it seems crucial to make a distinction between the two different conceptualizations of poverty in order to understand psychological aspects of poverty: absolute poverty and relative poverty. Absolute poverty is defined as the state in which individuals do not afford to buy their basic needs, and the inability of the household or individual to attain the minimum welfare level that can sustain their lives. In other words, absolute poverty refers to the deprivation of basic human needs, which usually includes food, water, hygiene, clothing, shelter, healthcare, and education. This definition indicates the inadequacy of material/economic resources and accepts everyone who is below certain standards as poor wherever they are in the world. The data showed that over 1 billion of the approximately 2.8 billion poor in the world live in absolute poverty (living with an income of less than \$ 1–1.5 per day according to the World Bank).

On the other hand, relative poverty refers to the state in which individuals are below a certain rate of the average welfare level of the society and have been spending below a certain limit according to the general level of the society. Relative poverty is related to the unequal distribution of resources or power in a society in which some people lack the adequate resources to live in the standard they desire, while others do not. Therefore, relative poverty is based on economic inequality in society, which exists largely and persistently all around the world. In addition to the material disadvantages and economic insecurity, relative poverty has some severe social-psychological consequences, such as reduced self-esteem, feelings of disrespect, and humiliation. From the different definitions and forms of poverty mentioned above, one can ask: who are these individuals who are absolutely and relatively poor? A poor person is usually described as the one who cannot have sufficient economic resources to buy basic needs. Poor people are also defined, referring to Lewis's concept of "culture of poverty". The "culture of poverty", which is learned in the family and tends to be passed down from generation to generation, includes normative patterns acquired by the poor as a group rather than from the economic side. In other words, poverty culture points to a common set of attitudes and behaviours that develop depending on the conditions. But we cannot say that "every poor has the characteristics of poverty culture". It may change depending on the culture, historical, and economic context and from person to person. In other words, the person might be "poor" according to the official criteria, but may not perceive himself/herself as poor when he/she compares himself/herself to "other individuals or groups who are poorer. And also, a poor society may not have the characteristics of a culture of poverty mentioned above. This situation shows that social sciences should discuss poverty as a multidimensional construct with its different aspects/results and processes. Although individual perceptions are not sufficient in understanding the dynamics of poverty, the interaction between individual perceptions and societal values and norms should be taken into account. Therefore, this review paper aims to present social psychological findings within a theoretical framework in an integrative manner. The distinctive feature of this study is that it considers poverty as a "process", rather than a psychological "situation". The association of the information resulting from the handling of the psychological processes in a multidimensional or integrative methodological manner with the steps to be taken towards poverty alleviation indicates the

methodical framework of this study. The proposed framework also emphasises the continuity of the interrelation of psychological and socio-political processes. It is shown below in Figure 12.1. Figure 12.2 The analytical framework for the social psychological assessment of poverty. This study aims to rethink the shortcomings of approaches analysing poverty, poverty processes, and integrative methodological framework. In other words, this study underlines that social psychology should approach poverty analysis in an integrative manner. So, it strives to emphasise a social psychological understanding that can establish relations with different disciplines to eliminate the poverty problem. In this context, it is a literature review study that focuses on the shortcomings of the methodological and theoretical stance of social psychology in poverty studies, rather than a direct critical approach. It is also explained why existing social psychological approaches to the aforementioned deficiencies and poverty do not contribute to overcoming the poverty problem. The integrative approach proposed as an alternative to these explanations; and how and in what direction the steps to be taken towards poverty alleviation can be guided. Two questions related to the purpose and methodological stance of this review have been determined: (1) which social psychological arguments make poverty more explainable? And (2) what role does the proposed integrative approach to poverty analysis play in ending poverty and how is this new analytical framework set up? To find answers to these questions, firstly, previous studies about poverty in social psychology literature will be explained. Afterward, a discussion

will be held on how to establish an integrative approach that can guide poverty to make it clearer and eliminate it. 12.2.1 Previous Social Psychological Accounts of Poverty When we look at the relationship between psychology and poverty, we see three major study routes. These routes are causal attributions of poverty, personality characteristics of the poor, and psychological outcomes of poverty. Several studies conducted on social psychological perspectives are often intended to establish individual characteristics or attributes by others of how poor people look or who they are. 12.2.1.1 Causal Attributions of Poverty The area on which social psychology focuses mostly is poverty attributions. The ways of explaining poverty and the perceived causes of poverty are frequently studied regarding causal attributions on poverty in social psychology]. Causal attributions of poverty are generally evaluated in three dimensions: individual, structural and fatalistic. Individual attributions include lack of effort, failure, and laziness of the poor; structural attributions focus on the social and economical system and the state policies; and lastly, fatalistic attributions refer to bad luck and fate. Feagin found that in the United States people had attributed poverty to individual factors to a great extent (53%), and structural factors (22%). Fatalistic factors were the least attributed factor (18%) when explaining the causes of poverty. It was also claimed that the structural factors are two-dimensional rather than being a single dimension: "economic-structural" (low wages, lack of job opportunities) and "bias-structural" (prejudice and discrimination against the poor, lower wages for women). In another study Birdsall and Hamovdi in which structural causes are synthesised together with cultural attributes, the economic and administrative foundations that cause poverty were evaluated through cultural characteristics. When we look at the causal attributions of poverty in different geographies/cultures, we come across different results. Hine and Mouitel investigated the attributed causes of poverty comparing Canadian and Filipino participants. They found that the Canadian participants attributed poverty to natural causes (climate, location) and the conflict, while Filipinos tended to blame the poor and poverty itself. Besides, different groups within the same cultural setting were found to tend to explain the causes of poverty (i.e. liberals emphasised structural and social factors more frequently than conservatives). Similarly, Solak and Göregenli showed that the poverty attributions have three dimensions in Turkey: individual (personal responsibility, hard working and personal effort), structural and fatalistic. Moreover, migration emerged as another factor that was attributed as a cause of poverty in this study. In other words, the "rural to urban migration process" is pointed to as the cause of poverty. It is discussed ahead in the section below that migration is a factor that needs to be discussed in detail, rather than a causal attribution in social psychology studies. Although these studies investigate poverty from different ideological and structural perspectives, the focus of all is the same: the causes of poverty. Exploring the causal attributions for poverty may contribute to poverty reduction but it would fall short of explaining the social psychological processes and the dynamic interaction between individual and social-structural factors that underlie poverty. 12.2.1.2 Poverty As a Process In the literature, there are criticisms towards approaches that point out that poverty is a situation rather than a dynamic process and there are opinions that psychology remains "indifferent" in combating poverty. Accordingly, although poverty constitutes an important subject on which psychologists have focused directly for a considerable amount of time, the majority of studies have taken the form of an individual-level analysis, and have usually failed to take into account interactional, contextual, and hierarchical aspects. For instance, focusing on the poor as separate individuals, such as emphasising their attributes as being passive, leads eventually to appointing blame to the poor themselves for the situation from which they suffer. There are also opinions that poverty takes up a little place in social psychology, assuming that it is a subject that does not attract much attention and has no "popularity". Lemieux and Pratto argue that social relations in the allocation of economic resources, and therefore the phenomenon such as violence, prejudices, social dominance, and discrimination play a role in the continuation of poverty. For this reason, we should focus on social psychological processes in the understanding of poverty and contextual relationships that cause poverty to continue. In this regard, psychological dynamics and processes associated with poverty seem crucial as they would provide clues about the solution of the problem and contribute to the theoretical explanation of poverty from a social psychological perspective. Also, the studies of the psychological process can provide foresight to

what complementary arguments are needed in social psychology's discourse and its suggestions for combating poverty. Psychological processes may be related to the way the poor perceive themselves. A study with blue-collar participants working in different sectors (e.g. working as taxi drivers, doormen, cleaners) in Turkey was asked to define "who the poor is". Results indicated that they define poor as those who live in worse conditions than themselves. Consistent with their poor definition they did not perceive themselves as poor when they compared themselves with the poorer. Besides, the study showed that one out of every three people in Turkey (77%) believed that poverty is overcome by individual efforts. Another study directly addressed poor people and investigated their subjective perceptions on poverty in the framework of Social Identity Theory (Tajfel and Turner, (Akfirat et al. In this study, it was found that the strategies to cope with poverty by poor people change as a function of whether they acknowledge that they were a part of the poor group, and whether they perceive poverty as changeable and illegitimate. Specifically, the results show that poor people who did not perceive themselves as poor, though they were poor according to official criteria, preferred creative and individual strategies to get rid of poverty. In a similar vein, Jetten and Peter discuss the role of social identity, social comparison, power, and ideological relations and group dynamics that help to understand economic inequality. The authors concluded that it is necessary to emphasise specific group dynamics for different societies in terms of economic inequality and poverty. There are also studies explaining that an unequal socio-economic structure increases social comparison between individuals and groups, reveals competition, and some groups seek self-esteem. It is seen that these studies which predict that economic inequality can have harmful psychological consequences focus on the importance of social comparison processes. The system that allows people to think that they will have better living conditions if they spend more effort individually makes people compare themselves with those who are in better conditions. However, in most cases, poverty is independent of individual effort. Therefore when people do not reach the desired conditions they tend to blame themselves. Xiemenes et al. focus on the perception of poverty in the frame of community psychology, the historical and social background of poverty in the context of Brazil and Latin American countries were investigated. The researchers pointed out the roles of migration, slavery, and violence in the emergence and perpetuation of poverty. Thus, the importance of historical-cultural background in understanding and combating poverty were emphasised. The researchers also mentioned the need for examining poverty on academic-social and political grounds, and the importance of knowing the poor population well, determining their needs and taking political steps to provide better conditions. Guzzo also emphasises that psychological inquiry should focus on the political attitude when combating poverty. On the other hand, Okoroji et al. prioritise the importance of the social-psychological analysis of marginalisation towards the poor addressing the relationship of poverty with the representations produced in the media and politics. Many studies that focus on the multidimensional evaluation of poverty also point to suggestions for reducing or ending poverty. Especially in index studies created through data collected from different countries containing the effects of emergent conditions such as COVID-19. From this point of view, it emerges that these emergent conditions and psychological processes should be evaluated from a socio-political perspective.

12.2.1.3 Outcomes of Poverty

We have said that the psychological approach to poverty generally focuses on the possible consequences of poverty and marks poverty as a "condition". The first psychological study on the consequences of poverty was Lewis' work in which he explained the particular behavioural patterns of the poor that are transmitted down from generation to generation through socialisation processes. It means that the values and behaviours of the poor become determinants of lower socio-economic status. Some studies have focused on the personality characteristics and traits of the poor such as lack of entrepreneurial personality, lack of participation in political and association activities, lack of purpose towards career goal. Some other works investigated the effects of poverty on emotions, cognitive skills, and mental health. Research shows that other than the material difficulties, being poor is also associated with stigma, feelings of worthlessness, and it is negatively related to individual well-being. For example, Moussa-Smona found that economically vulnerable people have a lower level of subjective well-being and life satisfaction than those who are more secure. Similarly, Okoroji et al. showed that stigmatisation processes produced by representations in media and politics make poor people suffer from marginalisation, which in turn causes vulnerability for psychological distress. Another study demonstrates that social injustice and poverty increases negative child experiences. Some other studies focus on poverty in third-world countries which point to similar negative psychological outcomes. While there has been robust evidence that poverty reduces the indicators of well-being, some scholars discuss that focusing on negative individual outcomes might buffer the efforts of

reducing poverty. Such a state is conceptualised as a “poverty trap” in which an individual believes that s/he cannot escape unless an extremely large change takes place, such as a dramatic improvement in their economic situation. According to another critical approach, negative outcome oriented-research reinforces the prejudices and stereotypes imposed on the poor and points to anger or accusatory feelings. The psychology of being poor and the mental and behavioural patterns that may arise in both adults and children as a result of poverty are the basis of these studies. Conclusion Traditional psychological works related to poverty have been criticised as being reductionist and individualistic, and as being far from discussing its contextual dimensions. Connolly states that psychological studies that analyse the perception of poverty should be analysed not only to environmental factors but also to include genetic, physical, familial, social, political factors. Carr and Sloan argue that social psychological studies on poverty can be developed to be part of a global effort to reduce poverty without pathologizing poverty. In another word, psychological studies that can show the ability to progress in line with a global awareness in combating poverty should be increased. Yet, studies that focus solely on poor people can buffer the efforts to combat poverty and may prevent the multi-dimensional analysis of poverty. Therefore, social- psychological findings that can help develop strategies seem important rather than initiatives that can limit our understanding of both poverty and the poor. At this point, it would be good to discuss the answer to the first question of this study (which social psychological arguments does poverty become more explainable?) that will provide a methodological framework.

12.2.2 Social Psychological Arguments and Class-based Approach

When the fact that poverty is ultimately a class-based problem juxtaposes with some of the arguments of social psychology, a significant contribution can be made to the literature. For example, social identity perception seems to be an argument that can make this contribution. Social identity and its arguments have a rich literature on the issue of poverty. It is possible to think about poverty with many arguments of Social Identity Theory (such as social comparison, social mobility, intergroup conflict, in-group-/out-group perception). In this sense, poverty is a social category; It would not be wrong to point out poor individuals as a disadvantaged social identity. Departing from the process of different groups perceiving each other; class clues can be caught on the distinction between rich and poor. In other words; with the right questions to be asked for social comparison processes, class-level evaluation can be made. For example; with whom do the poor compare themselves and how do they perceive them? This question is important in two ways. It is important both in understanding the place of poor groups in the social hierarchy and in understanding how they evaluate the situation (poverty). In other words, it may be useful to discuss the perceptions of the poor as a group rather than the individuals. The economic conditions in which the individual lives, his/her contact with people living in better or worse conditions than himself, the existence of comparison groups (rich people) seem crucial in assessing his poverty situation. That is, poor people’s perception about their poverty may not be straightforward in the sense that she might categorise herself in the class system as the rich, the very rich, the poor, and the very poor depending on what groups she compares herself to. So, their perception of poverty does not change/changes or whether they see it legitimate or not can be revealed. It may be inevitable that the perception in question makes the distinction between the rich and the poor, which indicates income inequality, visible. In other words, it may be easier to handle the perception of being in a disadvantaged position within a class framework. And also, if we think together with the background of social identity theory; The question of which strategies (strategies to cope with disadvantageous situations: individual, creative and collective) to choose to deal with poverty is also important. The question of why these strategies are preferred and which factors are effective in these preferences will also contribute to the research process. Therefore, rather than taking poverty as a static and stable phenomenon; the dynamic, political, class-based, and interactive account of poverty would provide a new basis for discussion on the poverty combating strategies. To add with the social identity perspective; the danger of stigmatisation of the poor as an outgroup is also another responsibility for social psychologists. According to Fell and Hewstone, intergroup contact can be established to reduce stereotypes and prejudices in the context of in-group-outgroup perceptions, and thus self-efficacy perception of the poor can develop. The purpose of providing communication/contact between groups requires focusing on social and psychological processes. As mentioned before, individual attributions- based studies on poverty may reinforce prejudices and stereotypes towards poor people. Starting from the idea that poverty is built or sustained through a social structure and social relations Perez et al. a researcher should be aware of the scientific methodology used in his/her poverty research that may increase the negative effects of poverty.

Another area in which the class-based approach should be visible in poverty studies conducted with a social psychological perspective is related to causal attributions. We mentioned before the studies conducted on the causal attributions of poverty and the missing points of these studies. Learning the references to the causes of poverty will undoubtedly contribute to the field, but may not lead to steps to be taken to alleviate poverty. Therefore, as we mentioned above, it is to include the citations of the rich and the poor to the issue and try to understand why they need these citations. Because understanding the need in question will help us to reveal the discourses that perpetuate or legitimise poverty. The point that should be emphasised in the poverty attribution of people who are economically located in different classes is their perception of their position and how this perception reflects on their lives and language in practice. This point must be addressed together with a critical discursive stance on how the poverty discourse is constructed. And also, it will provide a broad perspective on how and why perceptions and causal attributions of poverty occur.

12.2.3 Arguments of Social Constructionist Approach: Social context, Power relations, Ideology

Harper argued that a social constructionist approach would be more inclusive, focusing on the question of "how" in poverty studies. The social constructionist approach involves discourse analysis, discursive psychology, critical discourse analysis, and critical psychology. And it is a multidisciplinary approach. Social constructionism emphasises the common construction of knowledge in the world of understanding/interpretation that changes, transforms, and interprets according to the context and uses qualitative research methods methodologically. In other words, people, events, and situations are all products of social processes. In this sense, it would be appropriate to focus on how it is formed in the mind and how it continues, rather than the subjective effect created by the perception of poverty. The question of how poverty is built in the minds of the rich and the poor takes away from discussing poverty solely on an individual basis; referring to the representation of group members to the class level. In other words, the problem of poverty is not only the subjective perceptions of individuals and their state of being affected by the situation; it also includes the power relations of being rich and poor. The emergence of power relations between groups; will remove the individual aspects of poverty associated with being strong and weak. In this way, the accusing, victimisation, or discourses that perpetuate or legitimise the state of poverty attributed to the poor may decrease. Also, the legitimacy of the invisibility of the poor and therefore poverty in society, which are constantly positioned as victims, can be questioned. The questioning is revealed through the methodological process. Social constructionist methodology analyses power-discourse and positioning in speech, focusing on the action of language. Therefore, first of all, this perspective is needed to prevent the reproduction of the accusing language of the disadvantaged groups and to overturn the belief that "poverty is an ongoing-unchangeable phenomenon". The social constructionist approach reveals the language that sees poverty as "unchangeable" or "pathologizing"; can re-evaluate this language in terms of power and ideology relations. Discourse reproduces within ideology and establishes power relations through certain arguments (such as media, education, cultural- normative codes). For example, the social, cultural, ideological context in which poor people evaluate themselves and live, their interpretations of the state of poverty, how they position rich people, the basis or legitimate grounds of their strategies to cope with poverty, and how this process is in the context of ideological or power relations. In other words, knowing the cultural background of the geography in which we were born, the codes/norms of poverty, the daily language used for poor people or poverty, and providing suggestions in this context will make the research more powerful. And also, the question of how it is handled in society or through the media is important. Regarding the importance of this problem; We can give an example that how the poor/poverty is handled in the media affects both society's attitude towards poverty and policy- making. Therefore, steps to be taken on a discursive basis to answer this question may also contribute to poverty reduction initiatives.

12.2.4 Gender

Why should social psychology include gender-related arguments as a variable in its analysis? The answer to this question aims to contribute to the production of egalitarian policies for the sexes (especially women) who experience poverty at different levels. Continuing learning since childhood can position women and men in different places in society; these positions frequently direct women to domestic work and men to jobs aimed at generating economic income. While examining the effects of poverty on the individual; The causes of poverty and gender-based inequalities become visible; gender-centred meaning worlds of poverty emerge. The fact that female deprivation is becoming more pronounced compared to men seems to be related to the impact of socio-political processes and gender perspective. The relation in question regarding poverty and gender; Fertility, differences in wages, power relations within the household, and

ongoing poverty between generations. Explaining that women experience more poverty than men, female poverty, or feminization of deprivation is an argument that should be included in social psychological analysis. Studies focusing particularly on the gender impact on poverty; can also involve suggestions that lead to gender equality. These proposals are likely to contribute to political steps, especially to reduce women's poverty.

12.2.5 Migration

It is known that the phenomenon of migration in the literature has been shown by empirical studies as a feature attributed to the causes of poverty. But the approach that sees migration as a phenomenon causing poverty will be insufficient. We know that migration from rural to urban mostly takes place to get out of poverty. In other words, poverty emerges as a factor that accelerates migration. With the scarcity of job opportunities in the city and the increase in migration rate; Most of the time, immigrants are exposed to low wage, flexible and insecure conditions in the city. This situation reproduces the state of being poor. Therefore, the identity of immigrants who lose their rights and move away from the sense of equal citizenship will be revealed besides being poor. From this point on, psychological processes related to how immigrants are perceived by society or how they perceive themselves in society emerge. As these psychological processes, we can say; violence, social exclusion, gender discrimination, and prejudice experienced by immigrants. Although these arguments may seem like an outcome of immigration; Since it includes perceptions of both being poor and immigrant, it also points to psychological processes. Here the question of social psychology "what can I do to reduce poverty"; focusing on how immigrants evaluate themselves in their relationship with the local population; It emphasises the principle of "equal citizenship" in terms of group belonging. This goal can be achieved through multidisciplinary studies to be carried out with local governments, media organisations, and social communication networks. As we mentioned before, it is necessary to include multiple dimensions and different contexts such as power relations, inequality of opportunity, migration, gender perceptions, family relations, cultural codes, and historical background of the geography in which people live. For example, the migration from rural life to the city, or from one country to the other, especially due to compulsory reasons, may cause a decrease in economic and social resources. And also, social psychology can suggest effective ways for how rural and urban poverty is reflected in intergroup relations given the fact that disadvantaged situations are experienced by certain

groups, and for how to support structural steps taken to improve the lives of groups affected by poverty. This initiative of social psychology may be effective in the necessity of equal living conditions for all groups. Discussing the dynamics that lead to the perpetuation of economic inequality and poverty with different arguments will lead to studies that allow the interaction of political scientists and psychologists. Similarly, it would be more inclusive to examine poverty as a historical phenomenon (with ideological, psychological, and symbolic aspects). So, it can enable us to focus on the arguments of the capitalist system that are decisive in identity construction]. Thus, examining different contexts and representations can prevent the limitations of a research process aimed at testing only hypotheses. These multidimensional approaches and analyzes can help reveal potential ideas that can contribute to understanding poverty, preventing and ending it as a pathological phenomenon. So how will it help? The answer to this question will also be the answer to the second question of this study (what role does the proposed integrative approach to poverty analysis play in ending poverty and how is this approach set up?). The content of this analytical framework is shown in. Figure 12.2: The key location/role of social psychological analysis in contributing to poverty reduction. According to the above figure, integrative social psychological analysis can help understanding and alleviating poverty in three ways: (1) by including arguments and variables related to psychological and contextual processes in the analysis of poverty, (2) using both empirical (quantitative) research methods that reveal the causality, cause and effect relationships and possible effects of poverty and qualitative research methods that will reveal contextual relationships between arguments, (3) by making macro evaluations of cause-effect and context- specific results, making them applicable in interdisciplinary studies.

The combined use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods in poverty studies conducted with a social psychological perspective can provide potential answers to the question of "what can be done to reduce poverty?". The information obtained through this analytical framework can be used in local governments that have responsibility for reducing poverty, in trade union activities that will reinforce the principle of equal citizenship, in migration centres, in

media/communication, and some social/political responsibility projects. Undoubtedly, this process can strengthen the cooperation of social psychology with different disciplines and contribute to poverty reduction practices.

12.3 Unit Summary

Poverty has been increasing in parallel with globalisation, which is characterised by rapid technological developments and different political and economic balances. Although there are aspects of information and technology that facilitate human life, these advances do not bring the same prosperity for everyone. It is known that not everyone lives equally well or easily, and some masses lack even the basic needs. Therefore, poverty is a phenomenon that affects large social groups, and its individual and social consequences have been tried to be overcome.

12.4 Key Terms

A psychological process is a series of steps or mechanisms that occur in a regular way -not necessarily a deterministic one- to attain changes in behaviour, emotion, or thought.

12.2 Poverty and Social Psychology

12.2.1 Previous Social Psychological Accounts of Poverty

12.2.1.1 Causal attributions of poverty

12.2.1.2 Poverty as a process

12.2.1.3 Outcomes of poverty12.2.2 Social Psychological Arguments and Class-based Approach12.2.2.1 Arguments of Social Constructionist Approach: Social context, Power relations, Ideology12.2.2.2 Gender

12.2.5 Migration

12.5 Check Your Progress

- 1) Discuss poverty and social psychology.
- 2) Discuss the previous social psychological accounts of poverty
- 3) Discuss poverty as a process.

