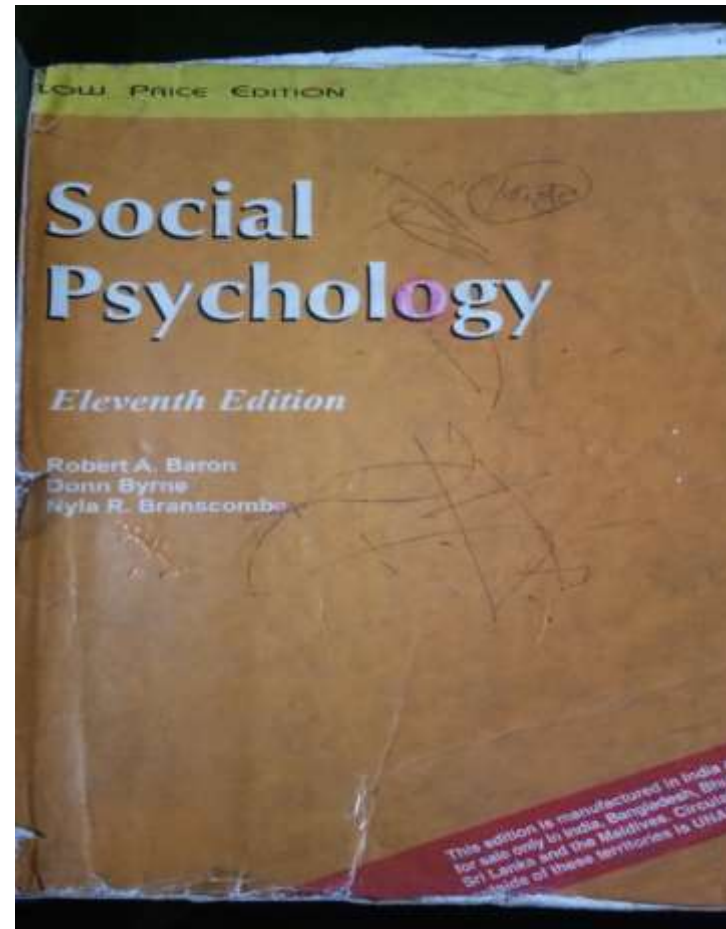
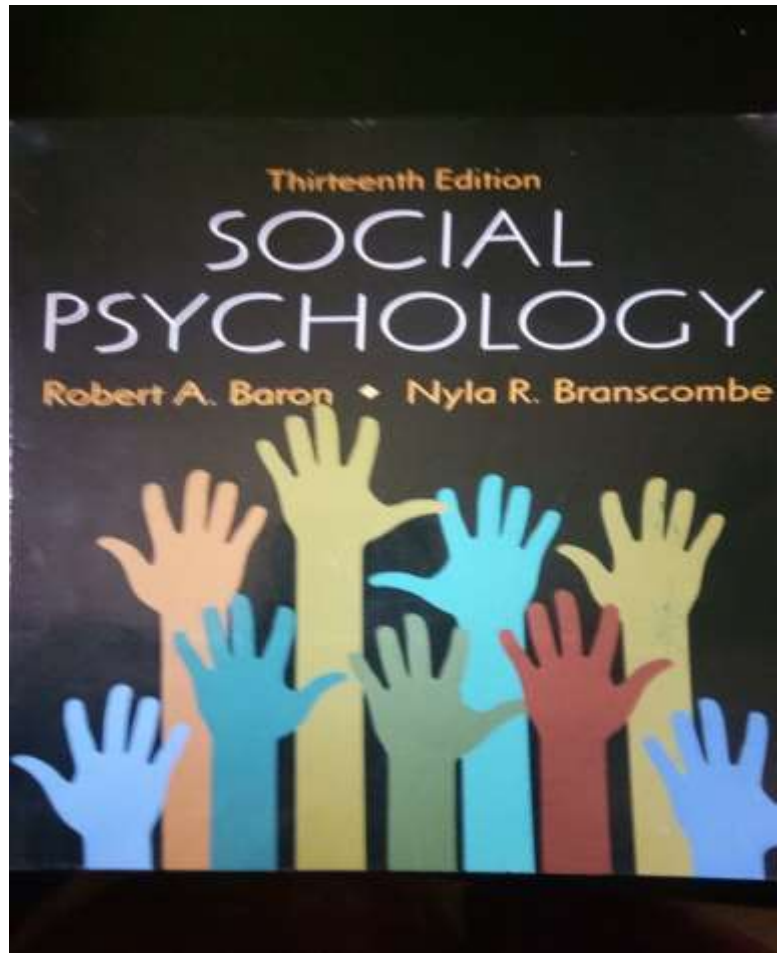


SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY



Introduction

Human beings are essentially social beings.