Unit 13: Aggression & Violence 13.0 Introduction 13.1 Unit Objective 13.2 Definition and Measurement of Aggressive Behaviour 13.3 Theories of Aggression 13.3.1 Biological Approaches 13.3.2 Psychological Approaches 13.4 Personal and Situational Variables Affecting Aggressive Behaviour 13.4.1 Individual Differences in Aggressive Behaviour 13.4.1.1 Trait Aggressiveness 13.4.1.2 Hostile Attribution Bias 13.4.1.3 Gender Differences 13.4.2 Situational Influences on Aggressive Behaviour 13.4.2.1 Alcohol 13.4.2.2 High Temperature 13.4.2.3 Violent Media Content 13.5 Aggression As A Social Problem 13.5.1 Intimate Partner Violence 13.5.2 Sexual Aggression 13.5.3 Bullying in School and the Workplace 13.6 Psychological Prevention And Intervention: What Can Be Done About Aggression? 13.6.1 Catharsis 13.6.2 Punishment 13.6.3 Anger management 13.6 Unit Summary 13.7 Key Terms 13.8 Check Your Progress

13.0 Introduction In a widely accepted definition, Baron and Richardson (1994, p. 7) characterised aggression as 'any form of behaviour directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment'.

This conceptualization has several important implications. How can we explain why individuals show aggressive behaviour? What are the processes that lead from an aggression-eliciting stimulus to an aggressive response? Developing theories to explain why people engage in aggressive behaviour has been a prime objective for researchers from different disciplines, not least because understanding the factors that promote aggressive behaviour is a first step towards prevention.

13.1 Unit Objective This unit shall inform the learners on: • Definition and Measurement of Aggressive Behaviour • Theories of Aggression • Personal and Situational Variables Affecting Aggressive Behaviour • Aggression As A Social Problem 13.2 Definition and Measurement of Aggressive Behaviour In a widely accepted definition, Baron and Richardson (1994, p. 7) characterised aggression as 'any form of

behaviour directed toward the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment'.

This conceptualization has several important implications. (1) Aggressive behaviour is defined by its underlying motivation (to harm or injure another living being), not by its consequences (whether or not harm or injury actually occurs). This means that a behaviour is regarded as aggressive if it was guided by the intention to harm, even if no damage was done to the target. A shot fired from a gun may miss its target, but if the shot was intended to hit the target, it is nonetheless an instance of aggression.

On the other hand, your dentist may cause you pain, but it is incidental or accidental, and not intended, hence it is not aggression. (2) A necessary feature of the intention to harm is the actor's understanding that the behaviour in question has the potential to cause harm or injury to the target. If one person's actions lead to harm or injury to another but the actor could not have expected

or been aware that the behaviour could lead to those adverse effects, they do not represent instances of aggression. They could be due simply to accidental, careless or incompetent behaviour, but not aggression. (3) Defining aggression as behaviour that the target would want to avoid means that harmful actions performed at the target's request, such as sado-masochistic sexual practices, do not represent instances of aggression. This definition covers diverse subcategories of aggressive behaviour, such as physical and verbal aggression, spontaneous and reactive aggression, individual and group aggression. The term violence is more narrow in meaning and restricted to behaviours carried out with intention to harm that involve the use or threat of physical force, such as hitting someone over the head. Thus, not all instances of aggression are violence (e.g. shouting at someone would be aggressive, but not violent), but all acts of violence qualify as aggression. An important conceptual distinction refers to the difference between instrumental and hostile (also called angry or affective) aggression. The two types of aggression differ with respect to the underlying motivation of the actor. People carry out acts of instrumental aggression for the purpose of achieving a particular goal, such as taking a hostage in order to secure a ransom. Here, the behaviour is driven by the ultimate goal the actor wants to achieve (obtaining a large sum of money), and aggression is selected as one of several possible means towards reaching that end. In contrast, hostile aggression is motivated by the actor's desire to express negative feelings, such as anger. The measurement of aggressive behaviour creates particular problems for researchers due to its potentially harmful nature. It would be unethical to set up experimental situations in which research participants are given the chance to inflict genuine harm on another person or to expose them to treatments expected to increase the likelihood of subsequent aggression. The major strategies for measuring aggressive behaviour can be organised under two broad headings: observation, i.e., data collected by the researcher, and recording, i.e., data obtained from other sources, such as research participants or independent observers.

Observation of aggressive behaviour The most common method for studying aggressive behaviour by observation is the laboratory experiment in which aggressive behaviour is observed as a function of experimental conditions created by the researcher. Experimental studies of aggression need to resort to paradigms in which participants can show behaviour intended to harm another person without actually allowing any harm to be inflicted on the target. Several experimental paradigms have been developed to address this challenge (see Krahé, 2001, for a comprehensive discussion). They create situations in which participants are given the opportunity to deliver aversive stimuli to another person, in the form of electric shocks (Taylor, 1967), loud noise (Bartholow & Anderson, 2002), cold water (Vasquez, Denson, Pedersen, Stenstrom & Miller, 2005) or unpleasantly hot spicy sauce (Lieberman, Solomon, Greenberg & McGregor, 1999). Using the extent to which research participants deliver aversive stimuli to another person as a measure of aggression, the effects of various independent variables, such as frustration, alcohol consumption or exposure to media violence, can be studied on aggression as the dependent variable. Despite their artificial nature, these experimental procedures for measuring aggressive behaviour do have construct validity, i.e., correspondence amongst one another and with other indicators, such as aggressive behaviour observed in natural settings (Anderson & Bushman, 1997). Because they allow researchers to observe variations in aggressive behaviour as a result of their experimental manipulations, such as creating a high vs. low level of frustration, experimental procedures facilitate the analysis of hypotheses about why, when and on what scale aggressive behaviour is shown. Aggression is defined in social psychology as behaviour carried out with the intention to harm another person. The range of methods available for studying aggression is limited by the essentially harmful nature of this behaviour. For ethical reasons, researchers cannot create situations in which harm is inflicted on another person. The main methods for studying aggressive behaviour include observation under natural conditions, laboratory experiments

providing an opportunity for behavioural analogues of real life aggression (such as administering aversive noise) and the collection of reports of aggressive behaviour in the form of self-reports, reports from peers, parents or teachers, or statistical data on violent crime. 13.3 Theories of Aggression How can we explain why individuals show aggressive behaviour? What are the processes that lead from an aggression-eliciting stimulus to an aggressive response? Developing theories to explain why people engage in aggressive behaviour has been a prime objective for researchers from different disciplines, not least because understanding the factors that promote aggressive behaviour is a first step towards prevention. Table given below provides a summary of the major theoretical models discussed in this section. 13.3.1 Biological approaches Biological explanations of aggression refer to evolutionary and genetic principles as well as the role of hormones to explain why individuals differ in their tendency to engage in aggressive behaviour.

(1) The ethological perspective, represented most prominently by Konrad Lorenz (1974), looks at aggressive behaviour of animals and humans as driven by an internal energy which is released by aggression-related stimuli. In his famous

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steam boiler model, Lorenz assumed that aggressive energy is produced continuously within the organism until it is released by an external cue,

such as the appearance of a rival in the contest for a mating partner. If the amount of energy rises beyond a certain level without being released by an external stimulus, it will overflow, leading to spontaneous aggression. Psychologists have challenged Lorenz's application of his findings from animal studies to human aggression. An important criticism is directed at the assumption that once the internal reservoir of aggressive energy has been used up by an aggressive act, it is impossible to trigger another aggressive response for as long as it takes the organism to rebuild a sufficient energy level. There is ample evidence that humans can perform several aggressive behaviours in quick succession and that one aggressive act often serves to precipitate rather than suppress further aggressive acts. (2) Researchers in the field of behaviour genetics examine the extent to which individual differences in aggressive behaviour can be linked to differences in genetic make-up (Plomin, Nitz & Rowe, 1990). Specifically, behaviour geneticists have sought to demonstrate that genetically related individuals are more similar in terms of their aggressive tendencies than individuals who are not genetically related. A meta-analysis of twin and adoption studies by Miles and Carey (1997) concluded that shared genetic make-up accounts to a significant extent for similarities in self-ratings as well as parents' ratings of aggressiveness, explaining up to 50 per cent of the variance. However, an important qualification comes from studies that used behavioural observation as a measure of aggression. In these studies, the impact of shared environment was substantially greater than that of genetic similarity. A subsequent meta-analysis by Rhee and Waldman (2002) also found substantial effects of genetic similarity, but the effects of environmental influences were found to be even stronger. Thus, the evidence from a broad range of studies suggests that aggressive behaviour is affected both by genetic dispositions and by socialisation experiences in the course of individual development. An individual's genetic make-up may dispose him or her towards becoming an aggressive person, but environmental factors play a crucial role in determining whether that disposition will be reinforced or counteracted.

(3) Another line of biological research on aggression is concerned with the role of hormones in relation to aggressive behaviour. The dramatic increase in the male sex hormone testosterone in boys during puberty has been linked to an increase in the prevalence of aggressive behaviour in this developmental period, but meta-analyses found only moderate positive correlations between testosterone and aggression among adolescent boys (Book, Starzyk & Quinsey, 2001). Cortisol has been examined as another hormonal correlate of aggression, and results were also mixed: while some studies showed that low levels of cortisol were related to aggressive behaviour and conduct problems, other studies found high cortisol levels to be predictive of aggression (cf. Ramirez, 2003, for a review). Altogether, there is as yet no conclusive evidence that hormones such as testosterone and cortisol play a causal role in the emergence of aggressive behaviour patterns.

13.3.2 Psychological approaches

Early psychological models also assumed aggression to be an innate response tendency. Freud's (1920) view of aggression as an instinct in the service of the pleasure principle inspired the frustration-aggression hypothesis, which regards aggression as driven by a desire to overcome frustration. Subsequent psychological approaches widened the frustration-aggression link into a more general model of negative affect and highlighted the role of cognitive factors, learning experiences and decision-making processes in predicting aggressive responses. The frustration-aggression hypothesis

One of the earliest empirically tested theories about the origins of aggressive behaviour is the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer & Sears, 1939; Miller, 1941). It states that 'frustration produces instigations to a number of different types of response, one of which is an instigation of some form of aggression' (Miller, 1941, p. 338). In this view, aggression is not the only but a possible response to frustration. Whether or not frustration will result in an aggressive response depends on the influence of additional variables in the individual or the environment. Fear of punishment for overt aggression or unavailability of the frustrator are factors that inhibit aggression. However, frustration that cannot be expressed in the form of aggressive retaliation against the original source is often 'displaced', i.e., directed at an innocent target person who is more easily accessible or less threatening. In a meta-analysis including 49 studies, Marcus-Newhall, Pedersen, Carlson and Miller (2000) found consistent evidence that frustrated individuals show displacement of aggression from the source of the frustration onto a less powerful or more accessible target. If aggression is one of several potential consequences of frustration, it is important to identify the conditions under which individuals are likely to show aggressive behaviour when frustrated. One variable shown to enhance the probability of an aggressive response to a frustration is the presence of aggressive cues. Aggressive cues are aspects of the situation that draw the actor's attention to the possibility of an aggressive response, such as seeing pictures of people fighting or being presented with the names of famous boxing champions. In a much-cited study, Berkowitz and LePage (1967) demonstrated that participants who had previously been frustrated by receiving negative feedback administered more electric shocks (as a measure of aggression) in the presence of weapons, i.e., aggressive cues, than in the presence of a badminton racket, i.e., a neutral object. Although subsequent studies have not always replicated the effect – some failing to find a weapons effect and others finding an effect in non-frustrated participants as well – overall support for the role of aggression-related cues in facilitating aggressive behaviour is impressive. From their meta-analysis of 57 studies, Carlson, Marcus-Newhall and Miller (1990, p. 632) concluded that 'aggression-related cues present in experimental settings act to increase aggressive responding'. They also found an effect, albeit weaker, of aggressive cues on participants in a neutral mood state. The finding that the impact of aggressive cues is not limited to situations where the person is already in an angry mood suggests that aggressive cues have a wide-ranging potential to activate ('prime') cognitive schemata related to aggression and thus increase the salience of aggressive response options. Cognitive neo-associationism and excitation transfer

In his cognitive neo-associationist model, Berkowitz (1993) extended the frustration-aggression hypothesis into a more general conceptualization of the link between negative affect and aggressive behaviour. He argued that frustration is just one type of stimulus that elicits negative affective arousal, and that other aversive stimuli, such as pain or loud noise, may trigger aggressive responses in the same way. He proposed that aversive (unpleasant) stimuli give rise to unspecific negative feelings that evoke two immediate reactions, fight and flight. In a swift and automatic appraisal process that occurs with little or no conscious awareness, the fight impulse is associated with aggression-related thoughts, memories and behavioural responses, whereas flight is associated with escape-related responses. These responses serve to channel quickly the initially undifferentiated negative affect into the more specific emotional states of (rudimentary) anger or (rudimentary) fear. In a subsequent, more elaborate and controlled appraisal process, the person interprets these basic or rudimentary feelings. They are considered in relation to the situational input and the person arrives at a more specific and consolidated emotional state, i.e., anger or fear. This cognitive processing also involves the evaluation of potential outcomes, memories of similar experiences and social norms associated with the expression of different emotions. Figure given below illustrates this process.

Figure 13.1 The cognitive neo-associationist model of aggression (adapted from Berkowitz, 1993, p. 57). For example, when a child is hit by a stone thrown by a classmate, he will immediately experience pain associated with negative affect, probably a combination of anger, inducing the urge to fight, and fear, inducing the urge to run away. Depending on the context and the child's past experience, either the anger or the fear response is likely to dominate and guide his further analysis of the situation. Before deciding how to respond, the child will engage in a more careful appraisal process, including an assessment of his classmate's motives. If he concludes that his classmate threw the stone on purpose, the immediate feeling of anger will be the presentation of a weapon which then activates other, connected, aggressive thoughts, feelings and behaviours.

The cognitive appraisal of physiological arousal is also at the core of another influential theory of aggression, the theory of excitation transfer proposed by Zillmann (1978). Zillmann argued that the effects of frustration as a trigger for aggressive behaviour can be increased by physiological arousal from a neutral or nonaggression-related source. If individuals are angered and then experience unspecific arousal from a neutral source, such as physical exercise, the anger-related arousal will be magnified by the subsequent non-aggressive arousal, provided the individual is no longer aware of the source of the unspecific arousal. The neutral arousal (excitation) is transferred onto the anger-related arousal and falsely attributed as anger, intensifying the strength of the subsequent aggressive response. For example, a football player may be incensed when he sees a member of the other team foul one of his team members. He sprints the length of the pitch to confront the opposing player. As he reaches him his original anger-related arousal, based on the foul, is magnified by the exercise-induced arousal, from sprinting 70 metres. His arousal is then so great that, instead of merely protesting, he punches the opponent. In combination, the cognitive neo-associationist model and the excitation transfer model highlight the role of negative affect as a powerful stimulant of aggression. It activates a network of affective and cognitive responses that enhance the salience of aggressive responses and thus increase the likelihood that aggressive intentions will be formed and implemented in behaviour. Learning and aggression Studies within the behaviour genetic approach described above suggest that an individual's genetic make-up plays a role in his or her disposition towards aggressive behaviour. However, there is no doubt that learning experiences in the course of the socialisation process are as, if not more, important in affecting the development of aggressive behaviour patterns (Bandura, 1983). Learning is defined as behaviour change through experience, and two mechanisms in particular affect the acquisition of aggressive behaviour: direct reinforcement and modelling (vicarious reinforcement). Direct reinforcement involves the experience of being rewarded for aggressive behaviour, either by achieving a desired goal through the aggressive act or by winning social approval for showing aggressive behaviour. Children who are praised by their parents for 'standing up for themselves' after being provoked or who succeed in getting hold of a desired toy by grabbing it from another child learn that aggressive behaviour pays off, and they are encouraged by the positive effects of their behaviour to perform similar aggressive acts in the future. Modelling refers to learning by imitation. Watching others being rewarded for their aggressive behaviour also increases the likelihood of aggressive behaviour among the observers. In a classic study, Bandura, Ross and Ross (1963) pioneered the Bobo Doll paradigm in which children are exposed to adult models behaving either in an aggressive or in a non-aggressive way towards a large, inflatable clown figure called Bobo. When the children were subsequently given the opportunity to play with the doll, those who had watched the aggressive model showed more aggressive behaviour towards the doll than those who had watched the non-aggressive model, particularly when the model had been reinforced for showing aggressive behaviour. The social learning perspective is a major theoretical approach for understanding the effects of media violence on aggressive behaviour, which can be regarded as a paradigmatic case of observational learning (see the section on violent media content below). Social cognitive models The theoretical approaches discussed so far have stressed the role of affect and cognition as antecedents of aggressive behaviour and highlighted the importance of learning experiences in understanding aggressive behaviour. Sociocognitive models of aggression refer to these lines of thinking and elaborate them by focusing on the role of cognitive representations in the prediction of aggressive behaviour. In his social cognitive approach, Huesmann (1998) proposed that social behaviour in general, and aggressive behaviour in particular, is shaped by abstract representations of appropriate behaviours in different situational contexts. These abstract representations are called aggressive scripts, i.e., guidelines for deciding in favour of or against showing aggressive behaviour in specific situations. For example, if children have repeatedly responded (or seen others responding) to provocations by showing physical aggression, they will develop a generalised cognitive representation in which provocation and physical aggression are closely linked. When encountering a provocation they are likely to activate their scripted knowledge, which then prompts them to enact the behaviour specified by the script. The script also contains normative beliefs that tell the person when it is appropriate to show aggressive behaviour and which of various variants of the script to enact. These normative beliefs may specify that it is acceptable to respond with physical aggression when angered or provoked by a peer, but not when angered by an adult, and the likelihood of showing an aggressive response towards a peer or an adult will vary accordingly (Huesmann & Guerra, 1997). Each of the psychological explanations of aggression highlights particular aspects of the processes that give rise to aggressive behaviour. Rather than competing against each other, they are best seen as pieces of a jigsaw that – when put together – create a clearer picture of the phenomenon called aggression. The general aggression model by Anderson and colleagues (Lindsay & Anderson, 2000) combines the different pieces of knowledge into a comprehensive framework, as shown in Figure below. The model provides a structure that helps us to understand the complex processes through which particular input variables, such as violent media stimuli or biographical experiences of abuse, can lead to aggressive behaviour as the critical outcome variable. Figure 13.2 The general aggression model (GAM) (based on Lindsay & Anderson, 2000, and Anderson et al., 2000).

13.4 Personal and Situational Variables Affecting Aggressive Behaviour Do people differ in their propensity to engage in aggressive behaviour, and what are variables associated with such individual differences? What are critical factors in the situation or the social environment that make aggressive behaviour more likely? In this section, we will take a closer look at some of the factors associated with differences between persons and between situations in the likelihood of aggression. In terms of the general aggression model, these are the input variables that are crucial in eliciting cognitive, affective and physiological responses that may or may not lead to an aggressive response. The guiding questions for this section are the following: how can we distinguish between more or less aggressive individuals and groups of individuals, and what situational influences of a transient or persistent nature precipitate aggressive behaviour?

13.4.1 Individual Differences in Aggressive Behaviour

Researchers have suggested several variables as predictors of individual differences in aggressive behaviour. In the present section, we will focus on three of them that have received intense research attention: trait aggressiveness, hostile attributional style and gender.

13.4.1.1 Trait Aggressiveness

The concept of trait aggressiveness describes dispositional, i.e., temporally and cross situationally stable, differences between individuals with respect to the likelihood of showing aggressive behaviour. Whereas some individuals are easy to anger and quickly get 'hot under the collar', others are generally less inclined to respond with aggression. Longitudinal studies following the same research participants over many years from childhood into adulthood have shown that the tendency to engage in aggressive behaviour is remarkably stable over time. Drawing on findings from 16 studies exploring the temporal stability of men's aggressive behaviour, Olweus (1979) found a stability coefficient of $r = .76$ over a one-year period, of $r = .69$ over five years and still of $r = .60$ over a period of 10 years. These figures are matched only by the stability of intelligence scores over time and indicate that aggression in later stages of development may be predicted on the basis of earlier aggression scores. Interestingly, the stability was highest among those individuals who had very high scores and very low scores of aggression at the beginning of the measurement period, whereas individuals with moderate aggression scores at the beginning were comparatively less stable over time.

Trait aggressiveness is conceptualised as a multidimensional construct comprising four different components: physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. It is typically assessed by self-report questionnaires in which participants indicate the likelihood of showing different forms of physical aggression, verbal aggression, anger and hostility. The most widely used instrument is the Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Warren, 2000; see above), but there are also instruments specially designed for adolescents (e.g., Orpinas & Frankowski, 2001).

13.4.1.2 Hostile Attribution Bias

Another variable linked to stable differences in the tendency to show aggressive behaviour is the hostile attribution bias. This construct refers to the tendency to interpret ambiguous behaviour by another person as an expression of the actor's hostile intent. For example, in deciding whether or not another person causes harm accidentally or on purpose, individuals with a hostile attributional style prefer an attribution to hostile intent rather than seeing the actor's behaviour as unintentional or caused by carelessness. The hostile attribution bias is typically measured by presenting short films or written scenarios in which one actor causes harm to another person, but the stimulus material is unclear as to whether the harm was caused by accident or on purpose (e.g., Dodge, 1980). For example, children are shown a video in which two boys build a tower of bricks. One boy then knocks down the tower, and the film is ambiguous as to whether he did so intentionally. The participants are asked to indicate if they think the child knocked down the tower by mistake or on purpose. Respondents who consistently prefer explanations that attribute the damage to the actor's intent are seen as having a hostile attribution bias. Studies with adults demonstrate that individuals with a hostile attributional style are more likely to show aggressive behaviour and that differences in trait aggressiveness are predictive of the hostile attribution bias (Dill, Anderson, Anderson & Deuser, 1997). In a longitudinal study by Burks, Laird, Dodge, Pettit and Bates (1999), children who showed hostile attributional tendencies were also more likely to develop aggressive behaviour patterns. From this perspective, individual differences in aggression may be the result of schematic, habitual ways of information processing which highlight the hostile nature of social interactions and thereby lower the threshold for aggressive responses.

To explain the development of the hostile attribution bias, several studies point to the role of exposure to violent media content. Correlational studies found a relationship between attraction to media violence and hostile attribution bias (Krahé & Möller, 2004). Other studies investigated whether hostile attributional styles are transmitted from mothers to their children. MacBrayer, Milich and Hundley (2003) found that mothers of aggressive children perceived more hostile intent and were more likely to report an intention to respond aggressively than mothers of non-aggressive children. However, mothers' and children's hostile attributions and aggressive behavioural intentions were found to be significantly correlated only for the girls, not for the boys. The authors explain this sex-specific effect with reference to the principle of learning by modelling, which states that similar models (here: models of the same sex) are more likely to be imitated than dissimilar models. Unfortunately, no studies have yet examined the correspondence between fathers' and sons' hostile attribution biases to substantiate this explanation.

13.4.1.3 Gender Differences

A final variable associated with individual differences in aggression is gender, with the underlying hypothesis that men are more aggressive than women. Support for this hypothesis comes from the analysis of crime statistics across a range of countries, which show that men are overrepresented as perpetrators of violent crime at a ratio of about 8 to 1 (Archer & Lloyd, 2002). Meta-analyses of the psychological literature also found significant sex differences in aggression, with men showing more physical and verbal aggression than do women (Archer, 2004; Eagly & Steffen, 1986). However, despite being significant, the size of the effects is moderate at best, and smaller for verbal than for physical aggression. Cross-cultural analyses suggest that this is a general pattern across different societies (Archer & McDaniel, 1995). The picture changes somewhat when relational aggression is included as a form of aggressive behaviour. Relational aggression is defined as harming others through purposeful manipulation and damage of their peer relationships (e.g., passing lies about someone to her friend, so that their relationship is harmed), and several authors have suggested that women may be as, if not more, involved than men in this type of aggression (e.g., Österman et al., 1998). Therefore, the 'myth of the nonaggressive woman' should be critically examined in the context of a broader range of behavioural types and contextual conditions of aggression (White & Kowalski, 1994).

13.4.2 Situational Influences on Aggressive Behaviour

Just as it is clear that not all individuals respond with aggression in a given situation, it is clear that not all situations elicit aggressive responses to the same extent. In this section, we examine evidence concerning the role of three situational input variables that affect the occurrence of aggressive behaviour: alcohol consumption, high temperatures and exposure to violent media content.

13.4.2.1 Alcohol

From the evidence available to date, it seems safe to conclude that even moderate amounts of alcohol lead to increased aggressive behaviour. Alcohol plays an important role in the perpetration of violent crime, such as homicide (Parker & Auerhahn, 1999), domestic violence, including the physical and sexual abuse of children, sexual aggression and wife battering (Wiehe, 1998), and many forms of group violence, such as sports violence, rioting and vandalism (Russell, 2004). Experimental studies show that alcohol has a causal effect on aggressive behaviour. These studies compare the aggressive responses of individuals who were given alcohol to those of individuals in a control condition who did not receive alcohol. Two meta-analyses examined evidence from a wide range of studies comparing alcohol vs. control groups and found that alcohol was a significant predictor of aggressive behaviour (Bushman & Cooper, 1990; Ito, Miller & Pollock, 1996). It is important to note, however, that general measures of the strength of the alcohol-aggression link mask the fact that the effects of alcohol may be strong for some people, but weak for others. For example, a recent study by Giancola (2003) showed that alcohol dramatically increased the administration of (supposedly) painful electric shocks to an opponent for individuals low in dispositional empathy (the ease with which people can adopt the perspective of another person), but failed to affect the behaviour of participants high in dispositional empathy. In terms of explaining the effects of alcohol on aggression, the attentional hypothesis suggests that alcohol has an indirect effect on aggression by reducing the attentional capacity of the individual, preventing a comprehensive appraisal of situational cues (Laplace, Chermack & Taylor, 1994). As a result, only the most salient cues present in a situation receive attention, and if these cues suggest aggressive rather than non-aggressive responses, aggressive behaviour is

likely to be shown. This view is supported by evidence on the impact of aggression-related cues discussed earlier. 13.4.2.2 High Temperature Another situational input variable affecting aggressive behaviour is high temperature (Anderson et al., 2000). The heat hypothesis predicts that aggression should increase as temperature goes up. Two paradigms were developed to test this hypothesis under natural conditions. The first paradigm is the geographic regions approach comparing violent crime rates in hotter vs. cooler regions, finding support for a link between hotter climates and higher violence rates in archival data. However, the regions included in the comparison, typically the north vs. the south of the United States, differed in aspects other than temperature, such as unemployment rates or normative beliefs condoning violence, that could be relevant to aggression. This potential alternative explanation is ruled out by the second paradigm, the time periods approach, which compares changes in violent crime rates within the same region as a function of fluctuations in temperature, e.g., between winter and summer months or between hotter and cooler summers. This approach also provided evidence that violent crime rates were higher in the summer months than during the winter period. Laboratory studies in which ambient temperature can be manipulated, with other factors being held constant, provide a third approach to the study of heat and aggression. Unfortunately, lab studies on the effect of high temperatures have produced divergent results. While some studies supported the conclusions from naturalistic analyses of the temperature–aggression link, other studies found a decrease in aggression when temperatures rose beyond a certain level. On the basis of a meta-analysis of 11 studies, Anderson et al. (2000) concluded that so far the results of laboratory studies on the heat hypothesis have remained inconsistent. The effect of high temperature on aggression found under natural conditions can be explained with reference to the general aggression model. Heat gives rise to feelings of discomfort, which are proposed as input variables that trigger negative affective arousal; these, in turn, affect the cognitive processing of social stimuli and thereby enhance the likelihood of aggressive behaviour. Interestingly, no corresponding effect has been found for uncomfortably cold temperatures in natural settings. The explanation offered by Anderson et al. (2000) is that people are generally

better equipped to protect themselves against the cold than they are to escape the heat, enabling them to reduce coldness-related discomfort more easily than heat-related discomfort. 13.4.2.3 Violent Media Content Evidence concerning the potentially harmful effect of exposure to media violence comes from three sources: (1) experimental studies exposing participants to either a violent or a nonviolent media depiction and exploring the effects of this manipulation on subsequent aggressive thoughts, feelings and behaviours (e.g., Kirsh, 1998); (2) correlational studies collecting self-reports of violent media usage and relating them to measures of aggression (e.g., Gentile, Lynch, Linder & Walsh, 2004); and (3) longitudinal studies following the covariation of violent media consumption and aggression in the course of individual development (e.g., Huesmann & Miller, 1994; see Research close-up 8.1). Even though violent media content is discussed here in the context of situational input variables for aggressive behaviour, it is important to note that researchers and the general public are not concerned primarily with the effects of a single or short-term presentation but with the cumulative effects of repeated exposure over time. The present state of knowledge derived from each of these approaches is assessed in a recent authoritative review by Anderson et al. (2003) that culminates in the conclusion: 'Research on violent television and films, electronic games, and music reveals unequivocal evidence that media violence increases the likelihood of aggressive and violent behavior in both immediate and long-term contexts' (p. 81). Integrating the findings from almost 300 individual studies, Anderson and Bushman (2002) reported significant effect sizes (correlations weighted by sample size) for the link between exposure to media violence and aggression. The effect sizes vary between .17 and .23 across different methodologies (cross-sectional vs. longitudinal studies, laboratory vs. field experiments). These effect sizes are small in magnitude by conventional standards. This means that while some of the variability in aggressive behaviour can be accounted for by differences in exposure to violent media content, a much larger proportion of the variance is attributable to other factors. However, even small effect sizes can be important when extrapolated to large numbers of media users (Sparks & Sparks, 2002). Beyond demonstrating that media violence has a causal effect on aggressive behaviour, it is important to understand how this effect is produced. Several interlocking mechanisms have been identified that link violent media content as input

variable and aggressive behaviour as outcome variable (see Krahe, 2001, Ch. 5 for a comprehensive discussion): 1. Watching media depictions of aggressive interactions increases the accessibility of aggressive thoughts and feelings. Asking participants to list their thoughts following exposure to a violent or non-violent videotape, Bushman and Geen (1990) found that more aggressive thoughts were generated by participants who had watched the violent videotape. 2. Exposure to aggression may instigate social learning processes which result in the acquisition of new behaviours. Much of the aggression portrayed in the media is rewarded or at least goes unpunished. Moreover, it is often shown by attractive characters with whom viewers identify. As social learning theory suggests, learning through modelling is particularly likely under these circumstances (Bandura, 1983). 3. Long-term exposure to media violence leads to habituation, which in turn reduces the sensitivity towards the victims' suffering. Habituation describes the process whereby the ability of a stimulus to elicit arousal becomes weaker with each consecutive presentation. The person gets used to it, and the stimulus loses its impact. The decline in physiological arousal in the course of prolonged exposure to violence is well documented (e.g., Averill, Malstrom, Koriat & Lazarus, 1972). 4. Exposure to violent media content also has an indirect effect on aggressive behaviour through promoting the development of a hostile attribution bias. A recent study by Krahe and Möller (2004) showed that the frequency with which adolescents played violent electronic games predicted the extent to which they attributed hostile intentions to an actor causing harm to another person in ambiguous circumstances. As shown earlier, the hostile attribution, in turn, increases the likelihood of aggressive behaviour.

13.5 Aggression As A Social Problem

Are there gender differences in the perpetration of intimate partner violence and sexual aggression? What is bullying and what do we know about the characteristics of bullies and victims? The theoretical and empirical contributions discussed so far identified critical input variables as well as mediating processes that explain the occurrence of aggressive behaviour. In this section, we will look at specific forms of aggressive behaviour between individuals and

between groups and discuss how the theories and findings examined so far can contribute to a better understanding of these social problems.

13.5.1 Intimate Partner Violence

Intimate partner violence is defined as the perpetration or threat of an act of physical violence by one partner on the other in the context of a dating/marital relationship. It is a serious problem across the world, even though the prevalence rates vary enormously not only between but also within countries (see reviews of the international evidence by Krahe, Bieneck & Möller, 2005; Krug, Dahlberg, Mercy, Zwi & Lozano, 2002). Mirrlees-Black (1999) found that 23 percent of women and 15 percent of men in the UK reported that they had experienced violence from an intimate partner at some point in their lives. In a Dutch study by Römken (1997), 21 percent of women and 7 percent of men reported having experienced assault by an intimate partner at least once in their lives. One of the most contentious issues in this field of research refers to the question of whether men and women perpetrate intimate partner violence to the same or a different degree. Two main data sources are available to address the scale of intimate partner violence and the question of men's and women's involvement as perpetrators: (1) official crime statistics and crime victimisation surveys of representative samples, and (2) research collecting self-reports of perpetration of, or victimisation by, relationship aggression, using the Conflict Tactics Scales (Straus, 1979; revised version: CTS 2, Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy & Sugarman, 1996). Official crime victimisation figures show that a much greater proportion of women than men are victims of partner violence and that the rate of injuries from partner violence is higher for females than for male victims (e.g., Rennison & Welchans, 2000). Studies using the Conflict Tactics Scales, however, portray a different picture. In this measure, participants are presented with a list of minor (e.g., 'I pushed or shoved my partner') and severe (e.g., 'I slammed my partner against a wall') acts of physical aggression and asked to indicate whether and how many times they have shown the behaviour in question towards an intimate partner. A large body of evidence has shown that on the CTS women feature as much or even more in the perpetration of physical aggression towards a partner than men do. In a meta-analysis of 82 studies, Archer (2000) found no evidence of the overrepresentation of men in the perpetration of physical aggression. Instead, he concluded that women were slightly more likely than men to show physical aggression towards a partner.

Critics have argued that the picture of gender symmetry portrayed by studies using the CTS is largely due to the fact that this instrument records acts of violence without considering their context. It is now widely acknowledged by researchers that progress in the understanding of the dynamics of intimate partner violence will have to pay greater attention to the specific forms and contexts in which assaults on intimate partners take place (Frieze, 2000).

13.5.2 Sexual Aggression

Sexual aggression includes a range of forced sexual activities, such as sexual intercourse, oral sex, kissing and petting, using a range of coercive strategies, such as threat or use of physical force, exploitation of the victim's inability to resist or verbal pressure. It also includes unwanted sexual attention in the form of sexual harassment, stalking and obscene phone calls (Belknap, Fisher & Cullen, 1999; Frieze & Davis, 2002). Official crime statistics show that sexual aggression is a large-scale problem. In Germany, 8,766 cases of rape and sexual assault were reported to the police in 2003, which corresponds to a rate of 10.6 per 100,000 citizens (Polizeiliche Kriminalstatistik 2003). UK crime statistics revealed that 9,743 rapes were reported to the police in 2001, corresponding to a victimization rate of 18.7 per 100,000 members of the population (Regan & Kelly, 2003). The majority of sexual assaults are committed by a perpetrator known to the victim, either as an acquaintance or as an intimate partner. Despite the persistence of the 'real rape stereotype' picturing rape as a violent surprise attack in a dark alleyway, sexual assaults by strangers are the exception rather than the rule. Complementing crime statistics that only reflect cases reported to the police, large-scale studies have been conducted to record sexual victimization of women by men. In contrast to intimate partner violence, it is undisputed that sexual violence is gender asymmetrical, with the vast majority of sexual assaults committed by male perpetrators against female victims. However, it should be noted that sexual violence is also a problem in same-sex relationships (e.g., Krahe, Schütze, Fritsche & Waizenhöfer, 2000) and that women do show sexual aggression against men (Anderson & Struckman-Johnson, 1998; Krahe, Waizenhöfer & Möller, 2003). The consequences of a sexual assault on the victim are severe. A substantial number of rape victims develop the clinical symptomatology of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Victims re experience the assault in dreams, images and intrusive memories, they try to avoid cues reminding them of the assault, and experience a general emotional numbness (Foa & Rothbaum, 1998). Contrary to a widely held public belief, assaults by partners and acquaintances are equally traumatizing for the victim as stranger assaults (Culbertson & Dehle, 2001). Victims of sexual aggression not only have to come to terms with the emotional trauma of the assault itself. They also have to cope with the reactions of others who learn about their fate. There is a widespread tendency to blame the victim of a sexual assault, unparalleled in judgements of

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victims of other criminal offences. A large body of evidence has shown that certain victim characteristics, such as low social status, higher number of sexual partners,

pre-rape behaviour that is at odds with female role expectations, are linked to

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higher attributions of responsibility to the victim, and often correspondingly lower responsibility attributed to the attacker (Krahe, 1991). The

tendency to hold victims responsible for being sexually assaulted is seen as a major factor in the low conviction rates for rape that have plagued the legal systems of many western countries (Temkin & Krahe, 2007).

13.5.3 Bullying in School and The Workplace

The last 25 years have seen a growing concern about aggressive behaviour in school and work settings (Olweus, 1994; Randall, 1997). Referred to by different terms, such as bullying, mobbing or workplace aggression, this phenomenon denotes aggressive behaviour directed at victims who cannot easily defend themselves (Smith, Ananiadou & Cowie, 2003). Bullying typically carries on over extended periods of time and involves a power differential between bully and victim based on physical strength or superior status that undermines the victims' ability to defend themselves or retaliate. Forms of bullying include physical, verbal and relational aggression, i.e., behaviour directed at damaging the victim's peer relationships. The typical victim is an anxious, socially withdrawn child or adolescent, isolated from his or her peer group and likely to be physically weaker than most peers. In contrast, bullies are typically strong, dominant and assertive, showing aggressive behaviour not just towards their victims but also towards parents, teachers and other adults (cf. Griffin & Gross, 2004, for a comprehensive review). Boys feature more prominently than girls as victims as well as perpetrators of bullying (Olweus, 1994). They are also more likely to use physical aggression than are girls, who rely more on verbal and relational forms of aggression, as shown in a cross-national comparison involving 21 countries (Smith et al., 1999).

Workplace bullying has only recently become the object of systematic research, and empirical evidence is still limited. Like school bullying, the core of the construct refers to behaviours intended to make another person feel miserable at work over longer periods of time, with the target persons being unable to defend themselves due to an imbalance of power between perpetrator and victim. According to Hoel, Rayner and Cooper (1999), both the prevalence and the nature of experienced bullying in the workplace are similar for men and women. However, women appear to be more negatively affected by bullying than men. A large-scale study by Smith, Singer, Hoel and Cooper (2003) explored potential links between individuals' experience of bullying at school and at the workplace. A sample of more than 5,000 adults employed by a wide range of companies in the United Kingdom completed a measure of experience of workplace bullying and provided retrospective reports of bullying victimisation while at school. Thirtythree per cent of participants identified themselves as victims of school bullying, and 25 per cent reported that they had experienced workplace bullying in the last five years. A significant association was found between school and workplace bullying: respondents victimised at school were more likely to have been bullied at work in the last five years than respondents who had not been bullied at school. It is important to note, however, that the relationship was inferred on the basis of retrospective reports of school bullying that may have been inaccurately recalled or distorted in the light of subsequent experiences of bullying in the workplace.

13.6 Psychological Prevention and Intervention: What Can Be Done About Aggression?

Is there evidence to support the popular catharsis hypothesis, i.e., the notion that releasing aggressive tension through symbolic action reduces the likelihood of aggressive behaviour? What are viable strategies to reduce individuals' tendencies to show aggressive behaviour?

It has become clear that aggression poses a serious threat to the health and well-being of individuals and the functioning of societies. Psychologists not only have to deal with the task of investigating how, when and why aggressive behaviour is shown, they are also under the obligation to think about ways of counteracting and preventing its occurrence. Aggressive behaviour is ultimately performed by individual actors. Therefore, an important aim of intervention efforts is to reduce the probability that a person will show aggressive behaviour. Three main mechanisms have been explored by which aggressive behaviour may be prevented: catharsis, punishment and anger management.

13.6.1 Catharsis

According to a popular belief, releasing aggressive tension in symbolic ways, such as through sarcastic humour or acting aggressively in the virtual reality of a videogame, is a successful strategy for reducing aggression. This idea is referred to as the catharsis hypothesis after the idea of Greek tragedy that watching tragic conflict unfold and be resolved on stage leads to a purification or 'cleansing' of the emotions (pity and fear) and brings about spiritual renewal or release from tension in the spectators. However, empirical evidence shows that the symbolic engagement in aggressive thoughts or actions is not just ineffective but even counterproductive for reducing aggression. Several studies indicate that the imaginary performance of aggressive behaviour, such as in pretend play or watching media violence, is

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more likely to enhance aggression than to reduce it (Bushman, 2002; Bushman, Baumeister & Stack, 1999).

These findings are explained with reference to the role of aggressive cues in enhancing the likelihood of aggressive behaviour: symbolic acts of aggression can be regarded as aggressive cues that prime hostile thoughts and feelings and thereby pave the way for aggressive behaviour. Thus, the idea of catharsis is a popular myth that can be refuted on the basis of empirical evidence.

13.6.2 Punishment

Explanations of aggression as a result of learning processes suggest that we should look at punishment as an effective mechanism to suppress the performance of aggressive behaviour. However, there is general consensus that punishment can only be expected to work if several conditions are met (e.g., Berkowitz, 1993): (1) anticipated punishment must be sufficiently adverse; (2) it must have a high probability of being imposed; (3) punishment can only exert a deterrent effect if the individual's negative arousal is not too strong to prevent him or her from

calculating the costs of an aggressive response in advance in a rational manner; (4) punishment will only be effective if acceptable or attractive behavioural alternatives are available to the actor in the situation; and (5) punishment must follow immediately upon the transgression so that it is perceived as contingent upon the aggressive behaviour. Apart from the fact that the co-occurrence of these factors is relatively rare, critics have argued that punitive responses may in themselves instigate aggression by functioning as aggressive cues and may reinforce beliefs about the normative acceptability of aggressive behaviour. Punishment may also convey the message that the use of aggression is a viable strategy of conflict resolution. If it is to produce desirable consequences, punishment needs to be embedded into a more general approach towards instrumental learning in which the primary aim is to reward desirable rather than penalize undesirable behaviour (Coe & Dodge, 1998).

13.6.3 Anger management As we have seen, anger and negative affective arousal play a key role in many expressions of aggressive behaviour. Therefore, training people to control their anger should be effective in reducing hostile aggression. The focus of anger management approaches is on (1) teaching aggressive individuals to understand the processes that lead to anger and (2) promoting anger control by helping them to identify internal cues and external conditions that trigger aggressive outbursts. A meta-analysis of school-based interventions using anger management approaches to reduce aggressive behaviour obtained an overall weighted effect size of $d = .64$. This indicates that aggressive behaviour goes down substantially after anger management training compared to a control group (Robinson, Smith, Miller & Brownell, 1999). Thus, it seems that this strategy works well to reduce aggression among school populations. However, anger management methods can only be expected to work with individuals who understand that their aggressive behaviour results from a failure to control their aggressive impulses and who are motivated to change their inadequate handling of these impulses. Studies including individuals with a history of violence or known to be at high risk for violent action, such as people convicted of violent crime, have found little evidence of the success of anger management approaches in promoting effective regulation and reducing violent behaviour (e.g., Watt & Howells, 1999). Therefore, one is left to conclude that the target groups who are most in need of learning effective anger control

are most difficult to reach, or that anger management techniques are largely ineffective with violent offenders.

13.7 Unit Summary Aggressive behaviour is defined by its underlying motivation (to harm or injure another living being), not by its consequences (whether or not harm or injury actually occurs). This means that a behaviour is regarded as aggressive if it was guided by the intention to harm, even if no damage was done to the target. A shot fired from a gun may miss its target, but if the shot was intended to hit the target, it is nonetheless an instance of aggression. On the other hand, your dentist may cause you pain, but it is incidental or accidental, and not intended, hence it is not aggression.

13.8 Key Terms

- Trait Aggressiveness: An aggressive personality trait or trait aggressiveness has been defined as "a general propensity to engage in acts of physical and verbal aggression, a proneness to anger, and a proneness to hold hostile beliefs about other people across situations" (Buss & Perry, 1992; Baron & Richardson, 1994; Berkowitz, 1993; ...
- Hostile Aggressiveness: Hostile Aggression refers to violent attitudes or actions associated with anger and a desire to dominate a situation or others. It displays itself in verbal, non-verbal, and physical ways and holds the intention of causing harm.

13.9 Check Your Progress

- 1) What are different theories of aggression?
- 2) What is trait aggressiveness?
- 3) What is hostile aggressiveness?
- 4) How aggression is a social problem? Discuss.

Unit 14: Discrimination and Social Psychology

14.0 Introduction

14.1 Unit Objective

14.2 Understanding and Defining Discrimination

14.3 Theories of Discrimination

14.4 Measuring Discrimination

14.4.1 Laboratory Studies

14.4.2 Field Studies

14.5 Consequences of Discrimination

14.6 Reducing Discrimination

14.7 Unit Summary

14.8 Key Terms

17.9 Check Your Progress

14.0 Introduction Social psychologists engage with the prevalence and problems of discrimination by studying the processes that underlie it. Understanding when discrimination is likely to occur suggests ways that we can overcome it. In this unit, we begin by discussing the ways in which social psychologists talk about discrimination and discuss its prevalence. Second, we outline some theories underlying the phenomenon. Third, we consider the ways in which social psychological studies have measured discrimination, discussing findings from laboratory and field studies with explicit and implicit measures. Fourth, we consider the systemic consequences of discrimination and their implications for intergroup relations, social mobility and personal wellbeing.

14.1 Unit Objective This Unit intends to inform the learners on:

- Understanding and Defining Discrimination
- Theories of Discrimination
- Measuring Discrimination
- Consequences of Discrimination
- Reducing Discrimination

14.2 Understanding and Defining Discrimination Social psychologists are careful to disentangle discrimination from its close cousins of prejudice and stereotypes. Prejudice refers to an unjustifiable negative attitude toward a group and its individual members. Stereotypes are beliefs about the personal attributes of a group of people, and can be over-generalised, inaccurate, and resistant to change in the presence of new information. Discrimination refers to unjustifiable negative behaviour towards a group or its members, where behaviour is adjudged to include both actions towards, and judgements/decisions about, group members. Correll et al. (2010, p. 46) provide a very useful definition of discrimination as 'behaviour directed towards category members that is consequential for their outcomes and that is directed towards them not because of any particular deservingness or reciprocity, but simply because they happen to be members of that category'. The notion of 'deservingness' is central to the expression and experience of discrimination. It is not an objectively defined criterion but one that has its roots in historical and present-day inequalities and societal norms. Perpetrators may see their behaviours as justified by the deservingness of the targets, while the targets themselves may disagree. Thus the behaviours, which some judge to be discriminatory, will not be seen as such by others. The expression of discrimination can broadly be classified into two types: overt or direct, and subtle, unconscious or automatic. Manifestations include verbal and non-verbal hostility (Darley and Fazio, 1980; Word et al., 1974), avoidance of contact (Cuddy et al., 2007; Pettigrew and Tropp, 2006), aggressive approach behaviours (Cuddy, et al., 2007) and the denial of opportunities and access to equal treatment (Bobo, 2001; Sidanius and Pratto, 1999). Across a range of domains, cultures and historical periods, there are and have been systemic disparities between members of dominant and non-dominant groups (Sidanius and Pratto, 1999). For example, ethnic minorities consistently experience worse health outcomes (Barnett and Halverson, 2001; Underwood et al., 2004), worse school performance (Cohen et al., 2006), and harsher treatment in the justice system (Steffensmeier and Demuth, 2000). In both business and academic domains, women are paid less and hold positions of lower status than men, controlling for occupation and qualifications (Goldman et al., 2006). In terms of the labour market,

sociological research shows that ethnic minority applicants tend to suffer from a phenomenon known as the ethnic penalty. Ethnic penalties are defined as the net disadvantages experienced by ethnic minorities after controlling for their educational qualifications, age and experience in the labour market (Heath and McMahon, 1997). While the ethnic penalty cannot be equated with discrimination, discrimination is likely to be a major factor responsible for its existence. This discrimination ranges from unequal treatment that minority group members receive during the application process, and over the course of their education and socialisation, which can have grave consequences for the existence of 'bridging' social networks, 'spatial mismatch' between labour availability and opportunity, and differences in aspirations and preferences (Heath and McMahon, 1997). Discrimination influences the daily life of its victims in areas such as employment, income, financial opportunities, housing and educational opportunities, and medical care. Even with the same level of education and years of experience, ethnic minorities in Canada are 40% less likely to receive callbacks for an interview following a job application (Oreopolous, 2011). Blacks have higher mortality rates than Whites for eight of the 10 leading causes of death in the United States (Williams, 1999) and have less access to and receive poorer-quality health care, even controlling for other variables such as level of health insurance. Suicide rates among lesbians and gays are substantially higher than rates for the general population, and it has been argued that this in part due to the negative outcomes of prejudice, including negative attitudes and resulting social isolation (Halpert, 2002). And in some rare cases, discrimination even takes the form of hate crimes such as gay bashing. More commonly, members of minority groups also face a variety of small hassles, such as bad service in restaurants, being stared at, and being the target of jokes (Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, & Bylsma, 2003). But even these everyday "minor" forms of discrimination can be problematic because they may produce anger and anxiety among stigmatized group members and may lead to stress and other psychological problems (Klonoff, Landrine, & Campbell, 2000; Klonoff, Landrine, & Ullman, 1999). Stigmatized individuals who report experiencing more exposure to discrimination or other forms of unfair treatment also report more depression, anger, and anxiety and lower levels of life satisfaction and happiness (Swim, Hyers, Cohen, & Ferguson, 2001).