We stay with other and our actions, thoughts, and feelings are affected by the presence of others.



At the same time we influence the behaviour of other individuals.

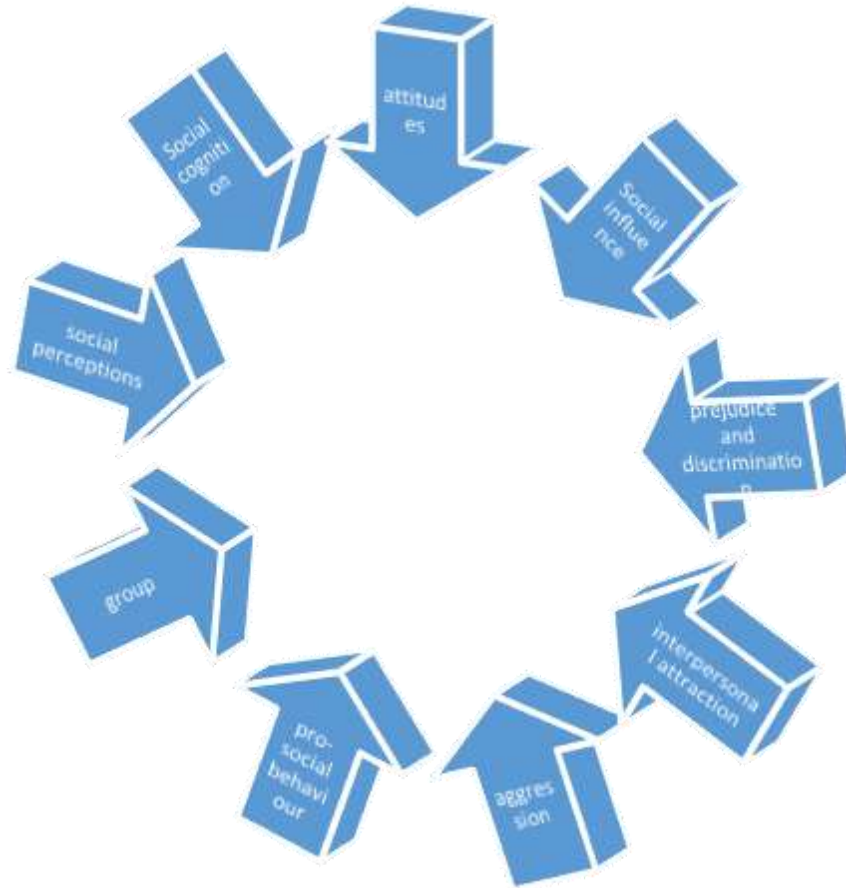


This consists of large amount of human behaviour



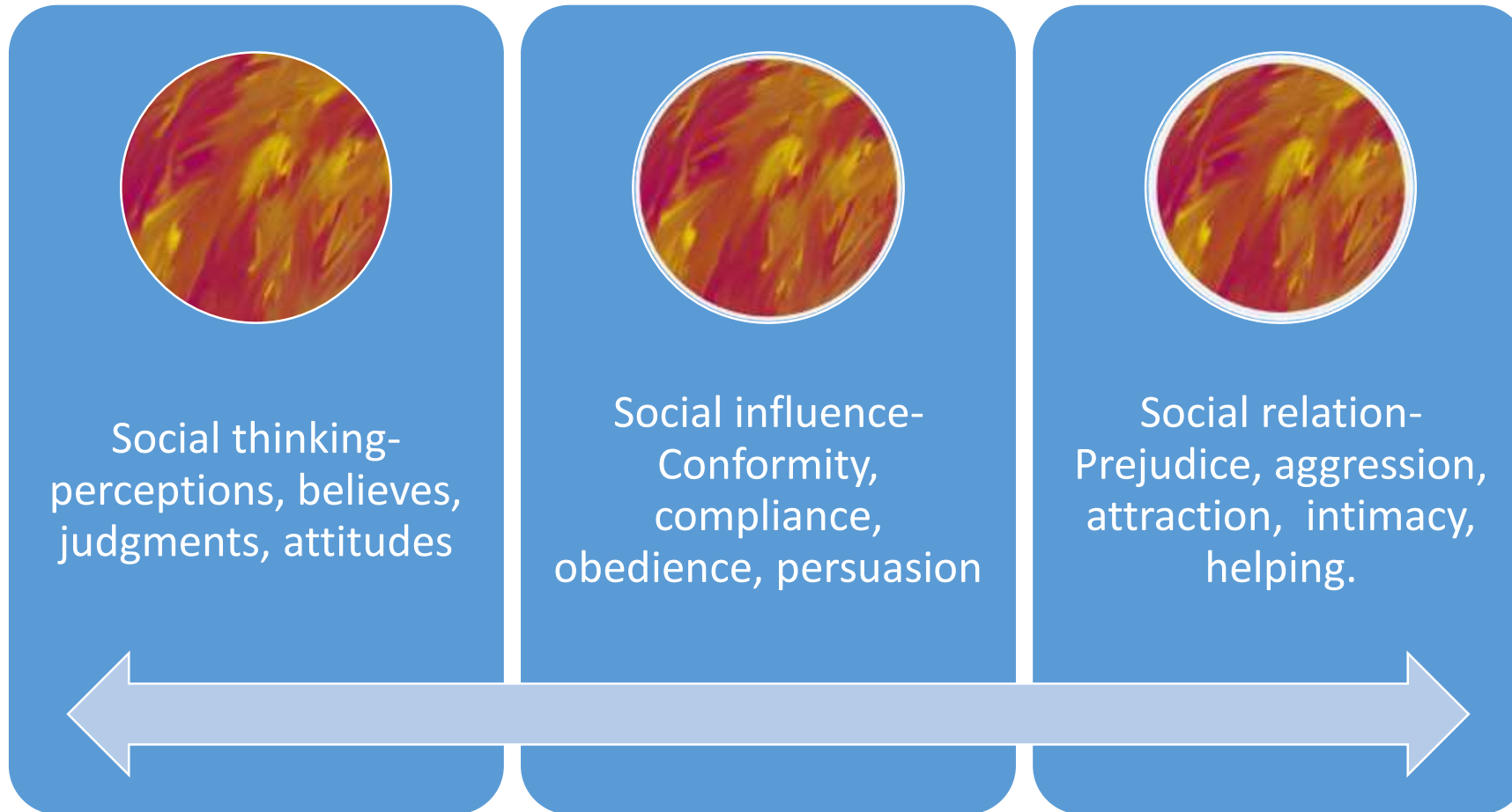
Social psychology is a discipline that tries to understand the human social behaviour.

Social Psychology



Social Psychology

It is the scientific study of how people think about , influence, and relate one another.



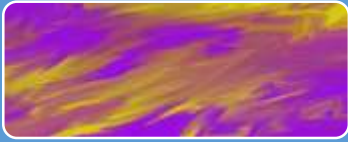
Definitions

- According to **Gordon Allport (1954) social psychology is** best defined as the discipline that uses scientific methods in “an attempt to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied (Indirect) presence of other human beings”.

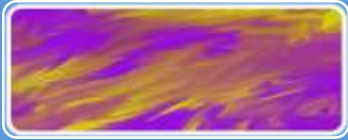
Definitions

- **Myers and Spencer (2006) define social psychology as the** “scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another”.
- **Barron and Byrne (2007) defined social psychology as** “the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and cause of individual behaviour and thought in social situations”.

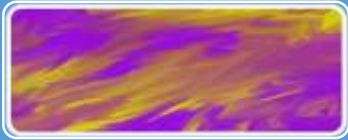
Social Psychologists study:



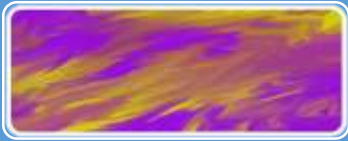
The relationship between individuals and groups.



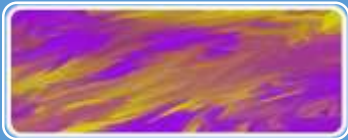
The processes of social interaction between people



The activities of individuals in the presence of others



Social behavior in a systematic fashion.



The nature and causes of social behavior.

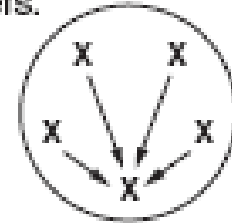


Social Psychology: Four Core Concerns

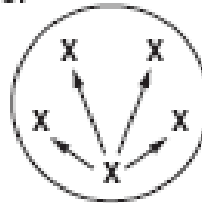
1. The impact of one individual on another's behavior and beliefs.



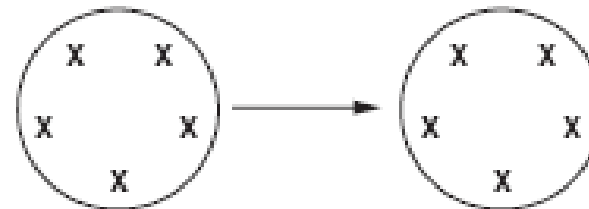
2. The impact of a group on a member's behavior and beliefs.



3. The impact of a member on a group's activities and structure.



4. The impact of one group on another group's activities and structure.



Goals: Social Psychology: Focus on individual Behaviour :

- The social thoughts and actions are taken by individuals.
- They might be influenced by the society.
- But the thought and actions are of the individuals, and not groups.
- The social psychology has a very strong focus on individuals, and tries to understand the behaviour of individuals.
- It also tries to understand various environmental influences on social thought and actions, viz., Culture, social norms, etc.

Goals: Understand Causes of Social Behaviour and Thought :

- Human social behaviour and thoughts are caused by many things.
- Social psychology would try to understand them.
- some of the important ones are
- Actions and Characteristics of Other Persons :
- Cognitive Process :
- Environment :
- Cultural Context :
- Biological Factors :
- Physiological and Neurological Factors :
- Behaviour Genetics

Goal of social psychology

- Social psychologists typically explain human behavior as a result of the relation between mental state and social situation, studying the factors/conditions under which certain behavior, actions, and feelings occur.
- Social psychology, thus, is concerned with the way these feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions, and goals, are cognitively constructed and how these mental representations, in turn, influence our interactions with others.

Social Psychology: It's Scientific Nature

- It has set of values and methodology.
- Accuracy, objectivity, skepticism, and open mindedness are the values of science.

Social psychology is deeply committed to these values.

- The data collection, analysis and inferences are drawn in most error-free manner.

- Accuracy- a commitment to gathering and evaluating information about the world as an careful precise and error free manner.
- Objectivity-a commitment to obtaining and evaluating such information in a manner that is as free of bias as is humanly possible.
- Skepticism- a commitment to accepting findings as accurately only to the extent that they have been verified repeatedly.
- Open-mindedness- A commitment to changing one's views even views that are strongly held if existing evidence suggests that these views are inaccurate.

History

- Traditionally, the emergence of this discipline bridged the gap between psychology and sociology. During the years immediately following World War II, there was frequent collaboration between psychologists and sociologists.
- The two disciplines, however, have become increasingly specialized and isolated from each other in recent years, with sociologists generally focusing on more macro features (e.g., social structure)—as the prefix of *socio-* denotes a *societal* influence—whereas psychologists may be more concerned with more micro features.

- **Aristotle** believed that humans were naturally sociable ' a necessity which allows us live together .
- Whilst **Plato** felt that the state controlled the individual and encouraged social responsibility through social context.
- Traditional social psychology is also glimpse in the scriptures of purana like mahabharatha , arthashasthra .