14.3 Theories of Discrimination Several theories have shaped our understanding of intergroup relations, prejudice and discrimination, and we focus on four here: 1) the social identity perspective, 2) the 'behaviours from inter-group affect and stereotypes' map, 3) aversive racism theory and 4) system justification theory. As individuals living in a social context, we traverse the continuum between our personal and collective selves. Different social contexts lead to the salience of particular group memberships (Turner et al., 1987). The first theoretical framework that we outline, the social identity perspective (Tajfel and Turner, 1979) holds that group members are motivated to protect their self-esteem and achieve a positive and distinct social identity. This drive for a positive social identity can result in discrimination, which is expressed as either direct harm to the outgroup, or more commonly and spontaneously, as giving preferential treatment to the ingroup, a phenomenon known as ingroup bias. Going further, and illustrating the general tendency that humans have to discriminate, the minimal group paradigm studies (Tajfel and Turner, 1986) reveal how mere categorisation as a group member can lead to ingroup bias, the favouring of in-group members over outgroup members in evaluations and allocation of resources (Turner, 1978). In the minimal group paradigm studies, participants are classified as belonging to arbitrary groups (e.g. people who tend to overestimate or underestimate the number of dots presented to them) and evaluate members of the ingroup and outgroup, and take part in a reward allocation task (Tajfel and Turner, 1986) between the two groups. Results across hundreds of studies show that participants rate ingroup members more positively, exhibit preference for ingroup members in allocation of resources, and want to maintain maximal difference in allocation between ingroup and outgroup members, thereby giving outgroup members less than an equality norm would require. Given the fact that group membership in this paradigm does not involve a deeply-held attachment and operates within the wider context of equality norms, this tendency to discriminate is an important finding, and indicative of the spontaneous nature of prejudice and discrimination in intergroup contexts (Al Ramiah et al., in press). Whereas social categorisation is sufficient to create discriminatory treatment, often motivated by ingroup favouritism, direct competition between groups exacerbates this bias, typically generating responses directly to disadvantage the outgroup, as well (Sherif et al., 1961). Whereas social identity theory examines basic, general processes leading to intergroup discrimination, the BIAS map (Behaviours from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes; see Cuddy, et al., 2007) offers insights into the specific ways that we discriminate against members of particular types of groups. The BIAS map identifies two dimensions of stereotypes: affect and action tendencies. Group stereotypes contain a mixture of competence and warmth attributes, and this combination of content gives rise to particular emotions and action tendencies. The warmth dimension of stereotypes, which carries greater weight in social encounters (Cuddy et al., 2007; Van Lange and Kuhlman, 1994; Vonk, 1999; Wojciszke et al., 1998), predicts active behavioural tendencies while the secondary dimension of competence predicts more passive tendencies. Negative active and passive behaviours can be construed by targets as constituting discrimination, and can have significant impact on the quality of their lives. Examples of negative passive behaviours are ignoring another's presence, not making eye contact with them, excluding members of certain groups from getting opportunities, and so on, while examples of negative active behaviours include supporting institutional racism or voting for anti-immigration political parties. These examples show that discriminatory behaviours can range from the subtle to the overt, and the particular views that we have about each outgroup determines the manifestation of discrimination. The third theory that we consider, aversive racism (Dovidio and Gaertner, 2004) complements social identity theory (which suggests the pervasiveness of intergroup discrimination) and the BIAS map (which helps identify the form in which discrimination will be manifested) by further identifying when discrimination will be manifested or inhibited. The aversive racism framework essentially evolved to understand the psychological conflict that afflicts many White Americans with regard to their racial attitudes. Changing social norms increasingly prohibit prejudice and discrimination towards minority and other stigmatised groups (Crandall et al., 2002), and work in the United States has shown that appearing racist has become aversive to many White Americans (Dovidio and Gaertner, 2004; Gaertner and Dovidio, 1986; Katz and Hass, 1988;

McConahay, 1986) in terms not only of their public image but also of their private self concept. However, a multitude of individual and societal factors continue to reinforce stereotypes and negative evaluative biases (which are rooted, in part, in biases identified by social identity theory), which result in continued expression and experience of discrimination. Equality norms give rise to considerable psychological conflict in which people regard prejudice as unjust and offensive, but remain unable to fully suppress their own biases. Thus ethnic and racial attitudes have become more complex than they were in the past. According to the aversive racism framework, people resolve this conflict by upholding egalitarian norms and simultaneously maintaining subtle or automatic forms of prejudice. Specifically, people generally will not discriminate in situations in which right and wrong is clearly defined; discrimination would be obvious to others and to oneself, and aversive racists do not want to appear or be discriminatory. However, aversive racists will systematically discriminate when appropriate behaviours are not clearly prescribed or they can justify their behaviour on the basis of some factor other than race (see Dovidio and Gaertner, 2004). The pervasiveness of discrimination and its systematic, and often subtle, expression shapes society in ways that perpetuate inequities. The final theory that we outline is system justification theory, which hinges on the finding that low-status groups in 'unequal social systems ... internalise a sense of personal or collective inferiority' (Jost et al., 2001, p. 367). System justification theorists argue that the social identity perspective posited need for positive distinctiveness as a function of feeling good about oneself (ego justification) and one's group (group justification) is related (positively or negatively, depending on your status) to the belief that the system in which the groups are based is fair (Jost and Banaji, 1994). For high-status groups, ego and group justification correspond to a belief that the system is just and that their high-status is a reward for their worthiness. This leads to ingroup bias. People with a history of personal and group advantage often derive the prescriptive from the descriptive, or in other words, labour under the 'is-ought' illusion (Hume, 1939); they believe that as this is what the world looks like and has looked like for a long time, this is in fact what it should look like. For low-status group members, however, these justification needs can be at odds (Jost and Burgess, 2000) if they believe that the system is just. Their low-status can be seen as deserved punishment for their unworthiness and can lead to the expression of outgroup bias, or a sense that the outgroup is better and therefore ought to be privileged. Thus system justification theory extends the social identity perspective to explain why inequality and discrimination amongst groups is perpetuated and tolerated. While these theories underlying discrimination are by no means exhaustive of the social psychological literature, we believe that these approaches help explain why, how, and when discrimination occurs and is perpetuated over time. These theories thus offer a solid grounding from which to consider the studies of discrimination that follow.

14.4 Measuring Discrimination

The United States General Social Survey dropped its equal-opportunity question because of near-unanimous support for the principle (Quillan, 2006). However, the evolution and predictive power of the theories just discussed speak to the fact that prejudice and discrimination, rather than evaporating in the heat of social change, remain strong and reliable features of intergroup life. There are overt and subtle ways to capture the impulses and evaluations that precede discrimination. Explicit measures of prejudice are self-report measures in which the participants state their attitudes about, or action tendencies toward, a particular target. These measures presume that participants are conscious of their evaluations and behavioural tendencies, and are constructed in a way to reduce the amount of socially desirable responding. In meta-analyses of the relationship between explicit prejudice and discrimination, the authors found a modest correlation between the two ($r = .32$: Dovidio et al., 1996; $r = .36$: Greenwald et al., 2009). Despite the modest effect sizes, the fact that they are derived from studies conducted in a range of situations and intergroup contexts suggests the reliability of the relationships, and the value of explicit measures. However, as our review of theories of discrimination suggests, biases do not necessarily have to be conscious or intentional to create unfair discrimination. Implicit measures of prejudice capture the evaluations and beliefs that are automatically, often unconsciously, activated by the presence or thought of the target group (Dovidio et al., 2001). These measures overcome the

social desirability concerns that plague explicit measures because they allow us to capture prejudice that people may be unwilling and/or unable to express (Fazio and Olson, 2003). The Implicit Association Test (IAT) is an example of implicit measurement (Greenwald et al., 1998), that is based on the finding that people make connections more quickly between pairs of ideas that are already related in our minds. Thus, it should be more difficult, and hence take longer, to produce evaluatively incompatible than compatible responses. For example, in the case of ageism, people typically take longer to pair the words 'old' and 'good' than they do to pair the words 'old' and 'bad'. It is considered to be an instance of prejudice because it involves a bias in our minds such that there are stronger mental associations between stereotype-consistent features (typically negative) and particular groups than between stereotype-inconsistent features and group membership. The time taken to respond does not depend on any essential or accurate feature of the groups in question, but reflects well-learned cultural associations that automatically come to mind (Blair et al., 2004). In a meta-analysis of the relationship between implicit prejudice and discrimination, the authors found a weak-to-modest relationship ($r = .27$: Greenwald et al., 2009), though in the context of studies that dealt with Black-White relations in the US, the relationship between implicit measures and discrimination ($r = .24$) was stronger than that between explicit measures and discrimination ($r = .12$). Experiments on unobtrusive forms of prejudice show that White bias against Blacks is more prevalent than indicated by surveys (Crosby et al., 1980). Despite people's best intentions, their ethnically biased cognitions and associations may persist. The result is a modern, subtle form of prejudice (that can be tapped by both implicit and explicit measures) that goes underground so as not to conflict with anti-racist norms while it continues to shape people's cognition, emotions and behaviours (Dovidio and Gaertner, 2004). Discrimination may take the form of blaming the outgroup for their disadvantage (Hewstone et al., 2002; Jost and Banaji, 1994; Pettigrew et al., 1998), not supporting policies that uplift outgroup members (Gilens, 1996), avoidance of interactions with outgroup members (Van Laar et al., 2005), automatically treating outgroup members as embodying stereotypical traits of their groups (Fiske, 1998), preference for the in-group over outgroup leading to preferential reward allocation (Tajfel and Turner, 1986), and ambivalent responses to the outgroup, that is having mixed positive and negative views about outgroup members (Glick and Fiske, 1996) which can lead to avoidance and passive harm to the outgroup (Cuddy et al., 2007). We now consider two empirical approaches – laboratory and field studies – to the study of discrimination and the processes that underlie it.

14.4.1 Laboratory Studies

In a laboratory study, the investigator manipulates a variable of interest, randomly assigns participants to different conditions of the variable or treatments, and measures their responses to the manipulation while attempting to control for other relevant conditions or attributes. Laboratory studies can reveal both subtle and blatant discriminatory responses, and illuminate the processes that shape these responses. In a classic social psychological paper, Word et al. (1974) studied the presence and effects of subtle non-verbal discriminatory behaviours among university students in a series of two studies. In Study 1, they identified non-verbal discriminatory behaviours from White interviewers of Black versus White job applicants. In Study 2 they were able to demonstrate that such subtle discriminatory behaviours when directed against White applicants by White interviewers elicited behaviours stereotypically associated with Blacks, and led to poor performance in the interview, a demonstration of the self-fulfilling prophesy; i.e. treating others like they will fail causes them to fail. This study powerfully demonstrated that negative stereotypes about an outgroup can give rise to negative passive behaviour, which in turn can have performance-reducing consequences for the recipients of such non-verbal behaviours. In legal settings, negative verbal and non-verbal treatment may constitute unlawful discrimination when they result in the creation of a hostile work environment (Blank et al., 2004). In an effort to examine the relationship between explicit and implicit measures of prejudice and verbal and non-verbal discriminatory behaviours, Dovidio et al. (2002) first asked White university student participants to complete a self-report measure of their attitudes towards Blacks. Some time later, during the experimental phase of the study, they subliminally primed participants with White and Black faces and positive and negative non-stereotypic

characteristics which participants had to pair together. Subliminal priming refers to stimuli presented in the fleeting, outside conscious awareness. Their response time to each category- word combination (e.g. black/ friendly) was measured as an indication of their implicit associations, with shorter response latencies reflecting higher implicit associations of particular ethnic groups with particular stereotypes. Then participants, who were told they were taking part in an unrelated study, engaged in an interaction task first with a White (Black) confederate and then with a Black (White) confederate; these interactions were videotaped. After each interaction, both the participant and the confederate completed rating scales of their own and the confederate's friendliness. In the next stage of the study, the videotaped interactions were played in silent mode to two judges who rated the friendliness of non-verbal behaviours of the participants. As the authors anticipated, the explicit prejudice measure significantly predicted bias in White participants' verbal behaviour to Black relative to White confederates. The implicit measure significantly predicted White participants' non-verbal friendliness and the extent to which the confederates and observers perceived bias in the participants' friendliness. This study powerfully elucidates a point raised earlier in this chapter, that behaviours which some judge to be discriminatory will not be seen as such by others. Specifically, implicit negative attitudes towards the outgroup can lead majority/minority or advantaged/disadvantaged group members to form divergent impressions of their interaction partner. These implicit attitudes are associated in this study and in the one by Word et al. (1974) with non-verbal behaviours (what the BIAS map would term passive harm), which led to the development of self-fulfilling prophecies. The inconsistency of one's implicit and explicit attitudes explains why majority and minority group members experience interethnic interactions in such divergent ways; majority group members refer to their explicit attitudes when thinking about interactions with outgroup members, while minority group members seem to rely more on the majority group member's implicit attitude, as reflected in their non-verbal behaviours, to determine the friendliness of the interaction. Consistent with the predictions of aversive racism, discrimination against Blacks in helping behaviours was more likely when participants could rationalise decisions not to help with reasons that had nothing to do with ethnicity. For example, using university students, Gaertner and Dovidio (1977) showed that in an emergency, Black victims were less likely to be helped when the participant had the opportunity to diffuse responsibility over several other people, who could potentially be called upon to help; however, Blacks and Whites were helped equally when the participant was the only bystander. In a meta-analysis on helping behaviours, Saucier et al. (2005) found that when helping was lengthier, riskier, more difficult, more effortful, and when potential helpers were further away from targets, Whites gave less help to Blacks than to fellow Whites. Similar discrimination was evidenced when Dovidio and Gaertner (2000) studied how White university student participants made selection decisions in a hiring task. They found that White participants did not discriminate against White relative to Black candidates when the candidate's qualifications were either strong or weak, but did discriminate when the decision was more ambiguous (i.e. when qualifications were middling). Echoing findings from the helping studies, in the ambiguous condition, participants were able to find alternative explanations for their unwillingness to hire Black applicants, and thus could express their prejudice without having to be faced with it. This is a classic manifestation of modern or aversive racism (Dovidio and Gaertner, 2004; McConahay, 1986). Another study with obvious real-world consequences is Blair et al.'s (2004) study on judge biases in criminal sentencing. The authors anticipated that moving beyond mere ethnic categorisation, further intra-category categorisation, specifically the possession of Afrocentric features, could predict behaviour towards members of subcategories. Afrocentric features refer to features deemed to be typical of African Americans: darker skin, fuller lips and broader noses (Pizzi et al., 2005). Afrocentric features vary between categories as well as within them, and it is well-documented that possession of Afrocentric features is likely to lead to greater categorisation as Black, which in turn is likely to lead to stereotypic inferences about that individual (Blair et al., 2002; Eberhardt et al., 2006). Using data from the Department of Corrections in Florida, which has a webpage for every incarcerated inmate (including their criminal record, sentence and a court 'mug shot'), the authors conducted a study of the relationship between having Afrocentric features and sentence length. They used advanced law students to create an index of each felon's criminal history, which

reflected aspects such as the seriousness of the currently convicted offence and the number of prior offences. The Afrocentric features of each of the felons was rated by participants from earlier studies. There was evidence of longer sentences for those with the same criminal history if they were higher on Afrocentric features (within ethnic group). Particularly the authors found that controlling for criminal history and crime type, those with more Afrocentric features tended to have received a judicial sentence that was on average eight months longer than those with less Afrocentric features. Related to the justice system, the final laboratory study that we will discuss is an important piece of research that involves split-second decisions with possibly fatal consequences. Correll et al. (2002) conducted several studies to understand whether implicit associations of ethnicity with certain group stereotypes might inform a police officer's decision to shoot a suspect. Using a simple video game, Black or White targets holding guns or other non-threatening objects (such as mobile phones), appeared in real-world backgrounds. Participants (who included university students and adults from the wider population) were told to 'shoot' armed targets and to 'not shoot' unarmed targets. In line with their expectations, the authors found that White participants made the correct decision to shoot an armed target more quickly if the target was Black than if he was White. Conversely, they also found that White participants decided to 'not shoot' an unarmed target more quickly if he was White. What this study shows is that our implicit associations can have very grave consequences, and are particularly powerful predictors of behaviour in situations where we are required to react very quickly, and with little time for non-automatic processes to operate. This is once again a demonstration that 'best intentions', while very important in a range of domains, may sometimes be too difficult to access at times of emergency. The authors also conducted a further study (Correll et al., 2007) in which they gave actual police officers the same response latency task. They found that police officers demonstrated bias in the latencies of their correct responses, in that the automatic associations come to mind for them as well. However, the police officers made many more correct decisions and their decisions were not influenced by the irrelevant cue of target ethnicity. This demonstrates the effect of training; the automatic associations were still there, but their impact on final performance could be controlled such that the officers did not act on this bias.

14.4.2 Field Studies Laboratory experiments are well-suited to establishing cause-and-effect relationships (internal validity), but the often artificial nature of laboratory studies and their general reliance on college students as participants raise questions about the generalisability (external validity) of the findings. Field studies complement laboratory research because they observe people in their natural settings, or when they are in treatment and control conditions that are not created by the researcher. Field experiments measure the impact of differential treatments more cleanly than non-experimental approaches, yet they have the advantage of occurring in a realistic setting and hence are more directly generalisable than laboratory experiments. However they do often involve non-random allocation of participants to conditions, and do not give researchers the ability to control for possible confounding variables. The role that prejudice plays in helping behaviours is illustrated by Bushman and Bonacci (2004) in their modern version of the lost-letter technique (Milgram et al., 1965). In this study, White student participants at an American university completed a self-report measure of prejudice towards Arabs. Then two weeks later, they 'mistakenly' received an email intended for another student (who was of Arab or European descent) containing information that the intended recipient either won a prestigious scholarship or was not awarded it. The winner of the scholarship needed to respond to the email within 48 hours in order to receive the scholarship. Of interest was whether the student alerted the sender to the mistake. The authors found that when the recipient won the scholarship worth thousands of dollars, more prejudiced participants were less likely to alert the sender if the recipient was of Arab rather than European descent. If, however, the intended recipient did not win the scholarship, then more prejudiced participants were more likely to alert the sender if the non-winning recipient was of Arab rather than European descent. Thus the prejudiced participants were less likely to pass on time-sensitive and highly important good news, but more likely to pass on bad news that was not time-sensitive. Other paradigms studying the effects of prejudice on behaviour gauge willingness to help a caller who has just spent his/her last dime mistakenly calling the recipient of the call (though in the age of cell phones, the utility of this paradigm is quite limited!), someone who drops papers or books, or knocks over a cup of pencils (see Crosby et al., 1980).

Hiring decisions also have their counterpart in field studies. Glick et al. (1988) examined gender discrimination in hiring by asking professionals to evaluate bogus résumés of men and women for jobs that were either masculine or feminine in nature. The individuating information provided about male and female job applicants led participants to make virtually identical inferences about the personality traits of male and female applicants who had the same information in their résumés. However, even though a 'masculine' female applicant was perceived to be just as aggressive, independent, strong, and decisive as a 'masculine' male applicant, the female applicant was less likely to be interviewed or hired for the male-dominated job of sales manager. Similarly, female applicants were consistently preferred over male applicants for the job of receptionist or secretary, even when the applicants were thought not to differ in the degree to which they possessed masculine or feminine personality traits. The authors argue that one possibility is that employers consider certain occupations to be gendered and thus hire on the basis of that stereotype rather than on the basis of individuating non-gendered information about the applicant. Thus gender plays a disproportionate role in explaining hiring preferences for gendered occupations. Prejudice and discrimination do not always manifest in more/less likelihood of being hired, but they do have other more subtle manifestations, consistent with findings from Word et al. (1974). Hebl et al. (2002) had confederate 'applicants' (blind to their condition) wear hats labelled with either 'gay and proud' (stigmatising condition) or 'Texan and proud' (neutral condition) and apply for retail jobs. The results revealed that gay and lesbian applicants did not experience formal discrimination (i.e. no differences in being told there were jobs available, being able to fill out applications, or in receiving job callbacks) relative to assumed heterosexual applicants, but they did experience more subtle and informal discrimination (the average interaction length was 6 1/2 minutes with non-stigmatised applicants, compared to about 4 minutes for the gay and lesbian applicants, and the interactions were also rated by observers as having less warmth, increased interaction distance and more rudeness) than did assumed heterosexual applicants. Doctor-patient interactions are a realm in which we do not expect to see high levels of ethnic prejudice or discrimination, as the disease is expected to serve as a common and unifying enemy. Penner et al. (2010b) studied the effects of physician bias in interactions between Black patients and non-Black physicians in a primary care facility in the US. The patient participants completed a questionnaire on their health, perceived discrimination, and compliance with medical regimens, while the physician participants completed measures of their explicit and implicit bias. The interactions between physician and patient were recorded, and then after the interaction, the patients' and physicians' immediate and longer-term reactions to the interactions were recorded. The patients had a less positive view of interactions and talked less (see also Penner et al., 2010a) with physicians who were low in explicit prejudice and high in implicit prejudice than they did with physicians who had any other combination of implicit and explicit prejudice. Low explicit-high implicit prejudice physicians represent the classic aversive racist, and Black patients may have responded to these types of physicians most negatively because of the dissonance between the physician's view of themselves (possibly in terms of verbal behaviour) and their actual (likely non-verbal) behaviours which betrayed their implicit prejudice. Other studies suggest that discrimination may also be responsible for disparities in cancer treatments (Penner et al., in press). For example, Black women are more likely than White women to receive inappropriately low doses of chemotherapy for breast cancer; and Black men are less likely than White men to receive aggressive or definitive treatment for moderate and advanced grades of prostate cancer. Neither of these kinds of differences were explained by medical reasons or factors such as the availability of medical insurance. These and other studies of Black-White health disparities in the US demonstrate the potentially serious consequences of expressing prejudice and experiencing discrimination, even in what is commonly regarded as a prejudice-transcending domain such as healthcare.

14.5 Consequences of Discrimination

The consequences of discrimination are pervasive, cumulative and long-lasting, and in this section we will consider some of these. In terms of the effects of discrimination on neighbourhood choice, it has been argued that many people occupy segregated areas because of discrimination by members of the majority group, who prefer not to share neighbourhoods with minority members and newcomers (Cater and Hones, 1978). Thus particular groups often live encapsulated in enclaves (Peach, 1996), attached to the economy, but separate from the broader society (Modood et al., 1997). This segregated living has clear consequences for integration,

and the absence of positive intergroup contact is associated with greater prejudice (Hewstone and Brown, 1986). Discrimination across situations and time can give rise to cumulative disadvantage. Avoidance may appear harmless in any given situation but, when aggregated across situations, such rejection can lead to long-term exclusion. This is particularly problematic in situations where social networking matters (Heath and McMahon, 1997), such as employment, education, and health care. Such exclusionary practices can be just as damaging as more active and direct discrimination. In addition to discrimination across situations, cumulative disadvantage can also arise from exclusion across group memberships. Situations of 'multiple jeopardy' arise when people are denied access on the basis of more than one of their memberships (e.g. a homosexual black woman in a wheelchair). Individuals who are in double or triple minority or stigmatised groups experience considerable difficulty in being accepted as equal members of society (Crisp and Hewstone, 1999), and in succeeding. Cumulative disadvantage also arises from persistent disadvantage. For minority group members, today's outcomes may affect the incentives for tomorrow's behaviour at every stage of the life cycle and in different social domains (Loury, 2000; Lundberg and Startz, 1998). This leads to entrenched social hierarchies and reduced social mobility. Another consequence of discrimination, either verbal or non-verbal (and demonstrated by several of the studies discussed), is that it can result in underperformance and stress. Others' negative stereotypes and expectations of the discriminated against group can lead one to experience stereotype threat, which is a debilitating concern that one will be evaluated on the basis of the negative stereotype (Steele and Aronson, 1995). This has been shown to be related to underperformance in educational settings (Steele and Aronson, 1995) and also employment settings (Darley and Gross, 1983; Word, et al., 1974), in the form of lower organisational commitment, career commitment, organisational self-esteem and job satisfaction (Ragins and Cornwell, 2002). It is also associated with increased anxiety, stress and poor physical health for targets (Waldo, 1999). In addition to increases in anxiety, being discriminated against can have implications for other aspects of mental well-being (Pascoe and Richman, 2009). In a multilevel study using a Black sample of 10-12 year old children in the US, Simons et al. (2002) found that a history of discrimination had an impact on depressive symptoms at both the individual and community level. At the individual-level, in addition to uninvolved parenting and criminal victimisation, having a history of being personally racially discriminated against explained childhood depressive symptoms. At the community-level, a history of discrimination was associated with depressive symptoms over and above criminal victimisation and ethnic identification. One way in which the stigmatised regulate emotion and protect self-esteem in the face of threats to their identity is by withdrawing their efforts from and/or disengaging their self-esteem from domains in which they are negatively stereotyped or fear being a target of discrimination (Major et al., 1998; Steele, 1997). For example, women who were primed with negative gender stereotypes chose to answer fewer maths questions and focused instead on verbal questions in a challenging test (Davies et al., 2002). While discrimination and stereotype threat can lead stigmatised group members to underperform, an additional implication is that members of a disadvantaged group may need to become better qualified than majority group members in order to succeed (Biernat and Kobrynowicz, 1997). This is due to a perception that on average, members of stigmatised groups are poorly qualified and incompetent. Thus members of the lower-status groups are taxed for their group membership, by perceiving that they need to work harder than advantaged group members in order to succeed. This is sometimes referred to in American common parlance as the 'Black tax'. Perceived discrimination is also closely connected with 'race-based rejection sensitivity' (Mendoza-Denton et al., 2002). This refers to the anxiety that minority/stigmatised group members experience of being rejected purely on account of their ethnicity/group membership. Mendoza-Denton et al. (2002) found that Black students high in race-based rejection sensitivity had fewer White friends and interacted with professors and teaching assistants less compared to students low in race-based rejection sensitivity.

Finally, with regard to health outcomes, the racially discordant nature of most medical interactions (about 75 per cent of all US medical interactions with Black patients involve non-Black physicians) appears to have deleterious consequences. Specifically, they result in interactions that are, relative to racially concordant interactions, less patient-centred, characterised by less positive affect, involve less patient participation in decision making, more likely to be dominated by the physician and involve poorer information exchange between physician and patient (Penner, et al., in press). This, combined with a history of discrimination, can lead to very negative health outcomes for minority group patients. In a longitudinal study Penner and his colleagues (Penner et al., 2009) showed that Black patients who reported experiencing high levels of discrimination were less likely to adhere to the treatment prescribed to them by non-Black physicians, and to have more negative reactions to these physicians. They also reported poorer health and, in fact, their medical records showed that they had more chronic diseases.

14.6 Reducing Discrimination

We have seen that social categorization is a basic part of human nature and one that helps us to simplify our social worlds, to draw quick (if potentially inaccurate) conclusions about others, and to feel good about ourselves. In many cases, our preferences for ingroups may be relatively harmless—we may prefer to socialise with people who share our race or ethnicity for instance, but without particularly disliking the others. But categorizing others may also lead to prejudice and discrimination, and it may even do so without our awareness. Because prejudice and discrimination are so harmful to so many people, we must all work to get beyond them. Discrimination influences the daily life of its victims in areas such as employment, income, financial opportunities, housing and educational opportunities, and medical care. Even with the same level of education and years of experience, ethnic minorities in Canada are 40% less likely to receive callbacks for an interview following a job application (Oreopolous, 2011). Blacks have higher mortality rates than Whites for eight of the 10 leading causes of death in the United States (Williams, 1999) and have less access to and receive poorer-quality health care, even controlling for other variables such as level of health insurance. Suicide rates among lesbians and gays are substantially higher than rates for the general population, and it has been argued that this in part due to the negative outcomes of prejudice, including negative attitudes and resulting social isolation (Halpert, 2002). And in some rare cases, discrimination even takes the form of hate crimes such as gay bashing. More commonly, members of minority groups also face a variety of small hassles, such as bad service in restaurants, being stared at, and being the target of jokes (Swim, Hyers, Cohen, Fitzgerald, & Bylsma, 2003). But even these everyday “minor” forms of discrimination can be problematic because they may produce anger and anxiety among stigmatized group members and may lead to stress and other psychological problems (Klonoff, Landrine, & Campbell, 2000; Klonoff, Landrine, & Ullman, 1999). Stigmatized individuals who report experiencing more exposure to discrimination or other forms of unfair treatment also report more depression, anger, and anxiety and lower levels of life satisfaction and happiness (Swim, Hyers, Cohen, & Ferguson, 2001). Of course, most of us do try to keep our stereotypes and our prejudices out of mind, and we work hard to avoid discriminating (Richeson & Shelton, 2007). But even when we work to keep our negative beliefs under control, this does not mean that they easily disappear. Neil Macrae and his colleagues (Macrae, Bodenhausen, Milne, & Jetten, 1994) asked British college students to write a paragraph describing a skinhead (a member of a group that is negatively stereotyped in England). One half of the participants were asked to be sure to not use their stereotypes when they were judging him, whereas the other half simply wrote whatever came to mind. Although the participants who were asked to suppress their thoughts were able to do it, this suppression didn’t last very long. After they had suppressed their stereotypes, these beliefs quickly popped back into mind, making it even more likely that they would be used immediately later. But stereotypes are not always and inevitably activated when we encounter people from other groups. We can and we do get past them, although doing so may take some effort on our part (Blair, 2002). There are a number of techniques that we can use to try to improve our attitudes toward outgroups, and at least some of them have been found to be effective. Kawakami, Dovidio, Moll, Hermsen, and Russian (2000) found that students who practised responding in non stereotypical ways to members of other groups became better able to avoid activating their negative stereotypes on future occasions. And a number of studies have found that we become less prejudiced when we are exposed to and think about group members who have particularly

positive or non stereotypical characteristics. For instance, Blair, Ma, and Lenton (2001) asked their participants to imagine a woman who was "strong" and found that doing so decreased stereotyping of women. Similarly, Bodenhausen, Schwarz, Bless, and Wanke (1995) found that when White American students thought about positive Black role models—such as Oprah Winfrey and Michael Jordan—they became less prejudiced toward Blacks. Reducing Discrimination by Changing Social Norms One variable that makes us less prejudiced is education. People who are more educated express fewer stereotypes and prejudice in general. This is true for students who enroll in courses that are related to stereotypes and prejudice, such as a course on gender and ethnic diversity (Rudman, Ashmore, & Gary, 2001), and is also true more generally—education reduces prejudice, regardless of what particular courses you take (Sidanius, Sinclair, & Pratto, 2006). The effects of education on reducing prejudice are probably due in large part to the new social norms that people are introduced to in school. Social norms define what is appropriate and inappropriate, and we can effectively change stereotypes and prejudice by changing the relevant norms about them. Jetten, Spears, and Manstead (1997) manipulated whether students thought that the other members of their university favoured equal treatment of others or believed that others thought it was appropriate to favour the ingroup. They found that perceptions of what the other group members believed had an important influence on the beliefs of the individuals themselves. The students were more likely to show ingroup favouritism when they believed that the norm of their ingroup was to do so, and this tendency was increased for students who had high social identification with the ingroup. Sechrist and Stangor (2001) selected White college students who were either high or low in prejudice toward Blacks and then provided them with information indicating that their prejudiced or unprejudiced beliefs were either shared or not shared by the other students at their university. Then the students were asked to take a seat in a hallway to wait for the next part of the experiment. A Black confederate was sitting in one seat at the end of the row, and the dependent measure was how far away the students sat from her.

High prejudice students who learned that other students were also prejudiced sat farther away from the Black confederate in comparison with high prejudice individuals who were led to believe that their beliefs were not shared. On the other hand, students who were initially low in prejudice and who believed these views were shared sat closer to the Black confederate in comparison with low prejudice individuals who were led to believe that their beliefs were not shared. These results demonstrate that our perceptions of relevant social norms can strengthen or weaken our tendencies to engage in discriminatory behaviors. White college students who were low in prejudice toward Blacks sat closer to the Black confederate when they had been told that their beliefs were shared with other group members at their university. On the other hand, White college students who were high in prejudice sat farther away from the Black confederate when they had been told that their beliefs were shared with other group members at their university. Data are from Sechrist and Stangor (2001). The influence of social norms is powerful, and long-lasting changes in beliefs about outgroups will occur only if they are supported by changes in social norms. Prejudice and discrimination thrive in environments in which they are perceived to be the norm, but they die when the existing social norms do not allow it. And because social norms are so important, the behavior of individuals can help create or reduce prejudice and discrimination. Discrimination, prejudice, and even hate crimes such as gay bashing will be more likely to continue if people do not respond to or confront them when they occur. What this means is that if you believe that prejudice is wrong, you must confront it when you see it happening. Czopp, Monteith, and Mark (2006) had White participants participate in a task in which it was easy to unintentionally stereotype a Black person, and as a result, many of the participants did so. Then, confederates of the experimenter confronted the students about their stereotypes, saying things such as "Maybe it would be good to think about Blacks in other ways that are a little more fair?" or "It just seems that you sound like some kind of racist to me. You know what I mean?" Although the participants who had been confronted experienced negative feelings about the confrontation and also expressed negative opinions about the person who confronted them, the confrontation did work. The students who had been confronted expressed

less prejudice and fewer stereotypes on subsequent tasks than did the students who had not been confronted. As this study concluded, taking steps to reduce prejudice is everyone's duty—having a little courage can go a long way in this regard. Confronting prejudice can lead other people to think that we are complaining and therefore to dislike us (Kaiser & Miller, 2001; Shelton & Stewart, 2004), but confronting prejudice is not all negative for the person who confronts. Although it is embarrassing to do so, particularly if we are not completely sure that the behaviour was in fact prejudice, when we fail to confront, we may frequently later feel guilty that we did not (Shelton, Richeson, Salvatore, & Hill, 2006).

Reducing Prejudice through Intergroup Contact

One of the reasons that people may hold stereotypes and prejudices is that they view the members of outgroups as different from them. We may become concerned that our interactions with people from different racial groups will be unpleasant, and these anxieties may lead us to avoid interacting with people from those groups (Mallett, Wilson, & Gilbert, 2008). What this suggests is that a good way to reduce prejudice is to help people create closer connections with members of different groups. People will be more favourable toward others when they learn to see those other people as more similar to them, as closer to the self, and to be more concerned about them. The idea that intergroup contact will reduce prejudice, known as the contact hypothesis, is simple: If children from different ethnic groups play together in school, their attitudes toward each other should improve. And if we encourage college students to travel abroad, they will meet people from other cultures and become more positive toward them. One important example of the use of intergroup contact to influence prejudice came about as a result of the important U.S. Supreme Court case *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954. In this case, the U.S. Supreme Court agreed, based in large part on the testimony of psychologists, that busing Black children to schools attended primarily by White children, and vice versa, would produce positive outcomes on intergroup attitudes, not only because it would provide Black children with access to better schools, but also because the resulting intergroup contact would reduce prejudice between Black and White children. This strategy seemed particularly appropriate at the time it was implemented because most schools in the United States then were highly segregated by race. The strategy of busing was initiated after the Supreme Court decision, and it had a profound effect on schools in the United States. For one, the policy was very effective in changing school makeup—the number of segregated schools decreased dramatically during the 1960s after the policy was begun. Busing also improved the educational and occupational achievement of Blacks and increased the desire of Blacks to interact with Whites; for instance, by forming cross-race friendships (Stephan, 1999). Overall, then, the case of desegregating schools in the United States supports the expectation that intergroup contact, at least in the long run, can be successful in changing attitudes. Nevertheless, as a result of several subsequent U.S. Supreme Court decisions, the policy of desegregating schools via busing was not continued past the 1990s. Although student busing to achieve desegregated schools represents one prominent example of intergroup contact, such contact occurs in many other areas as well. Taken together, there is substantial support for the effectiveness of intergroup contact in improving group attitudes in a wide variety of situations, including schools, work organisations, military forces, and public housing. Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) conducted a meta-analysis in which they reviewed over 500 studies that had investigated the effects of intergroup contact on group attitudes. They found that attitudes toward groups that were in contact became more positive over time. Furthermore, positive effects of contact were found on both stereotypes and prejudice and for many different types of contacted groups. The positive effects of intergroup contact may be due in part to increases in other-concern. Galinsky and Moskowitz (2000) found that leading students to take the perspective of another group member—which increased empathy and closeness to the person—also reduced prejudice. And the behaviour of students on college campuses demonstrates the importance of connecting with others and the dangers of not doing so. Sidanius, Van Laar, Levin, and Sinclair (2004) found that students who joined exclusive campus groups, including fraternities, sororities, and minority ethnic organisations (such as the African Student Union), were more prejudiced to begin with and became even less connected and more intolerant of members of other social groups over the time that they remained in the organisations. It appears that memberships in these groups

focused the students on themselves and other people who were very similar to them, leading them to become less tolerant of others who are different. Although intergroup contact does work, it is not a panacea because the conditions necessary for it to be successful are frequently not met. Contact can be expected to work only in situations that create the appropriate opportunities for change. For one, contact will only be effective if it provides information demonstrating that the existing stereotypes held by the individuals are incorrect. When we learn more about groups that we didn't know much about before, we learn more of the truth about them, leading us to be less biased in our beliefs. But if our interactions with the group members do not allow us to learn new beliefs, then contact cannot work. When we first meet someone from another category, we are likely to rely almost exclusively on our stereotypes (Brodz & Ross, 1998). However, when we get to know the individual well (e.g., as a student in a classroom learns to know the other students over a school year), we may get to the point where we ignore that individual's group membership almost completely, responding to him or her entirely at the individual level (Madon et al., 1998). This contact is effective in part because it leads us to get past our perceptions of others as group members and to individuate them. When we get past group memberships and focus more on the individuals in the groups, we begin to see that there is a great deal of variability among the group members and that our global and undifferentiated group stereotypes are actually not that informative (Rothbart & John, 1985). Successful intergroup contact tends to reduce the perception of outgroup homogeneity. Contact also helps us feel more positively about the members of the other group, and this positive effect makes us like them more. Intergroup contact is also more successful when the people involved in the contact are motivated to learn about the others. One factor that increases this motivation is interdependence—a state in which the group members depend on each other for successful performance of the group goals (Neuberg & Fiske, 1987). The importance of interdependence can be seen in the success of cooperative learning techniques, such as the jigsaw classroom (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978; Aronson, 2004).

The jigsaw classroom is an approach to learning in which students from different racial or ethnic groups work together, in an interdependent way, to master material. The class is divided into small learning groups, where each group is diverse in ethnic and gender composition. The assigned material to be learned is divided into as many parts as there are students in the group, and members of different groups who are assigned the same task meet together to help develop a strong report. Each student then learns his or her own part of the material and presents this piece of the puzzle to the other members of his or her group. The students in each group are therefore interdependent in learning all the material. A wide variety of techniques, based on principles of the jigsaw classroom, are in use in many schools around the world, and research studying these approaches has found that cooperative, interdependent experiences among students from different social groups are effective in reducing negative stereotyping and prejudice (Stephan, 1999). In sum, we can say that contact will be most effective when it is easier to get to know, and become more respectful of, the members of the other group and when the social norms of the situation promote equal, fair treatment of all groups. If the groups are treated unequally, for instance, by a teacher or leader who is prejudiced and who therefore treats the different groups differently, or if the groups are in competition rather than cooperation, there will be no benefit. In cases when these conditions are not met, contact may not be effective and may in fact increase prejudice, particularly when it confirms stereotypical expectations (Stangor, Jonas, Stroebe, & Hewstone, 1996). Finally, it is important that enough time be allowed for the changes to take effect. In the case of busing in the United States, for instance, the positive effects of contact seemed to have been occurring, but they were not happening particularly fast. Let's consider (in the following Research Focus) still another way that intergroup contact can reduce prejudice—the idea that prejudice can be reduced for people who have friends who are friends with members of the outgroup, known as the extended-contact hypothesis. *Moving Others Closer to Us: The Benefits of Recategorization* The research on intergroup contact suggests that although contact may improve prejudice, it may make it worse if it is not implemented correctly. Improvement is likely only when the contact

moves the members of the groups to feel that they are closer to each other rather than further away from each other. In short, groups are going to have better attitudes toward each other when they see themselves more similarly to each other—when they feel more like one large group than a set of smaller groups. This fact was demonstrated in a very convincing way in what is now a classic social psychological study. In the "Robbers' Cave Experiment," Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, and Sherif (1961) studied the group behaviour of 11-year-old boys at a summer camp. Although the boys did not know it, the researchers carefully observed the behaviours of the children during the camp session, with the goal of learning about how group conflict developed and how it might be resolved among the children. During the first week of the camp, the boys were divided into two groups that camped at two different campsites. During this time, friendly relationships developed among the boys within each of the two groups. Each group developed its own social norms and group structure and became quite cohesive, with a strong positive social identity. The two groups chose names for themselves (the Rattlers and the Eagles), and each made their own group flag and participated in separate camp activities. At the end of this one-week baseline period, it was arranged that the two groups of boys would become aware of each other's presence. Furthermore, the researchers worked to create conditions that led to increases in each group's social identity and at the same time created negative perceptions of the other group. The researchers arranged baseball games, a tug-of-war, and a treasure hunt and offered prizes for the group that won the competitions. Almost immediately, this competition created ingroup favoritism and prejudice, and discrimination quickly followed. By the end of the second week, the Eagles had sneaked up to the Rattlers' cabin and stolen their flag. When the Rattlers discovered the theft, they in turn raided the Eagles' cabin, stealing things. There were food fights in the dining room, which was now shared by the groups, and the researchers documented a substantial increase in name-calling and stereotypes of the outgroup. Some fistfights even erupted between members of the different groups.

The researchers then intervened by trying to move the groups closer to each other. They began this third stage of the research by setting up a series of situations in which the boys had to work together to solve a problem. These situations were designed to create interdependence by presenting the boys with superordinate goals—goals that were both very important to them and yet that required the cooperative efforts and resources of both the Eagles and the Rattlers to attain. These goals involved such things as the need to pool money across both groups in order to rent a movie that all the campers wanted to view, or the need to pull together on ropes to get a food truck that had become stuck back onto the road. As the children worked together to meet these goals, the negative perceptions of the group members gradually improved; there was a reduction of hostility between the groups and an emergence of more positive intergroup attitudes. This strategy was effective because it led the campers to perceive both the ingroup and the outgroup as one large group (“we”) rather than as two separate groups (“us” and “them”). As differentiation between the ingroup and the outgroup decreases, so should ingroup favouritism, prejudice, and conflict. The differences between the original groups are still present, but they are potentially counteracted by perceived similarities in the second superordinate group. The attempt to reduce prejudice by creating a superordinate categorization is known as the goal of creating a common ingroup identity (Gaertner & Dovidio, 2008), and we can diagram the relationship as follows: interdependence and cooperation → common ingroup identity → favourable intergroup attitudes. A substantial amount of research has supported the predictions of the common ingroup identity model. For instance, Samuel Gaertner and his colleagues (Gaertner, Mann, Murrell, & Dovidio, 1989) tested the hypothesis that interdependent cooperation in groups reduces negative beliefs about outgroup members because it leads people to see the others as part of the ingroup (by creating a common identity). In this research, college students were brought to a laboratory where they were each assigned to one of two teams of three members each, and each team was given a chance to create its own unique group identity by working together. Then, the two teams were brought into a single room to work on a problem. In one condition, the two teams were told to work together as a larger, six-member team to solve the problem, whereas in the other condition, the two teams worked on the problem separately. Consistent with the expected positive results of creating a common group identity, the interdependence created in the condition where the teams worked together increased the tendency of the team members to see themselves as members of a single larger team, and this in turn reduced the tendency for each group to show ingroup favouritism. But the benefits of recategorization are not confined to laboratory settings—they also appear in our everyday interactions with other people. Jason Neir and his colleagues had Black and White interviewers approach White students who were attending a football game (Neir et al., 2001). The dependent measure was whether or not they agreed to help the interviewer by completing a questionnaire. However, the interviewers also wore hats representing either one of the two universities who were playing in the game. As you can see in the figure given below, the data were analysed both by whether the interviewer and the student were of the same race (either both White or one White and one Black) and also by whether they wore hats from the same or different universities. As expected on the basis of recategorization and the common ingroup identity approach, the White students were significantly more likely to help the Black interviewers when they wore a hat of the same university as that worn by the interviewee. The hat evidently led the White students to recategorize the interviewer as part of the university ingroup, leading to more helping. However, whether the individuals shared university affiliation did not influence helping for the White participants, presumably because they already saw the interviewer as a member of the ingroup (the interviewer was also White).

Figure 13.3 Recategorization and Helping Behaviour In this field study, White and Black interviewers asked White students attending a football game to help them by completing a questionnaire. The data were analysed both by whether the request was to a White (ingroup) or Black (outgroup) student and also by whether the individual whose help was sought wore the same hat that they did or a different hat. Results supported the common ingroup identity model. Helping was much greater for outgroup members when hats were the same. Data are from Neir et al. (2001). Again, the implications of these results are clear and powerful. If we want to improve attitudes among people, we must get them to see each other as more similar and less different. And even relatively simple ways of doing so, such as wearing a hat that suggests an ingroup identification, can be successful.

14.7 Unit Summary Social psychologists are careful to disentangle discrimination from its close cousins of prejudice and stereotypes. Prejudice refers to an unjustifiable negative attitude toward a group and its individual members. Several theories have shaped our understanding of intergroup relations, prejudice and discrimination, and we focus on four here: 1) the social identity perspective, 2) the ‘behaviours from inter-group affect and stereotypes’ map, 3) aversive racism theory and 4) system justification theory.