History

- Nevertheless, sociological approaches to psychology remain an important counterpart to psychological research in this area.
- In addition to the split between psychology and sociology, there has been a somewhat less pronounced difference in emphasis between American and European social psychologists, as, the former traditionally have focused more on the individual, whereas the latter have generally paid more attention to group-level phenomena.

History

- Although older writings regarding social psychology have existed—such as those by Islamic philosopher Al-Farabi (aka Alfarabius) discipline of social psychology, as its modern-day definition, began in the United States at the beginning of the 20th century.
- By this time, however, the discipline itself had already developed a significant foundation.
- Following the 18th century, those in the emerging field of social psychology were concerned with developing concrete explanations for different aspects of human nature.
- They would attempt to discover concrete cause-and-effect relationships that explain the social interactions in the world around them.
- In order to do so, they believed that the scientific method, an empirically based scientific measure, could be applied to human behavior.

Brief History of Social Psychology :

- Social psychology has an interesting history. A young field.
- Hegel (1770-1831) introduced the concept that society has inevitable links with the development of the social mind. This led to the idea of group mind, important in the study of social psychology.
- 1890s Ringelmann experiment on "Social loafing"
- Social psychology can be traced back to 1895 when Le Bon theorized crowd behaviour.
- First social psychology experiment-Triplett's (1897) experiment on "social facilitation" effects.
- Social psychology started as "Experimental" science.
- Ross and McDougall's (1908) first textbook of social psychology.
- Later social psychology had a beginning in the establishment of the 1st psychological department at the Calcutta university by NN Sengupta and also worked with a sociologist named Radhakamal Mukherjee to produce a book on social psychology in 1928.

- Sherif (1936) studies on development of norms, Lewin's field theory (1935), and Lewin, Lippitt, and White's (1939) three leadership styles test were early important studies.
- Lewin trained many famous social psychologists, like, Festinger, Schachter, Deutsch, Kelley, Thibault, etc.
- Three Influential Gestalt Psychologists are Kurt Lewin, Solomon Asch, Fritz Heider.
- Murchison (1935) published The first handbook on social psychology

The World War II was a major event in the history of social psychology.

- Many social psychologists fled Europe and went to USA.
- They have started working in the auspicious funding atmosphere.
- The topics they chose were related to American problems, e.g., to combat moral warfare strategies during the time of war.
- social psychology was energized by researchers who attempted to understand how the German dictator Adolf Hitler could have produced such extreme obedience and horrendous behaviour in his followers, during world war 2.
- in 1920 Willy Hellpach founds the 1st institute for social psychology in Germany. Which was later closed in 1933 in the realm of Hitler's Power.

- Festinger studies on cognitive dissonance and social comparisons, Heider's work on balance theory and attribution theory dominated 1940's and late 1950's.
- Then studies by Milgram on obedience. Milgram's study Obedience (electric shock) plays an important role in shaping the behavior
- Sherif (1936) and Solomon Asch (1952) and Milgram's obedience studies showed the importance of conformity pressures in social groups.
- Kurt Lewin formalized the joint influence of personal variables and situational variables, which is known as person-situation interaction in an important equation. $\text{Behaviour} = f(\text{person, social situation})$ in 1936.
- Fritz Heider 1958 best known for his book, The Psychology of Interpersonal Relationship. Published 2 articles in 1944 that pioneered the concept of social perception and causal attribution

- In the decade of 1960's Stereotyping and Prejudice, School Desegregation, Aggression, Altruism, Bystander Intervention, Interpersonal Relations, Attraction, became topics of modern research.
- John Darley and Bibb Latané (1968) developed a model that helped explain when people do and do not help others in need, and Leonard Berkowitz (1974) pioneered the study of human aggression.
- The decade of 1970's saw the emergence of Kahneman- Tversky model of heuristics, models of schemas and increasing cognitive trends.
- Philip zimbardo (1973) - prison study. Male college students behavioural change when they were made guards and prisoners.

- Other social psychologist including Irving Janis(1972) focused on group behavior
- Irving Janis (1972) focused on group behaviour, studying why intelligent people sometimes made decisions that led to disastrous results when they worked together.
- 1954- Festinger edited an influential book called "research methods in Behavioral Sciences" each era presented diverse research topics for social psychologists: 1940's -study of prejudice, 1950's - lookalike fashions and intolerance , 1960's - aggression , rising crime rates , 1970's - gender and feminism , 1990's to early 21st century - people's response to culture , race and sexual orientation

- There are many other disciplines that have emerged in the social psychology.
- Evolutionary social psychology, neuroscience perspective in social psychology, studies on implicit processes, cross-cultural research, are the new methods that lead to the development of modern social psychology.
- In recent years insights from social psychology have even been used to design anti-violence programs in societies that have experienced genocide (Staub, Pearlman, & Bilali, 2010).

- The history of social psychology also teaches us interesting lessons. Because of the World War II, most of the social psychology initially developed in USA.
- Most of the social psychologists at the time were white, men, upper-middle class, Americans dealing with the problems of America.
- So the field initially was subservient to American social problems.
- In last three decades the picture is changing.
- Social constructivism, and feminism have also made a mark in changing this picture.

- Similarly, in India, social psychologist, partly, have studied phenomenon that cannot be considered as science because of their political, religious preferences.
- Indeed, science and religion are two different epistemological views, and both can't be done together.
- On the positive note, Indian psychologist have also studied issues of poverty, discrimination, deprivation, religious tensions, gender issues, etc.

1.4.8 Historical Developments: Summary Table

Table: Summary table of Historical development of social psychology

Periods	Major Trends
The Early years: 1908 – 1939 McDougall (1908):	Social behaviour stems from innate tendencies or instincts. Floyd Allport (1924): Social Facilitation Effect; emphasized the value of experimentation. Sherif (1935): Social norms and conformity. Kurt Lewin et al (1939): Leadership and related group processes.

Social Psychology:
The Youth:
1940s – 1960s

Expansion of Scope: every aspect of social behaviour included in the research; 1948: a revolution got under way favouring the concept of human behaviour as thoughtful and purposive rather than guided by instincts, Kurt Lewin: Experimental works due to the efforts of Kurt Lewin put social psychology as a science in a more advantageous position 1960s: fully came off age. Study of the influence of groups and group membership on individual behaviour, relation between personality traits and social behaviour. Leon Festinger (1957): the theory of cognitive dissonance.

<p>A Maturing Field: 1970s and 1980s</p>	<p>Rapid pace change of the last decade accelerated. New topics and perspectives emerge: Attribution (How to infer the causes of other's behaviours), gender differences and environmental psychology, growing influence of cognitive perspective and growing emphasis on application (personal health, legal processes, work settings, education and population studies)</p>
<p>1990s and beyond</p>	<p>Two major trends from the past decade continued, namely, growing influence of cognitive perspective and increasing interest in application. The study of affective states in determining social behaviour gained impetus; Multicultural perspective: the study of universal and cultural social behaviours.</p>
<p>Current Trends</p>	<p>Evolutionary social psychology, the changing world, technology and human social behaviour, Neurocognitive perspective and social behaviour.</p>

Theoretical Perspectives in social psychology

What is a Theory?

- A set of interrelated propositions that organizes and explains observed phenomena.
- It goes beyond mere observable facts by postulating causal relations among variables.
- If a theory is valid, it enables its user to explain the phenomena under consideration and make predictions about events not yet observed.

Theoretical Perspectives

- Social psychology investigates the five following theoretical perspectives:
 1. Role theory
 2. Social Learning or Reinforcement theory
 3. Social cognitive or Cognitive theory
 4. Symbolic interaction theory
 5. Evolutionary theory
 6. Sociocultural Theory

Role Theory

- ▶ Much of observable social behavior is people carrying out their roles, similar to actors performing on a stage.
- ▶ According to role theory, to change a person's behavior, it is necessary to change or redefine his or her role.

Propositions in Role Theory

1. People spend much of their lives participating in groups and organizations.
2. Within these groups, people occupy distinct positions.
3. Each of these positions entails a role, which is a set of functions performed by the person for the group.

Reinforcement Theory

- ▶ Central proposition:
 - ▶ People are more likely to perform a behavior if it is followed by something pleasurable or by the removal of something aversive.
 - ▶ People will refrain from a particular behavior if it is followed by something aversive or the removal of something pleasant.