14.8 Key Terms Social discrimination is defined as sustained inequality between individuals on the basis of illness, disability, religion, sexual orientation, or any other measures of diversity. 14.9 Check Your Progress 1) What did you understand by the term discrimination? Define it. 2) What are theories of discrimination? 3) What are two empirical approaches – laboratory and field studies – to the study of discrimination and the processes that underlie it.

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Submitted text	As student entered the text in the submitted document.
Matching text	As the text appears in the source.

1/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	74 WORDS	38% MATCHING TEXT	74 WORDS
	Objectives 1.2 Definition and Nature of Social Psychology 1.2.1 Social Psychology: A Scientific Study 1.2.1.1 Social Psychology: A Science 1.2.2 Social Psychology: What does it Study? 1.2.3 Causes of Social Behaviour and Thoughts 1.3 Social Psychology: Origin and Development 1.3.1 Social Thought Before The Advent of Social Science As A Discipline 1.3.2 The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline 1.3.3 Subsequent Developments in the Field of Social Psychology 1.3.3.1		Objectives 1.2 Nature and Concept of Social Psychology 1.2.1 Social Psychology is Scientific in Nature 1.2.2 Social Psychology Studies the and Behaviour of Individuals 1.2.3 Causes of Social Behaviour and Thought 1.3 Scope of Social Psychology 1.4 Historical Developments: The Emergence of Modern Social Psychology 1.4.1 Social Thought Before the Advent of Social Science 1.4.2 The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline 1.4.3 People's Psychology 1.4.4 Mass Psychology 1.4.5 The First Textbooks of Social Psychology 1.4.6	
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2/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	36 WORDS	94% MATCHING TEXT	36 WORDS
	Analysis 2.2.2 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology 2.3 Interdisciplinary Vs. Intradisciplinary Approaches To Social Psychology 2.3.1 Social Psychology and Sociology 2.3.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology 2.3.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics 2.4		Analysis 1.5.4 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology 1.6 Interdisciplinary versus Intradisciplinary Approaches to Social Psychology 1.6.1 Social Psychology and Sociology 1.6.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology 1.6.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics 1.7	
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3/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	113 WORDS	85% MATCHING TEXT	113 WORDS
	Research Methods In Social Psychology 2.4.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology 2.4.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology 2.4.3 Social Psychology: Research Methods 2.4.3.1 Experimental Methods 2.4.3.1.1 Laboratory Method 2.4.3.1.2 Field Method 2.4.3.2 Non-Experimental Methods 2.4.3.2.1 Observation Method 2.4.3.2.2 Archival Method 2.4.3.2.3 Case Study Method 2.4.3.2.4 Correlation Method 2.4.3.2.5 Survey Method 2.4.4 Other Research Methods 2.4.4.1 Cross Cultural Method 2.4.4.2 Research Through Internet 2.4.5 Research Ethics 1.6		Research Methods in Social Psychology 1.3.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology 1.3.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology 1.4 Experimental Methods 1.4.1 Laboratory Method 1.4.2 Field Method 1.5 Non-Experimental Methods 1.5.1 Observation Method 1.5.2 Archival Method 1.5.3 Case Study Method 1.5.4 Correlational Method 1.5.5 Survey Method 1.6 Other Research Methods 1.6.1 Cross Cultural Method 1.6.2 Research Through Internet 1.7 Research Ethics 1.8	
	W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...			

4/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	74 WORDS	38% MATCHING TEXT	74 WORDS
	Objectives 1.2 Definition and Nature of Social Psychology 1.2.1 Social Psychology: A Scientific Study 1.2.1.1 Social Psychology: A Science 1.2.2 Social Psychology: What does it Study? 1.2.3 Causes of Social Behaviour and Thoughts 1.3 Social Psychology: Origin and Development 1.3.1 Social Thought Before The Advent of Social Science As A Discipline 1.3.2 The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline 1.3.3 Subsequent Developments in the Field of Social Psychology 1.3.3.1			Objectives 1.2 Nature and Concept of Social Psychology 1.2.1 Social Psychology is Scientific in Nature 1.2.2 Social Psychology Studies the Experience and Behaviour of Individuals 1.2.3 Causes of Social Behaviour and Thought 1.3 Scope of Social Psychology 1.4 Historical Developments: The Emergence of Modern Social Psychology 1.4.1 Social Thought Before the Advent of Social Science 1.4.2 The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline 1.4.3 People's Psychology 1.4.4 Mass Psychology 1.4.5 The First Textbooks of Social Psychology 1.4.6
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5/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	29 WORDS	52% MATCHING TEXT	29 WORDS
	After completing this unit, you will be able to: • Definition and nature of social psychology • Familiarity with the origin and development of Social Psychology •			After completing this unit, you will be able to: l Define social psychology; l Describe the nature and scope of social psychology; l Trace the emergence and development of modern social psychology;
	W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf			

6/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	67 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	67 WORDS
	Floyd Allport (1924) has defined social psychology as "the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture". A similar definition by Gordon W. Allport (1968) states that social psychology is a discipline "that attempts to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others."			Floyd Allport (1924) has defined social psychology as "the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture". A similar definition by Gordon W. Allport (1968) states that social psychology is a discipline "that attempts to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others."
	W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf			

7/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	71 WORDS	86% MATCHING TEXT	71 WORDS
	<p>The action and characteristics of others. 2. Basic cognitive processes: memory, reasoning, belief, ideas, judgements about others. 3. Ecological variables: direct and indirect influences of the physical environment. 4. The cultural context: cultural norms, membership in various groups. 5. Biological aspects: genetic inheritance relevant to social behaviour. Social psychology, thus, focuses on understanding the causes of social behaviour and identifying factors which shape our feelings, behaviour and thoughts in</p>		<p>The action and characteristics of others. 1 Basic cognitive processes: memory, reasoning, belief, ideas, judgements about others. 1 Ecological Variables: direct and indirect influences of the physical environment 1 The cultural context: cultural norms, membership in various groups. 1 Biological aspects of human behaviour and genetic inheritance relevant to social behaviour. Social psychology focuses on understanding the causes of social behaviour and on identifying factors that shape our feelings, behaviour and thought in</p>	
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8/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	81 WORDS	98% MATCHING TEXT	81 WORDS
	<p>social situations. The basic assumption behind is: "Accurate and useful information about even the most complex aspects of social behaviour and social thought can be acquired through the use of basic methods of science" (Baron & Byron 1995; 13). Thus social psychology is the scientific study of behaviour of individuals in social and cultural context. It explains and analyses the causes behind behaviours which may be related to the one or more than one factors mentioned above. *** 1.3</p>		<p>social situations. The basic assumption behind is: "Accurate and useful information about even the most complex aspects of social behavior and social thought can be acquired through the use of basic methods of science" (Baron & Byron 1995; 13). Thus social psychology is the scientific study of behaviour of individuals in social and cultural context. It explains and analyses the causes behind behaviours which may be related to the one or more than one factors mentioned above.</p>	
	<p>W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf</p>			

9/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	32 WORDS	70% MATCHING TEXT	32 WORDS
	<p>we will first discuss social thought before the onset of social science as a discipline and then discuss the second stage of the development of social psychology. 1.3.1</p>		<p>we will briefly discuss the social thought before the advent of social science and then discuss the second stage of the development of social psychology</p>	
	<p>W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf</p>			

10/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	21 WORDS	61% MATCHING TEXT	21 WORDS
	<p>social psychology - psychological social psychology and sociological social psychology. Both the school of thoughts in social psychology</p>		<p>social psychology: psychological social psychology and sociological social psychology. From the sociological point of view social psychology</p>	
	<p>W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf</p>			

11/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	118 WORDS	98% MATCHING TEXT	118 WORDS
<p>The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline In the process of branching off from the psychology as a separate discipline, three moments are important to be outlined (Galina Andreyeva 1990):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The requirement concerning the solution of socio-psychological problems which arose in various related sciences. • The processes involved in the separation of socio-psychological problems within the two parent disciplines: psychology and sociology. • Finally, the description of the first forms of independent socio- psychological knowledge. In the mid 19th century, the first forms of socio-psychological theories that appeared, three were most important in terms of their influence: people’s psychology, mass psychology and the theory of instincts of social behaviour. These theories 		<p>The Second Stage of Development: Social Psychology Emerges as a Discipline In the process of branching off from the psychology as a separate discipline, three moments are important to be outlined (Galina Andreyeva 1990): The requirement concerning the solution of socio-psychological problems which aroused in various related sciences. The processes involved in the separation of socio-psychological problems within the two parent disciplines: psychology and sociology. Finally, the description of the first forms of independent socio- psychological knowledge. In the mid 19 th century, the first forms of socio-psychological theories that appeared, three were most important in terms of their influence: people’s psychology, mass psychology and the theory of instincts of social behaviour. These theories</p>		
<p>W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf</p>				

12/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	33 WORDS	67% MATCHING TEXT	33 WORDS
<p>between social psychology and industrial psychology. A classic example being the study of production and morale at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric Company in the late 1920s and early 1930s</p>				
<p>SA MSc Psychology - PAPER – II (Social Psychology)-23.pdf (D165577905)</p>				

13/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	29 WORDS	66% MATCHING TEXT	29 WORDS
<p>Social Psychology in Indian Context Social psychology is as old as human beings on this earth. The social nature of man has intrigued scholars, artists and social reformers,</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

14/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	33 WORDS	MATCHING TEXT	33 WORDS
<p>What has intrigued scholars is the evidence of both universality and uniqueness of social behaviour in different cultures. People in different cultures have lived together as family, community and nation, however they</p>		76%		
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

15/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	28 WORDS	66% MATCHING TEXT	28 WORDS
<p>the discipline of social psychology expanded in universities and in research, technology and management institutes throughout the country. Studies on topics like, rumour, group influences, and prejudice</p>				
<p>SA The Historical Background of Social Psychology.pdf (D97052779)</p>				

16/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	13 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	13 WORDS
<p>Indian rumour transmission research in the development of cognitive dissonance theory.</p>				
<p>SA The Historical Background of Social Psychology.pdf (D97052779)</p>				

17/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	65 WORDS	42% MATCHING TEXT	65 WORDS
<p>Social psychology in India has witnessed significant discussions regarding the nature of discipline and research methodology. These discussions have been focused on topics related to relevance, primitiveness, and cultural appropriateness of the discipline. The aim of these discussions was to make social psychology more distinctive and make it more "social". This trend of sharing concerns is also practised by psychologists in other countries</p>				
<p>SA The Historical Background of Social Psychology.pdf (D97052779)</p>				

18/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	32 WORDS	87% MATCHING TEXT	32 WORDS
<p>social psychology' is and will be a cornucopian discipline in India as it fits with the democratic sociopolitical context that promotes and facilitates the agenda for social research.* 1.5</p>				
<p>SA The Historical Background of Social Psychology.pdf (D97052779)</p>				

19/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	47 WORDS	85% MATCHING TEXT	47 WORDS
<p>growing rapidly and has an increasing impactful influence on how individuals think about human behaviour. Newspapers, magazines, websites, and other media frequently report the findings of social psychologists, and the results of social psychological research are influencing decisions in a wide variety of areas. The</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

20/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	17 WORDS	96% MATCHING TEXT	17 WORDS
<p>scientists started to systematically and formally measure the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of human beings.</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
21/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>social psychology was energized by researchers who attempted to understand how on the</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
22/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	58 WORDS	44% MATCHING TEXT	58 WORDS
<p>social psychologists Kurt Lewin and Leon Festinger during the 1940s and 1950s, which made social psychology a scientific discipline. Kurt Lewin, who is also known as "the father of social psychology" since he is the initial contributor of many important ideas of the discipline, which also included a focus on the dynamic interactions among people. Leon Festinger,</p>				
<p>W https://opentextbc.ca/socialpsychology/chapter/defining-social-psychology-history-and-principles/</p>				
23/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	17 WORDS	87% MATCHING TEXT	17 WORDS
<p>an influential book called 'Research Methods in Behavioural Sciences', in which he and other social psychologists</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
24/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	22 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	22 WORDS
<p>stressed the need to measure variables and to use laboratory experiments to systematically test research hypotheses about social behaviour.</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
25/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	70% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>interactions of male college students, who were recruited to role – play as guards and prisoners in a</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

26/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	28 WORDS	92% MATCHING TEXT	28 WORDS
<p>John Darley and Bibb Latané (1968) developed a model that helped explain when people do and do not help others in need. • Leonard Berkowitz laid the</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
27/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	22 WORDS	84% MATCHING TEXT	22 WORDS
<p>on group behaviour, analysing why intelligent people sometimes made decisions that led to disastrous results when they worked together. •</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
28/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	28 WORDS	80% MATCHING TEXT	28 WORDS
<p>psychologists Gordon Allport and Muzafir Sherif, was on intergroup realtions, with the goal of understanding and potentially reducing the occurrence of stereotyping, prejudices and discrimination.</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
29/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	31 WORDS	94% MATCHING TEXT	31 WORDS
<p>The latter part of the 20 th century saw an expansion of social psychology into the field of attitudes, with a particular emphasis on cognitive processes. Social psychologists</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
30/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	26 WORDS	72% MATCHING TEXT	26 WORDS
<p>how advertisers and other people could present their messages to make them most effective. These approaches to attitudes had its focus on the cognitive processes</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
31/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	96% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>In the 21 st century, the field of social psychology has been expanding into other areas.</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

32/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	38 WORDS	83% MATCHING TEXT	38 WORDS
<p>Social Psychology: Social psychology is the scientific study of how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviours of individuals are influenced by the presence of others and the internalised social norms that humans are influenced by, even when</p>		<p>social psychology Social psychology is the scientific study of how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors individuals are influenced by the imagined, and presence of others, 'and 'implied presences' referring to internalized social norms that humans are influenced by even when</p>		
<p>W https://medium.com/@201520089/wha-is-social-psychology-social-psychology-is-the-scientific-study- ...</p>				

33/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	35 WORDS	94% MATCHING TEXT	35 WORDS
<p>Analysis 2.2.2 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology 2.3 Interdisciplinary Vs. Intradisciplinary Approaches To Social Psychology 2.3.1 Social Psychology and Sociology 2.3.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology 2.3.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics 2.4</p>		<p>Analysis 1.5.4 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology 1.6 Interdisciplinary versus Intradisciplinary Approaches to Social Psychology 1.6.1 Social Psychology and Sociology 1.6.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology 1.6.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics 1.7</p>		
<p>W https://egyankosh.ac.in/bitstream/123456789/20862/1/Unit-1.pdf</p>				

34/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	113 WORDS	85% MATCHING TEXT	113 WORDS
<p>Research Methods In Social Psychology 2.4.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology 2.4.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology 2.4.3 Social Psychology: Research Methods 2.4.3.1 Experimental Methods 2.4.3.1.1 Laboratory Method 2.4.3.1.2 Field Method 2.4.3.2 Non-Experimental Methods 2.4.3.2.1 Observation Method 2.4.3.2.2 Archival Method 2.4.3.2.3 Case Study Method 2.4.3.2.4 Correlation Method 2.4.3.2.5 Survey Method 2.4.4 Other Research Methods 2.4.4.1 Cross Cultural Method 2.4.4.2 Research Through Internet 2.4.5 Research Ethics 1.6</p>		<p>Research Methods in Social Psychology 1.3.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology 1.3.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology 1.4 Experimental Methods 1.4.1 Laboratory Method 1.4.2 Field Method 1.5 Non-Experimental Methods 1.5.1 Observation Method 1.5.2 Archival Method 1.5.3 Case Study Method 1.5.4 Correlational Method 1.5.5 Survey Method 1.6 Other Research Methods 1.6.1 Cross Cultural Method 1.6.2 Research Through Internet 1.7 Research Ethics 1.8</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				

Social Psychology and Other Disciplines In the broadest terms, the central task of social psychology is the systematic study of the relation between the individual and the collective phenomena. This daunting task overlaps with that of other social sciences. Many scholarly fields study social behaviour, viz., sociology, anthropology, economics, political science and sociolinguistics. The social psychological approach differs from disciplines that study large scale societal problems and from those that focus on the individual. Social psychology is delineated from the other areas of social study by both its method and its approach. There is some overlap and sharing with other disciplines in terms of theories and content.

2.2.1 Three Levels of Analysis

Three different levels of analysis have been recognised which tell us about the differences in the approach of various social sciences.

1. Societal Level Analysis: The goal of societal analysis is to identify links between broad social forces and general patterns of social behaviours. Social behaviour from this viewpoint is explained by factors like economic hard times, class conflicts etc. This analytical approach is adopted by sociologists, economists and political scientists. These scholars attempt to understand general patterns of social behaviours, such as homicide rates, voting behaviours and consumer spending. To study violence in urban areas, social scientists might identify relationships between rates of crime and factors such as poverty, immigration or industrialisation.
2. Individual Level Analysis: This level of analysis is used by clinical and personality psychologists who explain behaviour in terms of a person's unique personality characteristics and life history. According to this viewpoint, with the help of personality traits and motives the reasons for people's behaviour can be explained. Individual differences in childhood experiences, ability, motivation and personality are emphasised. At this level of analysis, violent crimes will be explained in terms of unique histories and characteristics of the criminal.
- 3.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND OTHER DISCIPLINES In the broadest terms, the central task of social psychology is the systematic study of the relation between the individual and the collective phenomena. This daunting task overlaps with that of other social sciences. Many scholarly fields study social behaviour, viz., sociology, anthropology, economics, political science and sociolinguistics. The social psychological approach differs from disciplines that study large scale societal problems and from those that focus on the individual. Social psychology is delineated from the other areas of social study by both its method and its approach. There is some overlapping and sharing with other discipline in terms of theories and content.

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- 19

36/115**SUBMITTED TEXT**

220 WORDS

95% MATCHING TEXT

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Interpersonal Level Analysis: The focus of a social psychologist lies on a person's current social situation. The constituents of social situations are— the other people, their attitudes and behaviours and their relationship to the individual. This emphasis is based on the idea, 'change the social context, individuals will change'. To understand violent crime, social psychologists might consider interpersonal relations. One social explanation suggests that frustrating situations make people angry and increase their tendency to act aggressively. 2.2.2 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology It borrows and uses concepts from both the disciplines: psychology and sociology. For a sociologist, the basic unit of analysis is the social system (groups, institutions, cultures, families etc). For a psychologist, the basic unit of analysis is the individual. But, individual and social systems cannot be studied without the reference to either of these. As one is contained in the other, and the existence of the other is nothing without the first. It is difficult and even incomplete if one is explained without the other. The difference may lie in the angle of approach, the purpose and the focus of study. Various views gave birth to two forms of social psychology: psychological social psychology and sociological social psychology. From the sociological point of view, social psychology is the study of mass phenomena of the

Interpersonal Level Analysis The focus of a social psychologist lies on a person's current social situation. The constituents of social situation are— the other people, their attitudes and behaviours and their relationship to the individual. This emphasis is based on the idea, 'change the social context, individual will change'. To understand the violent crime, social psychologist might consider the interpersonal relations. One social explanation suggests that frustrating situations make people angry and increase their tendency to act aggressively. 1.5.4 Amalgamation of Sociology and Psychology It borrows and uses concepts from both the disciplines: psychology and sociology. For a sociologist, the basic unit of analysis is the social system (groups, institutions, cultures, families etc). For a psychologist, the basic unit of analysis is the individual. But, individual and social system cannot be studied without the reference to either of these. As one is contained in the other, and the existence of the other is nothing without the first. It is difficult and even incomplete if one is explained without the other. The difference may lie in the angle of approach, the purpose and the focus of study. Various views gave birth to two forms of social psychology: psychological social psychology and sociological social psychology. From the sociological point of view social psychology is the study of mass phenomena of psyche, the

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psyche, the psychology of classes and large social groups, elements of group mentality (traditions, morals, customs etc.). Psychological social psychology puts the individual at the centre and focuses on the mental peculiarities of the individual (personality typology) and the position of

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38/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	102 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	102 WORDS
<p>individual in the collective. Briefly these can be defined as: Psychological Social Psychology (PSP): Emphasis upon subject's mental processes, dispositions, experiences and immediate social situation. Sociological Social Psychology (SSP): Emphasis upon subject's place in social order, their socialised roles and historical social context. Another approach emphasises the synthesis of both. According to this point of view, social psychology is a science that studies both the mass mental phenomenon and the position of an individual in a group. It includes the study of social psychology of the individual, communities and communication, social relations and the forms of cultural activities. 2.3</p>		<p>individual in the collective. Briefly these can be defined as: Psychological Social Psychology (PSP): Emphasis upon subject's mental processes, dispositions, experiences and immediate social situation. Sociological Social Psychology (SSP): Emphasis upon subject's place in social order, their socialised roles and historical social context. Another approach emphasises the synthesis of both. According to this point of view social psychology is a science that studies both the mass mental phenomenon and the position of an individual in a group. It includes the study of social psychology of the individual, communities and communication, social relations and the forms of cultural activities.</p>		
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39/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	130 WORDS	96% MATCHING TEXT	130 WORDS
<p>Interdisciplinary Vs. Intradisciplinary Approaches To Social Psychology The interdisciplinary approach emphasises the incorporation of significant elements from various disciplines. This incorporation can be found more at the level of content from the diverse disciplines especially sociology. Intradisciplinary approach conceptualises social psychology as a specialty branch within the discipline of psychology. This approach defines both the problems and phenomena together with its method. A psychologist maintains his investigative focus on the individual against a background of contextual factors. From the interdisciplinary perspective, social psychology is defined as the psychological study of the individual related to the social system. Thus social psychological phenomena can be explained on at least four levels as given below: ● Personal attributes ● Actual situations in which psychological phenomena are studied. ●</p>		<p>INTERDISCIPLINARY VS. INTRADISCIPLINARY APPROACHES TO SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY The interdisciplinary approach emphasises the incorporation of significant elements from various disciplines. This incorporation can be found more at the level of content from the diverse disciplines especially sociology. Intradisciplinary approach conceptualises social psychology as a specialty branch within the discipline of psychology. This approach defines both the problems and phenomena together with its method. A psychologist maintains his investigative focus on the individual against a background of contextual factors. From the intradisciplinary perspective, social psychology is defined as the psychological study of the individual related to the social system. Thus social psychological phenomena can be explained on at least four levels as given below: I Personal attributes I Actual situations in which the psychological phenomena is studied 21</p>		
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Reference to the people's social position • The ideologies and belief systems to which they adhere. If one looks at the recent developments, one may find that all of them transcend a narrow definition of social psychology, all of them require that their proponents be versed in one or more neighbouring disciplines, above all sociology and cognitive psychology together with anthropology, political science, philosophy and linguistics. All of them contribute to the intellectual vitality of the field in all its branches. Whether the debate among them will lead to a more unified social psychology or to a greater separateness only the time will tell. Here, we will briefly discuss the relation of social psychology to sociology, anthropology and sociolinguistics.

2.3.1 Social Psychology and Sociology Sociology is defined as the study of society. Sociology is the social science dealing with social systems and structures, relationships, institutes and entire societies. The emergence of sociology in the nineteenth century greatly contributed to the development of social psychology. John Stuart Mill, Auguste Comte and others laid the foundation for social psychology by asserting that human social cognition and behaviour could and should be studied scientifically like any other natural science. A sociologist begins with the domain of society and works towards the individual while the social psychologist reverses the order. As far as social psychology is concerned it is sometimes difficult to demarcate it from social psychology with a sharp line as both the disciplines invest most of their resources in the ambiguous middle ground. Social psychology exchanges freely ideas, methods and models with sociology. In fact this exchange is so rich and ubiquitous that it is often difficult to distinguish the two fields. Being the study of individuals in a society, the vantage point of social psychology is more prone to the individual and the experimental method. But with the expanding application, social psychology is adopting the other methods like ethnography and qualitative research more popular with the domain of sociology.

2.3.2 Social Psychology and Anthropology Broadly considered to be the scientific study of human beings, Anthropology originated as a discipline in the Darwinian revolution of the middle of the nineteenth century. Underpinning all the anthropological works is the concern of mapping human variation (biological, behavioural and cultural) and to explain, interpret and understand the directions in the development of human behaviour. The main topics of investigation are primitive societies, cultural relativism, unity of human species, human diversity and human evolution. Social psychology can make good use of the theories about cultures and societies which might assist in the explanation of the individual behaviour in a particular society. Anthropology can give a clear picture of the cultural and social context to a social psychologist.

2.3.3 Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics Sociolinguistics includes the areas of study which connect language with society. The discipline uses theories and methods from diverse fields like psychology, sociology and anthropology to understand language in societies. Sociolinguistics is centrally concerned with methodology. It is firmly based on the

Reference to the people's social position | The ideologies and belief systems to which they adhere. If one looks at the recent developments, one may find that all of them transcend a narrow definition of social psychology, all of them require that their proponents be versed in one or more neighbouring disciplines, above all sociology and cognitive psychology together with anthropology, political science, philosophy and linguistics. All of them contribute to the intellectual vitality of the field in all its branches. Whether the debate among them will lead to a more unified social psychology or to a greater separateness only the time will tell. Here, we will briefly discuss the relation of social psychology to sociology, anthropology and sociolinguistics.

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41/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	266 WORDS	95% MATCHING TEXT	266 WORDS
	<p>Social psychology: Social psychology is the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture. Hedonism: People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and avoid and reduce pain. Utilitarianism: The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. People's psychology: The main force of history is the people, or the 'spirit of the whole' which can be seen in art, religion, language, myths, customs etc. The individual consciousness is only its product, a link in a certain mental connection. Mass psychology: Emphasised the role of irrational movements in social behaviour and the role of imitation. Any accumulation of people represented the idea of the mass with depersonalisation and predominance of emotions over intellect, the general loss of intellect and the loss of the sense of personal responsibility. Middle range theories: The theories that account for a specific aspect of social behaviour and do not try to encompass all of social life. Social psychological theories tend to be specific and focused, rather than global and general. Societal analysis: To identify links between broad social forces and general patterns of social behaviours. Individual level of: Used by clinical and personality psychologists who analyse explain behaviour in terms of a person's unique personality characteristics and life history Interpersonal level: The focus of a social psychologist lies on a person's analysis of the current social situation. The constituents of social situations are- the other people, their attitudes and behaviours and their relationship to the individual. 2.4</p>		<p>Social psychology : Social psychology is the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, group and culture. Hedonism : People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and avoid and reduce pain. Utilitarianism : The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number. People's psychology : The main force of history is the people, or the 'spirit of the whole'which can be seen in art, religion, language, myths, customs etc. The individual consciousness is only its product, a link in a certain mental connection. Mass psychology : Emphasised the role of irrational movements in social behaviour and the role of imitation. Any accumulation of people represented the idea of the mass with depersonalisation and predominance of emotions over intellect, the general loss of intellect and the loss of the sense personal responsibility. 24 Introduction to Social Psychology Middle range theories : The theories that account for a specific aspect of social behaviour and do not try to encompass all of social life. Social psychological theories tend to be specific and focused, rather than global and general. Societal analysis : To identify links between broad social forces and general patterns of social behaviours. Individual level of : Used by clinical and personality psychologists who analysis explain behaviour in terms of a person's unique personality characteristics and life history Interpersonal level : The focus of a social psychologist lies on a person's of analysis current social situation. The constituents of social situation are- the other people, their attitudes and behaviours and their relationship to the individual. 1.10</p>	
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42/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	326 WORDS	97% MATCHING TEXT	326 WORDS
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in social psychology. 2.4.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology Social psychological research has four goals: 1) Description: A major goal is to provide careful and systematic descriptions of social behaviour that permit social psychologists to make reliable generalisations about how people act in various social settings. Example: Are men more aggressive than women? 2) Causal analysis: Much research in psychology seeks to establish cause and effect relationship, because scientific inquiry in the research is to establish cause and effect relations. Example: Does college education make students more liberal in their social attitudes. 3) Theory building: Third goal is to develop theories about social behaviour which help social psychologists understand why people behave the way they do. This can further lead to suggest new predictions that can be tested in further research. 4) Application: Knowledge gained by the above three attempts can help to solve everyday social problems. 2.4.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology Social psychology is the scientific study of social behaviour. These are a diverse range of methods available to social psychologists. Any research begins with a hunch or hypothesis (a tentative solution) that the researcher wants to test. There are two ways in which a researcher chooses the hypothesis. 1) People often generate hypotheses from previous theories and research. Many studies stem from a researcher's dissatisfaction with existing theories and explanations. Example: Leon Festinger was dissatisfied with 'behaviourism' to explain attitude change. He thus formulated a new approach called the dissonance theory that made specific predictions about when and how people would change their attitude. In this way new research is continuously carried out in order to update the existing theory. 2) Theory is not the only way to derive a new hypothesis in social psychology. Researchers often observe a phenomenon in everyday life that they find curious and interesting. The researcher then constructs a theory related to that phenomenon, thus generating

IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY 1.3.1 Goals of Research in Social Psychology Social psychological research has four goals: 1) Description: A major goal is to provide careful and systematic descriptions of social behaviour that permit social psychologists to make reliable generalisations about how people act in various social settings. Example: Are men more aggressive than women's. 2) Causal analysis: Much research in psychology seeks to establish cause and effect relationship, because scientific inquiry in the research is to establish cause and effect relations. Example: Does college education make students more liberal in their social attitudes. 3) Theory building: Third goal is to develop theories about social behaviour which help social psychologists understand why people behave the way they do. This can further lead to suggest new predictions that can be tested in further research. 4) Application: Knowledge gained by the above three attempt can help to solve everyday social problems. 1.3.2 Sources of Research in Social Psychology Social psychology is the scientific study of social behaviour. These are a diverse range of methods available to social psychologists. Any research begins with a hunch or hypothesis (a tentative solution), that the researcher wants to test. There are two ways in which a researcher chooses the hypothesis. 11 Definition, Concept and Research Methods in Social Psychology 1) People often generate hypothesis from previous theories and research. Many studies stem from a researcher's dissatisfaction with existing theories and explanation. Example: Leon Festinger was dissatisfied with 'behaviourism' to explain attitude change. He thus formulated a new approach called the dissonance theory that made specific predictions about when and how people would change their attitude. In this way new research is continuously carried out in order to update the existing theory. 2) Theory is not the only way to derive a new hypothesis in social psychology. Researchers often observe a phenomenon in everyday life that they find curious and interesting. The researcher then constructs a theory related to that phenomenon, thus generating

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43/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	31 WORDS	76% MATCHING TEXT	31 WORDS
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new theory. Example: The mere presence of another person that led to better performance led to the famous phenomena of 'social facilitation'. 2.4.3 Social Psychology: Research Methods

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The research methods used by social psychology could be divided into two broad categories: 1) Experimental method, and 2) Non-experimental method. 2.4.3.1 Experimental Methods An experiment involves manipulating one variable – which we call the Independent Variable (IV) and then seeing whether this has an effect on a second variable, which we refer to as the Dependent Variable (DV). To explain this, we describe an experiment conducted by Scheier and Carver (1977) in which the independent variable ‘self awareness’ was manipulated by having participants either watch themselves in a mirror or not. These two levels of self awareness, high self awareness (mirror present) and low self awareness (mirror not present) formed the two experimental conditions. The prediction was that people in high self-awareness would show more extreme emotional responses. Participant’s self reported emotions were measured. These emotions provided the dependent variable in the experiment. The experimental method could further be divided into two sub-categories i) Laboratory method, ii) Field method. 2.4.3.1.1 Laboratory Method The majority of experiments are conducted in a laboratory. In some studies, the laboratory is equipped with television, video cameras, computer monitors, microphones and other experimental apparatuses. In other cases, the laboratory is a simple room with a table and chair wherein a participant fills out a questionnaire. The benefit of conducting a laboratory experiment is that conditions could be highly controlled. Putting it in another way, within the confines of the laboratory, everything (example: environment, temperament, instructions given by the researcher) apart from the independent variable can be held constant. This way if changes in the independent variable are accompanied by changes in the dependent variable, we can very confidently say that the changes in the dependent variable are caused by the independent variable. Another benefit of experiments conducted in such a controlled environment is that they can be replicated, which would otherwise be more difficult to create outside the laboratory. Laboratory experiments have been used to study a wide range of social phenomena and have formed the basis for a number of highly influenced theories. The Advantages and Disadvantages of

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Laboratory method are: 1) Although the high degree of control over conditions allows us to infer causality from the finding – it also makes the experiment rather artificial i.e. the experiment lacks external validity. 2) Information that participants pickup from the experimental context that leads them to guess what the experimenter is predicting will happen. When this happens it will influence the 'behaviour' which the experimenter is looking for because the internal mental processes of the participant cannot be controlled. 3) Experimenters themselves may also pose a risk to the validity of an experiment. 'Experimenter effects' are subtle cues or signals that are given out by an experimenter who knows the experimental hypothesis – ex: body language, eye movements, tone of voice.

2.4.3.1.2 Field Method

Experiments are not only confined to the laboratory. They are also conducted in naturalistic settings. For example given a situation; wherein an individual requires help, how many people come forward to help and why? Field experiments have greater external validity (not being artificial but genuine) than laboratory experiments. They are less likely to be influenced by 'demand characteristics'; participants typically have no idea that they are taking part in a study.

The Advantage and Disadvantage of Field Method are:

1) The situation is not nearly as controlled as in a laboratory situation and so the impact of external influences cannot be ruled out. 2) It is also not possible to randomly assign participants to conditions.

2.4.3.2 Non-Experimental Methods

Researchers have three options. They can: 1) Ask research participants to report on their behaviour, thoughts or feelings – through self report. 2) They can observe questioned participants directly – observation 3) They can go to an archive and use data originally collected for other purposes. Although experiments are the best way of determining cause and effect, there are many circumstances where they are practically not feasible. If we are interested to know how gender, ethnicity or age affects behaviour, we cannot assign participants to different conditions of an experimental method. Moreover, when social psychologists are interested

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The Advantage and Disadvantage of Field Method are:

The situation is not almost as controlled as in a laboratory situation and so the impact of external influences cannot be ruled out. It is also not possible to randomly assign participants to circumstances. Non-Experimental Methods Researchers have three options. They can: Ask research participants to report on their behaviour, thoughts or feeling – through self report. They can observe questioned participant directly – observation They can go to an archive and use data originally composed for other purposes. Although experiments are the best method of determining cause and effect, there are several circumstances where they are practically not feasible. If we are interested to know how gender, ethnicity, or age affects behaviour, we cannot assign participants to different circumstances of an experimental method. Moreover, when social psychologists are interested

psychological phenomena on a broad societal level (ex: ethnic prejudice), experimental methods cannot be used. In such instances a number of non-experimental methods are available to a social psychologist. These are: 1. Observation method, 2. Archival method, 3. Case study, 4. Correlational method, and 5. Survey method. 2.4.3.2.1 Observation Method In social psychology, the observers are trained as social scientists who set out to answer questions about a particular social phenomena by observation and coding it according to a prearranged set of criteria. This method varies according to the degree to which the observer actively participates in the scene. At one extreme the observer is a non participant. S/he neither participates nor intervenes in any way as for example: a researcher interested in children's social behaviour may stand outside a playground to observe. Children at play in some situations, by their very nature, require observer participants, who observe, but try not to alter the situation in any way, for example – to get to know the intricacies of certain social phenomena like rituals, cultural ways. The observer can be a participant as a friend or relative. Certain behaviours are difficult to observe as they occur rarely or privately. It is confined to one particular group of people, setting, and activity. 2.4.3.2.2 Archival Method Another way that social psychologists can observe social phenomena without conducting an experiment is to re-analyse existing data. The researcher examines the accumulated document or archives of a culture, for example; diaries, novels, suicide notes, television shows, movies, magazines, newspaper articles, advertising, sexual violence etc. Archival analysis can tell us a great deal about the society's values and beliefs. It has got two advantages. It is inexpensive and it can study the change over

psychological phenomenon on a broad societal level (ex: ethnic prejudice), experimental method cannot be used. In such instances a number of non-experimental methods are available to a social psychologist. These are: i) Observation method, ii) Archival method, iii) Case study, iv) Correlational method, and v) Survey method. 1.5.1 Observation Method In social psychology, the observers are trained as social scientists who set out to answer questions about a particular social phenomena by observation and coding it according to a prearranged set of criteria. This method varies according to the 13 Definition, Concept and Research Methods in Social Psychology degree to which the observer actively participates in the scene. At one extreme the observer is a non participant. S/he neither participates nor intervenes in any way as for example: a researcher is interested in children's social behaviour may stand outside a playground to observe. Children at play in some situations, by their very nature, require observer participants, who observe, but tries not to alter the situation in any way, for example – to get to know the intricacies of certain social phenomena like rituals, cultural way. The observer can be a participant as a friend or relative. Certain behaviours are difficult to observe as they occur rarely or privately. It is confined to one particular group of people, setting, and activity. 1.5.2 Archival Method Another way that social psychologist can observe social phenomenon without conducting an experiment is to re-analyse existing data. The researcher examines the accumulated document or archives of a culture, for example; diaries, novels, suicide notes, television shows, movies, magazines, newspaper articles, advertising, sexual violence etc. Archival analysis can tell us a great deal about the society's values and beliefs. It has got two advantages. It is inexpensive and it can study the change over

time frame. This is particularly useful when researchers are interested in the effect of societal events on behaviours, which have occurred in the past. This research comes under 'archival research' first conducted by Hovland and Sears (1940). 2.4.3.2.3 Case Study Method Other non-experimental methods are field studies and case studies. Case study is a study of a particular participant or a small group of participants which involves a detailed and often descriptive investigation. Example: Behaviour of people after the earthquake. 2.4.3.2.4 Correlation Method In correlation studies, the researcher carefully observes and records the relationship between (or among) two or more factors technically known as variables. For example: Is physical attractiveness related to a student's popularity with other students. In a correlation design, the research does not influence the student's behaviour in any way but merely records information. The hallmark of an experimental design is intervention – with putting people in controlled situations or having confederates. Correlation research asks if there is an association between the variables and whether this association is high (+ve) or low (-ve) or neutral (no correlation). Example: whether or not watching violence on television is related to aggressive behaviour. The Advantages and Disadvantages of Correlational methods are: 1) Correlation designs enable research to study problems in which intervention is impossible. 2) This design is efficient. It allows research to collect more information and relationships. 3) No clear cut evidence of cause and effect 2.4.3.2.5 Survey Method It is a research method that involves asking participants to respond to a series of questions, through interviews or questionnaires. Poll survey, marketing surveys are the best examples. Surveys can be administered to a large sample with relative ease and at little expense because surveys are gathered from large numbers and researchers can be sure of its genuinity. The downside to questionnaires is that if they are not very carefully designed they can be misinterpreted by participants. There are also a number of response biases that participants have a tendency to blindly agree with positively worded questions and frequently fail to use the full range of possible responses like 'I don't know' etc. 2.4.4 Other Research Methods As psychology advanced and became global, and started focusing on cross cultural social phenomena, this method became a very important method. 2.4.4.1 Cross Cultural Method It has two goals

time frame. This is particularly useful when researches are interested in the effect of societal events on behaviours, which have occurred in the past. This research comes under 'archival research' first conducted by Hovland and Sears (1940). 1.5.3 Case Study Method Other non-experimental methods are field studies and case studies. Case study is a study of a particular participant or a small group of participants which involve a detailed and often descriptive investigation. Example: Behaviour of people after the earthquake. 1.5.4 Correlation Method In correlation studies, the researcher carefully observers and records the relationship between (or among) two or more factors technically known as variables. For example: Is physical attractiveness is related to a student's popularity with other students. In a correlation design, the research does not influence the student's behaviour in any way but merely records information. The hallmark of an experimental design is intervention – with putting people in controlled situation or have confederates. Correlation research asks if there is an association between the variables and whether this association is high (+ve) or low (-ve) or neutral (no correlation). Example: whether or not watching violence on television is related to aggressive behaviour. The Advantages and Disadvantage of Correlational method are: 1) Correlation designs enable research to study problems in which intervention is impossible. 2) This design is efficient. It allows research to collect more information and relationship. 3) No clear cut evidence of cause and effect 14 Introduction to Social Psychology 1.5.5 Survey Method It is a research method that involves asking participants to respond to a series of questions, through interviews or questionnaires. Poll survey, marketing survey are the best examples. Surveys can be administered to a large, sample with relative ease and at little expense because surveys are gathered from large numbers and researchers can be sure of its genuinity. The downside to questionnaire is that if they are not very carefully designed they can be misinterpreted by participants. There are also a number of response biases that participants have a tendency to blindly agree with positively worded questions and frequently fail to use the full range of possible responses like 'I don't know' etc. 1.6 OTHER RESEARCH METHODS As psychology advanced and become global, and started focusing on cross cultural social phenomena, this method became a very important method. 1.6.1 Cross Cultural Method It has two goals (

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57 WORDS

94% MATCHING TEXT

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universe and it operates the same way in all human beings across various cultures. b. explore the differences among human beings, by examining how culture influences the basic social psychological process. 2.4.4.2 Research Through Internet Recently social psychology has started to conduct research using the internet. The internet offers several advantages to researchers.

universe and it operates the same way in all human being across various cultures. (ii) explore the differences among human beings, by examining how culture influences the basic social psychological process. 1.6.2 Research Through Internet Recently social psychology has started to conduct research using the internet. The internet offers several advantages to researchers.

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49/115

SUBMITTED TEXT

252 WORDS

89% MATCHING TEXT

252 WORDS

Internet makes it easier to recruit participants who come from diverse backgrounds, distant geographic regions or specific groups. b. The information collected from the participants is automatically recorded. This increases efficiency of data collection. c. Internet research is less expensive. d. Internet chat rooms and bulletin boards provide a rich sample of human social behaviour, where people discuss current social issues or hobbies on the online forums and study many topics including communication, prejudice and spread of new ideas. In research:

- Same subjects can participate in many studies more than once
- The identity, responses in a frivolous and malicious manner.
- Impossible to monitor participant's behaviour or undesirable distractions

2.4.5 Research Ethics Regardless of the method used to conduct research in social psychology, because it involves people, social psychologists need to be aware of a number of ethical issues. To ensure that research is not physically or psychologically harmful to participants, in 1972, the American Psychological Association suggested a set of principles for ethical conduct to guide the conduction of research.

1) Participant Welfare: It is essential that the physical and psychological welfare of participants is protected. Although it is not too difficult to determine the extent of physical harm to the participants, it is indeed difficult to determine the extent of psychological harm. Some experiments may leave a negative psychological impact (fear, stress, anxiety) for example: Eliciting anger may for example lead to temporarily depressed self esteem (

Internet creates it easier to recruit participants who come from diverse background distant geographic regions or specific group. The information composed from the participants is automatically recorded. This increases efficiency of data collection. Internet research is less expensive. Internet chat rooms and bulletin boards give a rich sample of human social behaviour, where people discuss current social issues or hobbies on the online forums and study several topics including communication, prejudice, and spread of new ideas. In research:

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Research Ethics Regardless of the method used to conduct research in social psychology, because it involves people, social psychologist needs to be aware of a number of ethical issues. To ensure that research is not physically or psychologically harmful to participants, in 1972, the American Psychological Association suggested a set of principles for ethical conduct to guide the conduction of research. Participant Welfare It is essential that the physical and psychological welfare of participant is protected. Although it is not too hard to determine the extent of physical harm to the participants, it is indeed hard to determine the extent of psychological harm. Some experiments may leave a negative psychological impact (fear, stress, anxiety) for instance: Eliciting anger may for instance lead to temporarily depressed self esteem.

W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf

So efforts should be made to ensure that the negative psychological impact should be inconsequential and short lived. 2) Deception: In order to avoid the problem caused by 'demand characteristics' or subjective bias. It is important that participants are not aware of the aim of the study Milgram (1963) deceived participants by making them believe that they were really administering electric shocks. This was necessary to gauge the participants' reactions. Many other experiments use confederates – someone who is a participant but who is actually an actor instructed by the experimenter in order to test a particular hypothesis. However, most deception is of a trivial nature, and the participants are told the full purpose of the experiment after completion and there is no evidence that deception causes long term harm. 3) Confidentiality: Participants in social psychology research are often required to disclose information of a personal or intimate nature. To reassure participants that this information will not be used against them in any way social psychologists need to inform participants that data derived from their participation will be completely confidential. Thus the anonymity of participants is also usually safeguarded by identifying them with a 'number' (roll number) rather than name. 4) Informed consent and debriefing: It is a well known practice to obtain informed consent from individuals prior to their participation in a study. The participants provide their full and voluntary consent in writing or they can withdraw from the experiment. After the experiment, participants need to be fully debriefed, this involves telling them the true purpose of the experiment. It gives experimenters the opportunity to demonstrate the importance and relevance of the research and the participants an opportunity to contribute to the genuine cause to the field (of social psychology) research. One of the important risks is the invasion of privacy, which should be respected and valued. The researcher who studies sensitive topics as sex, drug, alcohol use, illegal behaviour, religion, beliefs. Must be protected, the risk involved

So efforts should be made to ensure that the negative psychological impact should be inconsequential and short lived. Deception In order to avoid the problem caused through 'demand characteristics' or subjective bias. It is significant that participant is not aware of the aim of the study Milgram (1963) deceived participants through making them consider that they were really administering electric shocks. This was necessary to gauge the participant's reactions. Several other experiments use confederates – someone who is a participant but who is actually an actor instructed through the experimenter in order to test a scrupulous hypothesis. Though, most deception is of a trival nature, and the participants are told the full purpose of the experiment after completion and there is no proof that deception causes long term harm. Confidentiality Participants in social psychology research are often required to disclose information of a personal or intimate nature. To reassure participants that this information will not be used against them in any method social psychologists need to inform participants that data derived from their participation will be totally confidential. Therefore the anonymity of participants is also usually safeguarded through identifying them with a 'number' (roll number) rather than name. Informed consent and debriefing It is a well recognized practice to obtain informed consent from individuals prior to their participation in a study. The participants give their full and voluntary consent in writing or they can withdraw from the experiment. After the experiment, participants need to be fully debriefed, this involve telling them the true purpose of the experiment. It provides experimenters the opportunity to demonstrate the importance and relevance of the research and the participants an opportunity to contribute to the genuine cause to the field (of social psychology) research. One of the significant risks is the invasion of privacy, which should be respected and valued. The researcher who studies sensitive topics as sex, drug, alcohol use, illegal behaviour, religion, beliefs. Necessity be protected the risk involved

51/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	163 WORDS	95% MATCHING TEXT	163 WORDS
<p>minimal, should be – possible risk for the participants in the research should not be greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life. 2.5 Unit Summary In this unit, we have studied the various terms like social behaviour, social interaction and social influence and their significance in understanding the concept of social psychology. We also came to know the scope of social psychology which basically involves social stimuli and social situations. Later we have studied the different definitions of social psychology. Next we concentrated on how a social psychologist conducts its research. Firstly we became aware that the research starts with setting appropriate goals of research i.e. description, causal analysis theory building application and exploring the basic sources of topic generation from earlier research or personal knowledge and experience. Lastly you were provided with a detailed understanding of various experimental, laboratory, field, non-experimental, observation, archival, case study, correlation and survey methods. Also you would have learnt the new research through</p>		<p>minimal, should be – possible risk for the participants in the research should not be greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life. 1.8 LET SUM UP In this unit, we have studied the various terms like social behaviour, social interaction and social influence and their significance in understanding the concept of social psychology. We also came to know the scope of social psychology which basically involves social stimuli and social situations. Later we have studied the different definitions of social psychology. Next we concentrated on how a social psychologist conducts its research. Firstly we became aware that the research starts with setting appropriate goals of research i.e. description, casual analysis theory building application and exploring the basic sources of topic generation from earlier research or personal knowledge and experience. Lastly you were provided with a detailed understanding of various experimental, laboratory, field, non-experimental, observation, archival, case study, correlation and survey methods. Also you would have learnt the new research through</p>		
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52/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	22 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	22 WORDS
<p>internet and how to take care of conducting a fair and scientific research by following ethical code of research. 2.6</p>		<p>internet and how to take care of conducting a fair and scientific research by following ethical code of research. 1.9</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				