Conditioning

- ▶ In conditioning, a relationship is established between emitting a response and receiving a reinforcement.
- ▶ If a person emits a particular response and this response is then reinforced, the connection between response and reinforcement is strengthened.

Social Learning Theory

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- ▶ Individuals acquire new responses through conditioning and imitation.
 - ▶ The *learner* acquires new responses by observing the behavior of another person.
 - ▶ The *learner* neither performs a response nor receives reinforcement.
- ▶ Whether the learner will perform behaviors learned through observation may depend on whether they receive reinforcement.

Social Exchange Theory

- ▶ Uses reinforcement to explain stability and change in relations between individuals.
- ▶ Assumes individuals have freedom of choice and often face situations in which they must choose among alternative actions.
- ▶ Any action provides some rewards and entails some costs.
- ▶ Individuals will maximize rewards and minimize costs so they choose accordingly.

Reinforcement Theory

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- Reinforcement theory portrays individuals as reacting to environmental stimuli rather than as initiating behavior based on imaginative or creative thought.

Limitations:

- Reinforcement theory cannot easily explain altruism and martyrdom.

Cognitive Theory

- The mental activities (*cognitive processes*) of the individual are important determinants of social behavior.
- These cognitive processes include perception, memory, judgment, problem solving, and decision making.
- An individual's cognitive processes intervene between external stimuli and behavioral responses.

Cognitive Structure and Schemas

- ▶ Cognitive structure refers to any type of organization among cognitions (concepts and beliefs).
- ▶ Social psychologists propose that individuals use one kind of cognitive structures called *schemas* to explain complex information about other people, groups, and situations.

Cognitive Consistency

12

- Maintains that individuals strive to hold ideas that are consistent with one another, rather than ideas that are inconsistent or incongruous.
- If a person holds several ideas that are incongruous or inconsistent, then he/she will experience internal conflict.

Affects Cognitive Processes

Past experience with rewards influences current schemas, cognitive structures, and attributions

Social Learning

Social Cognition

Learning anything new requires attention, encoding, and memory

Affects Learning Processes

Symbolic Interaction Theory

- ▶ Human nature and social order are products of symbolic communication among people.
- ▶ In this perspective, a person's behavior is constructed through a give and take during his or her interaction with others.

Symbolic Interaction Theory

- ▶ The “**Self**” occupies a central place in symbolic interaction theory because social order is hypothesized to rest in part on self-control.
- ▶ Because individuals are continually engaging in role taking, they see themselves from the viewpoint of others.
 - ▶ Refer to the works of Mead and Cooley
- ▶ Individuals care most about the opinions of significant others, people who control important rewards or occupy key positions in their groups.

Evolutionary Theory

- ▶ Evolutionary social psychologists extend evolutionary ideas to explain social behavior.
- ▶ The predisposition toward certain behaviors is encoded in our genetic material and is passed on through reproduction.
- ▶ Characteristics that enable the individual to survive and pass on its genetic code will eventually occur more frequently.

Sociocultural Perspective

- ▶ What drives social behavior?
 - ▶ Forces in larger social groups such as:
 - ▶ Norms within cultural groups
 - ▶ Social class differences
 - ▶ Nationality/ethnicity
 - ▶ Fads



Sociocultural Perspective

- ▶ *Social norms* – rules and expectations for appropriate social behavior
 - ▶ Example: Tattoos and earrings are appropriate for rock musicians, but not for corporate finance executives

Sociocultural Perspective

- ▶ *Culture* – beliefs, customs, habits, and language shared by the people living in a particular time and place
 - ▶ Example: Chinese society is more tradition-oriented, collectivist, and authority-oriented than North American society.

Culture and Evolution Interacting

- ▶ Just as the human mind is designed to learn a particular language, modern cultural psychologists argue it is designed to learn some set of norms (Fiske et al., 1998).

Culture and Evolution Interacting

- ▶ Culture develops within potentialities and limits set by human evolution.
- ▶ Human evolution develops within possibilities and limits set by culture.