53/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	100 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	100 WORDS
<p>Social situations have influenced our health and happiness, the important roles of evolutionary experiences and cultures on our behaviour and the field of social neuroscience – the study of how our social behaviour both influences and is influenced by the activities of our brain (Lieberman, 2010). Social psychologists continue to seek new ways to measure and understand social behaviour, and the field continues to evolve. We cannot predict where social psychology will be directed in the future, but we have no doubt that it will still be alive and vibrant. 1.6 Unit Summary Social psychology</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

54/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	16 WORDS	76% MATCHING TEXT	16 WORDS
<p>involves views of what is and what is not considered beautiful or attractive. 4.11</p>		<p>involves views of what is and is not measured beautiful or attractive.</p>		
<p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>				

55/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>that aggression is a basic human instinct, an innate fixed action pattern that we share with other species.</p>		<p>that aggression is a basic human instinct, an innate fixed action pattern that we share with other species.</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

56/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	97% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>of psychology that focuses on how people process, store, and apply information about other people and social situations.</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				

57/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	45 WORDS	78% MATCHING TEXT	45 WORDS
<p>in personal injury or destruction of property (Bandura, 1973). <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Behavior intended to harm another of the same species. (Scherer et. al. 1975). • Behavior directed towards the goals of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment. • </p>		<p>in personal injury or destruction of property (Bandura, 1973); behaviour intended to harm another of the same species (Scherer, Abeles, & Fischer, 1975); 472 Chapter 12 Aggression • • • directed towards the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment (</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

58/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	142 WORDS	92% MATCHING TEXT	142 WORDS
<p>on the idea that we should assign reduced weight to a particular cause of behavior if there are other plausible causes that might have produced it. Augmentation principle works on the idea that we should assign greater weight to a particular cause of behavior if there are other causes present that normally would produce the opposite outcome In the case of multiple observations the covariation principle centering on the idea that we should attribute behavior to potential causes that co-occur with the behavior is used. People act as scientists and assign causes of behavior to the factor that co-varies most closely with the behavior. The Covariation Model: The Covariation Theory assumes that people make causal attributions in a rational, logical fashion, like detectives, drawing inferences from clues and observed behaviors. By discovering covariation in people's</p>				
<p>SA MSc Psychology - PAPER – II (Social Psychology)-23.pdf (D165577905)</p>				

59/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>Explanations of aggression fall into two broad classes, the biological and the social.</p>				
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

60/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	15 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	15 WORDS
<p>cannot be ignored. After all, violence is a reaction of the bodily system.</p>				
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

61/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	39 WORDS	81% MATCHING TEXT	39 WORDS
<p>Biological Explanations The starting point for these explanations is that aggression is an innate action tendency. Although modification of the consequent behavior is possible; aggression is an instinct: i.e. a pattern of response that is genetically predetermined.</p>				
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

62/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	87% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>Freud, 1930 proposed that human aggression stem from an innate 'Death instinct; Thanatos,</p>		<p>Freud (1920/1990) proposed that human aggression stems from an innate 'Death Instinct', Thanatos,</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
63/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	23 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	23 WORDS
<p>is in opposition to a life instinct, Eros. Thanatos is initially directed at self-destruction, but later in development it becomes redirected outwards</p>		<p>is in opposition to a 'Life Instinct', Eros. Thanatos is initially directed at self-destruction, but later in development it becomes redirected outwards</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
64/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	44 WORDS	85% MATCHING TEXT	44 WORDS
<p>his notion of Thanatos was partly a response to the large-scale destruction of the 1 st world war. Like the sexual urge which stems from Eros, an aggressive urge from Thanatos builds up from bodily tensions and needs to be expressed.</p>		<p>his notion of the death instinct, which was also partly a response to the large-scale destruction of the First World War. Like the sexual urge, which stems from Eros, an aggressive urge stemming from Thanatos builds up naturally from bodily tensions and needs to be expressed.</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
65/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	21 WORDS	90% MATCHING TEXT	21 WORDS
<p>revised by theorists known as Noe-Freudians, who viewed aggression as a more rational, but nonetheless innate, process whereby people sought</p>		<p>revised by later theorists, known as neo-Freudians, who viewed aggression as a more rational, but nonetheless innate, process whereby people sought</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
66/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	95% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>healthy release for primitive instincts that are basic to all animal species.</p>		<p>healthy release for primitive survival instincts that are basic to all animal species (</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
67/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	61 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	61 WORDS
<p>Lorenz on Aggression (1960), Ardrey the territorial imperative (1966) and Morris the Naked Ape (1967). The general perspective that underpins this explanation is referred to as ethology, a branch of biology devoted to the study of instincts, or fixed-action pattern, among all members of a species when living in their natural environment. Like the neo- Freudians, ethnologists stressed the</p>		<p>Lorenz's On Aggression (1966), Robert Ardrey's The Territorial Imperative (1966) and Desmond Morris's The Naked Ape (1967). The general perspective that underpins this explanation of aggression is referred to as ethology, a branch of biology devoted to the study of instincts, or fixed action patterns, among all members of a species when living in their natural environment. Like the neo-Freudians, ethologists stressed the</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

68/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	33 WORDS	95% MATCHING TEXT	33 WORDS
<p>functional aspects of aggression, but they also recognized that, while the potential or instinct for aggression may be innate, actual aggressive behavior is elicited by specific stimuli in the environment known as</p>		<p>functional aspects of aggression; but they also recognised that, while the potential or instinct for aggression may be innate, actual aggressive behaviour is elicited by specific stimuli in the environment, known as</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
69/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	15 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	15 WORDS
<p>releasers (specific stimuli in the environment thought by ethnologist to trigger aggressive responses).</p>		<p>Releasers Specific stimuli in the environment thought by ethnologists to trigger aggressive responses.</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
70/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	11 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	11 WORDS
<p>the popular assumption that violence is part of human nature.</p>		<p>the popular assumption that violence is part of human nature,</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
71/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	91% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>the sufficiency of the explanation of aggression when it is based totally on the cornerstone of instinct.</p>		<p>the sufficiency of the explanation of aggression when it is based entirely on the cornerstone of instinct,</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
72/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	39 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	39 WORDS
<p>Frustration And Aggression In its original form, the frustration aggression hypothesis linked aggression to an antecedent condition of frustration. It derived from the work of a group of psychologists at Yale University in the 1930s. 5.4.4</p>		<p>Frustration and aggression In its original form, the frustration–aggression hypothesis linked aggression to an antecedent condition of frustration. It derived from the work of a group of psychologists at Yale University in the 1930s,</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
73/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	22 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	22 WORDS
<p>Biological position is that just as humans have innate tendencies to eat and drink so they have innate tendencies to help.</p>		<p>biological position is that, just as humans have innate tendencies to eat and drink, so they have innate tendencies to help</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
74/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	61% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>According to learners, people need to believe that the world is just a place where we get what</p>		<p>According to Lerner and Miller, people need to believe that the world is a just place where they get what</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				

75/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	13 WORDS	84% MATCHING TEXT	13 WORDS
<p>Welfare of social groups e.g. one's family, ethnic group or country. 4.</p>		<p>welfare of a social group, e.g. one's family, ethnic group or country.</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
76/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	12 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	12 WORDS
<p>a moral principle such as the greatest good for the greatest</p>		<p>a moral principle, such as 'the greatest good for the greatest</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
77/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	36 WORDS	95% MATCHING TEXT	36 WORDS
<p>attitude refers to a set of emotions, beliefs, and behaviours toward a particular object, person, thing, or event. Attitudes are often the result of experience or upbringing, and they can have a powerful influence over</p>				
<p>SA MSc Pyschology - PAPER – II (Social Psychology)-23.pdf (D165577905)</p>				
78/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	21 WORDS	92% MATCHING TEXT	21 WORDS
<p>Persuasion: persuasion, the process by which a person's attitudes or behaviour are, without duress, influenced by communications from other people.</p>				
<p>SA Social Psy (1 - 14 units) 25-3-22.pdf (D132772652)</p>				
79/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	15 WORDS	85% MATCHING TEXT	15 WORDS
<p>to play the role of a guard or a prisoner in a simulated prison.</p>		<p>to play the role of either a guard or a prisoner in a mock prison</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				
80/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	84% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>a mock prison in the basement of the psychology department at Stanford University</p>		<p>a simulated prison constructed in the basement of the psychology department at Stanford University.</p>		
<p>W https://dokumen.pub/social-psychology-1309146489-9781292090450-9781292090504-9781292182452-129209 ...</p>				
81/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	25 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	25 WORDS
<p>Primary group: There is an intimate face-to-face relationship among the members and the members are having 'we feeling' to the maximum. Family, play groups</p>		<p>Primary group: There is an intimate face-to-face relationship among the members and the members experience the 'we feeling' to the maximum. Family, play groups 13</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				

82/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	23 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	23 WORDS
<p>the relationships are more or less casual and marked by common interest. Clubs, trade unions etc. are under this category. •</p>		<p>the relationships are more or less casual and marked by common interest. Clubs, trade unions etc. are under this category.</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				
83/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	33 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	33 WORDS
<p>common object and common interest. They have a sense of 'we' feeling. The members of the in groups treat others as outsiders. These groups can be formed on the basis of relationship,</p>		<p>common object and common interest. They have a sense of we feeling. The members of the in groups treat others as outsiders. These groups can be formed on the basis of relationship,</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				
84/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	76% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>in which the members are considered as outsiders by us. Groups other than</p>		<p>in which the members are considered as outsiders by the in group people. Groups other than</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				
85/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>A group consists of two or more people who interact and are interdependent</p>				
<p>SA 9-Introduction to Psychology-Block 3.pdf (D142228505)</p>				
86/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	71 WORDS	92% MATCHING TEXT	71 WORDS
<p>Formal group: It is generally formed on the basis of specific norms, rules and values. The group of students in a classroom comes under the category of formal group. So, school is one of the formal group settings. • Informal group: The nature of the group is not formed at all. The rules are usually flexible. Play groups, peer groups and social clubs etc. are examples of informal groups.</p>		<p>Formal group: It is generally formed on the basis of specific norms, rules and values. The group of students in a classroom comes under the category of formal group. So, school is one of the formal group setting. ii) Informal group: The nature of the group is not formal at all. The rules are usually flexible. Play groups, peer group and social clubs etc. are examples of informal groups.</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				

87/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	59 WORDS	69% MATCHING TEXT	59 WORDS
	groups can also be classified into various categories as given below: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organised groups: The groups which are formed for specific purposes and are carefully planned are called organised groups. The family, the school etc. are also called organised groups. • Spontaneous groups: The groups are formed without any careful planning. Audience may be considered as 		groups can also classified into various categories as organised and spontaneous groups etc. Let us consider these below. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> iii) Organised groups: The groups which are formed for specific purpose and are carefully planned is called organised groups. The family, the school etc. are called organised groups. iv) Spontaneous groups: The groups are formed without any careful planning. An example is the audience in a theater. Audience may be considered as 	
	<p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>			

88/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	61 WORDS	84% MATCHING TEXT	61 WORDS
	Command groups: Command groups are specified by the organisational chart. It consists of a supervisor and the subordinates that report to the supervisor. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Task groups: A group of people work together to achieve a common task. In many situations there is a specified time period. This can be referred to as task forces. • Functional groups: Functional 		Command groups: Command groups are specified by the organisational chart. It consists of a supervisor and the subordinates who report to the supervisor. <p>1.4.4 On the Basis of Tasks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> i) Task groups: This consists of a group of people who have come together to achieve a common task. In many situations there is a specified time period. This can be referred to as task forces. Functional groups: Functional 	
	<p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>			

89/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	16 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	16 WORDS
	generally created by the organisation to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional		generally created by the organisation to accomplish specific goals within an unspecified time frame. Functional	
	<p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>			

90/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	31 WORDS	76% MATCHING TEXT	31 WORDS
	generally exist after achievement of current goals and objects. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interest groups: It usually continues over time and may last longer than general informal groups. It is seen that 		generally exists after achievement of current goals and objects. <p>1.4.5 Interest Groups</p> These groups usually continue over a period of time and may last longer than general informal groups. It is seen that	
	<p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>			

91/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	54 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	54 WORDS
<p>may not be part of the same organisational department but they are bound by some common interest. • Friendship groups: It may be of different types. These groups are formed by the members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values and other common bonds. • Reference groups: This is the group</p>		<p>may not be part of the same organisational department but they are bound by some common interest. 1.4.6 Friendship Groups These may be of different types. These groups are formed by the members who enjoy similar social activities, political beliefs, religious values and other common bonds. 17 Introduction to Groups: Definition, Characteristics and Types of Groups 1.4.7 Reference Groups This is the group</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So...</p>				
92/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	13 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	13 WORDS
<p>evaluate themselves. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behaviour.</p>		<p>evaluate themselves. Reference groups have a strong influence on members' behaviour.</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So...</p>				
93/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	25 WORDS	93% MATCHING TEXT	25 WORDS
<p>Club: A club is a group, which usually requires one to apply to become a member. Such clubs may be dedicated to particular activities,</p>		<p>Club: A club is a group, which usually requires one to apply to become a member. Such clubs may be dedicated to scrupulous activities:</p>		
<p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>				
94/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	36 WORDS	91% MATCHING TEXT	36 WORDS
<p>Community: A community is a group of people with a commonality or sometimes a complex net of overlapping commonalities, often, but not always, in proximity with one another with some degree of continuity over time.</p>		<p>Community: A community is a group of people with a commonality or sometimes a intricate net of overlapping commonalities, often—but not always—in proximity with one another with some degree of stability over time.</p>		
<p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>				
95/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	40 WORDS	91% MATCHING TEXT	40 WORDS
<p>locations. Gang: A gang is usually an urban group that gathers in a particular area. It is a group of people that often hang around each other. They can be like some clubs, but much less formal.</p>		<p>locations. Gang: A gang is usually an urban group that gathers in a scrupulous area. It is a group of people that often hang approximately each other. They can be like some clubs, but much less formal.</p>		
<p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>				
96/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	22 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	22 WORDS
<p>Mob: A mob is usually a group of people that has taken the law into their own hands. Mobs are usually</p>		<p>Mob: A mob is usually a group of people that has taken the law into their own hands. Mobs are usually</p>		
<p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>				

97/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	29 WORDS	80% MATCHING TEXT	29 WORDS
<p>it can also refer to a street group. Squad: This is usually a small group, of around 3-8 people, that would work as a team to accomplish</p> <p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>		<p>it can also refer to a street group. Squad: This is usually a small group, of approximately 3 to 15 people, who work as a team to accomplish</p>		
98/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	25 WORDS	79% MATCHING TEXT	25 WORDS
<p>similar to a squad, though a team may contain many more members. A team works in a similar way as a squad. 8.7</p> <p>W https://niilmuniversity.in/coursepack/humanities/Social_Psychology.pdf</p>		<p>similar to a squad, though a team may contain several more members. A team works in a similar method to a squad.</p>		
99/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	21 WORDS	91% MATCHING TEXT	21 WORDS
<p>Attitude: An enduring system of evaluations or feelings in favour of or against a person or group. •</p> <p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>		<p>Attitude : An enduring system of evaluations or feeling in favour of or against a person or group.</p>		
100/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	24 WORDS	92% MATCHING TEXT	24 WORDS
<p>Group: A collection of individuals who are in an interdependent relationship with one another sharing common norms of behaviour and attitude. •</p> <p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>		<p>Group : A collection of individuals who are in interdependent relationship with one another sharing common norms of behaviour and attitude,</p>		
101/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	33 WORDS	90% MATCHING TEXT	33 WORDS
<p>Group dynamics: The way in which changes take place in the behaviour of other members of the group. Groups can mobilise powerful forces which may be constructive or destructive. • Peer group:</p> <p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>		<p>Group dynamics : The way in which changes take place in the behaviour of other members of the group. Groups can mobilise powerful force which may be constructive or destructive. Group</p>		
102/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	50 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	50 WORDS
<p>Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. 9.1</p> <p>W https://profilelogin.admissione.online/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>		<p>Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal.</p>		

103/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	14 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	14 WORDS
<p>A group consists of two or more people who interact and are interdependent</p>				
<p>SA 9-Introduction to Psychology-Block 3.pdf (D142228505)</p>				

104/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	54 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	54 WORDS
<p>Interaction is a two-way process whereby each individual or group stimulates the other and in varying degrees modifies the behaviour of the participants. The behaviour and personality characteristics of individual members of a group affect the behaviour of others and make a significant impact over the functioning of a group as a whole.</p>				
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLgoin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				

105/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	396 WORDS	98% MATCHING TEXT	396 WORDS
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Social Facilitation Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. Allport (1920) defined the term social facilitation as one of the improvements in performance produced by the mere presence of others, either as audience or as co-actors that is the persons performing the same task, but independently. Some basic principles are as follows: 1) When arousal increases, the tendency to make dominant responses also increases. 2) Dominant responses may be correct or incorrect for any given task. 3) The presence of another person will facilitate performance when an individual's dominant responses are the correct ones in a given situation or vice-versa. 4) Learning to perform a new task has a significant role in this context. 5) Social facilitation was not always facilitating, sometimes it appears to be misleading. 6) Individuals sometimes believe that their performance may be observed and evaluated by others. 7) There are large individual differences with respect to basic forms of group influence. 8) Evaluation apprehension takes an important role in social facilitation. 9) Good sense improves the performance. 10) Mere presence of others is arousing and influences performance, but that the possibility of being evaluated by others increases even more, and produces even stronger social facilitation effects. 11) When individuals have little reason to pay attention to others present on the scene, social facilitation fails to occur, when they have strong reasons for paying attention to others, social facilitation occurs. 12) Social facilitation is the 'simple type of group influence'. 9.6.1 Drive Theory of Social Facilitation The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is that the presence of others produce increments in arousal, which affect our performance. Thus, it can be said that the presence of others will facilitate performance when a person's dominant responses are the correct ones in a given situation but the presence of others will impair performance, when a person's dominant responses are incorrect in a given situation. When individuals have little reason to pay attention to others present on the scene, social facilitation fails to occur, but when

SOCIAL FACILITATION Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. Allport (1920) defined the term social facilitation as one of the improvements in performance produced by the mere presence of others, either as audience or as co-actors that is the persons performing the same task, but independently. Some basic principles are as follows: 1) When arousal increases, the tendency to make dominant responses also increases. 2) Dominant responses may be correct or incorrect for any given task. 3) The presence of other person will facilitate performance when an individual's dominant responses are the correct ones in a given situation or vice-versa. 4) Learning to perform a new task has a significant role in this context. 5) Social facilitating was not always facilitating, sometimes it appears to be misleading. 6) Individuals sometimes believe that their performance may be observed and evaluated by others. 7) There are large individual differences with respect to basic form of group influence. 8) Evaluation apprehension takes an important role in social facilitation. 9) Good sense improves the performance. 10) Mere presence of others is arousing and influences performance, but that the possibility of being evaluated by others increases even more, and produces even stronger social facilitation effects. 11) When individuals have little reason to pay attention to others present on the scene, social facilitation fails to occur, when they have strong reasons for paying attention to others, social facilitation occurs. 12) Social facilitation is the 'simple type of group influence'. 2.3.1 Drive Theory of Social Facilitation The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is that the presence of others produce increments in arousal, which affect our performance. Thus, it can be said that the presence of others will facilitate performance when a person's dominant responses are the correct ones in a given situation but the presence of others will impair performance, when a person's dominant responses are incorrect in a given situation. When individuals have little reason to pay attention to others present on the scene, social facilitation fails to occur, but when

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106/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	15 WORDS	87% MATCHING TEXT	15 WORDS
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they have strong reason for paying attention to others, social facilitation occurs. 9.7

they have strong reasons for paying attention to others, social facilitation occurs. 12)

W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So...

107/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	50 WORDS	100% MATCHING TEXT	50 WORDS
<p>Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal. 9.8</p>		<p>Social facilitation may be defined as the improvement in performance produced by the mere presence of others. It indicates that the persons perform the same task independently. The basic idea behind Zajonc's drive theory of social facilitation is the presence of others which produces increments in arousal.</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				
108/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	15 WORDS	88% MATCHING TEXT	15 WORDS
<p>Gettys, "Social interaction is a process whereby men interpenetrate the minds of each other."</p>		<p>Gettys - • 16. 16 "Social Interaction is a process whereby man interperietrates the minds of each other."</p>		
<p>W https://www.slideshare.net/sanchicreator/social-psychology-introduction</p>				
109/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	15 WORDS	71% MATCHING TEXT	15 WORDS
<p>tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held</p>		<p>tendency of group members to shift towards more extreme position than those they initially held</p>		
<p>W https://profilelogin.admissiononline.com/UploadFiles/Documents/ProfileLogin/Subtitle/NColge_1372_So ...</p>				
110/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	19 WORDS	62% MATCHING TEXT	19 WORDS
<p>Social Problems Social psychology is the scientific study of how the actual or perceived (1) thoughts, feelings</p>		<p>social psychology Social psychology is the scientific study of how the thoughts, feelings... </p>		
<p>W https://medium.com/@201520089/wha-is-social-psychology-social-psychology-is-the-scientific-study- ...</p>				
111/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	18 WORDS	70% MATCHING TEXT	18 WORDS
<p>Conformity is a type of social influence involving a change in belief or behaviour in order to</p>		<p>Conformity is a type of social influence defined as a change in belief or behavior in response to</p>		
<p>W https://www.simplypsychology.org/a-level-social.html</p>				
112/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	27 WORDS	73% MATCHING TEXT	27 WORDS
<p>victims of other criminal offences. A large body of evidence has shown that certain victim characteristics, such as low social status, higher number of sexual partners,</p>		<p>victims of rape has generated a large body of evidence (Krahé, 1991). It was shown that certain victim characteristics, such as low social status, higher number of sexual partners,</p>		
<p>W https://epdf.pub/the-blackwell-encyclopedia-of-social-psychology.html</p>				

113/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	20 WORDS	91% MATCHING TEXT	20 WORDS
	higher attributions of responsibility to the victim, and often correspondingly lower responsibility attributed to the attacker (Krahé, 1991). The		higher ATTRIBUTIONS OF RESPONSIBILITY to the victim (and often correspondingly lower responsibility attributed to the attacker). At the	
	W https://epdf.pub/the-blackwell-encyclopedia-of-social-psychology.html			
114/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	17 WORDS	76% MATCHING TEXT	17 WORDS
	more likely to enhance aggression than to reduce it (Bushman, 2002; Bushman, Baumeister & Stack, 1999).		more likely to increase subsequent aggression than to reduce it (e.g., Bushman, 2001; Bushman, Baumeister, & Stack, 1999).	
	W https://silo.pub/social-psychology-13th-edition.html			
115/115	SUBMITTED TEXT	23 WORDS	77% MATCHING TEXT	23 WORDS
	steam boiler model, Lorenz assumed that aggressive energy is produced continuously within the organism until it is released by an external cue,		Steam boiler model of aggression Lorenz (1966) suggests that internal aggressive energy is continuously produced within the organism until it is released by an external cue.	
	W https://quizlet.com/348399080/ucm-social-psychology-flash-cards/%3Fsrc%3Dkeyphrase_page			