Affect how cultures
are designed

**Human predispositions
influence which
cultural norms are
likely to be adopted**

**Evolutionary
Factors**

**Social norms can
influence the success of
different survival and
reproductive strategies**

**Sociocultural
Factors**

Affect evolution in
human groups

Comparison Of Theoretical Perspectives

Dimension	Role theory	Reinforcement theory
Central concepts	Role	Stimulus-response; reinforcement
Primary behavior explained	Behavior in role	Learning of new responses
Assumptions about human nature	People are conformist	People are hedonistic
Factors changing behavior	Shift in role expectations	Change in reinforcement

Continued next slide

Comparison Of Theoretical Perspectives

Dimension	Cognitive theory	Symbolic interaction theory
Central concepts	Cognitions; cognitive structure	Self; role taking
Primary behavior explained	Formation of beliefs	Sequences of acts during interaction
Assumptions about human nature	People act on their cognitions	People are self-monitoring actors.
Factors changing behavior	Cognitive inconsistency	Shift in others' standards.

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.
- 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.

- Three levels of analysis
- Three different levels of analysis have been recognized which tell us about the differences in the approach of various social sciences.

•
Societal Level
Analysis

Individual Level
Analysis

Interpersonal
Level Analysis

- **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.

- **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 of people's behaviour can be explained.
- Individual differences in childhood experiences, ability, motivation and personality are emphasised.

- **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 inter-personal relations.

Sociology and Social Psychology

- Sociology is defined as the study of society. Sociology is the social science dealing with social system and structures, relationships, institutes and entire societies. The emergence of sociology in the nineteenth century greatly contributed to the development of social psychology.
- 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.
- 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.

Social Psychology and Anthropology

- Broadly considered as 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.

Social Psychology and Sociolinguistics

- Sociolinguistics includes the areas of study which connects 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.

Research Methods

- Social psychology is an empirical science that attempts to answer questions about human behavior by testing hypotheses, both in the laboratory and in the field.
- Careful attention to sampling, research design, and statistical analysis is important;

Experimental methods

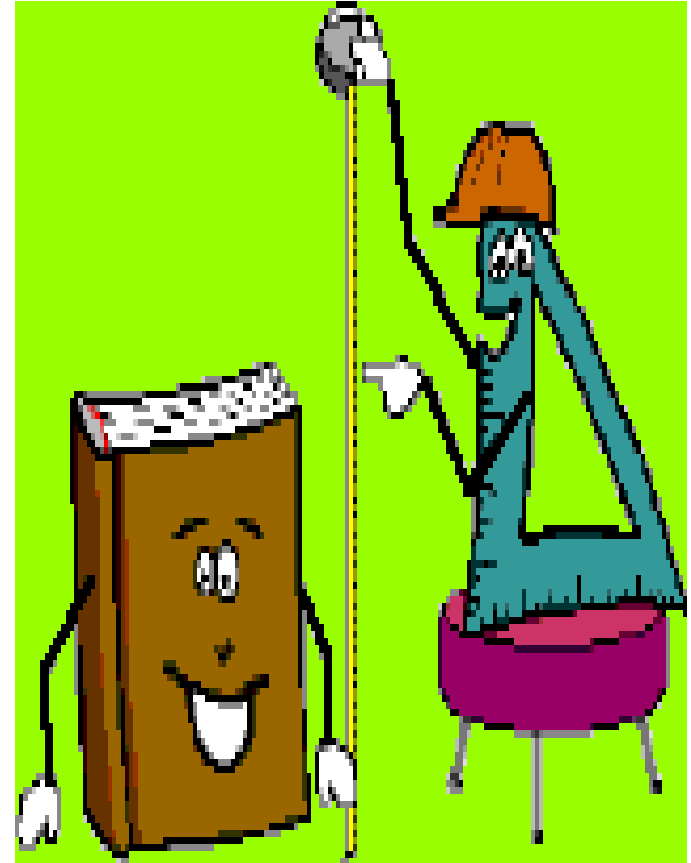
- Experimental methods involve the researcher altering a variable in the environment and measuring the effect on another variable.
- It is a method of research in which one or more factors (the independent variable) are systematically changed to determine whether such variations affect one or more other factors (dependent variables).

Research Methods

- Hypothesis-unverified predictions concerning some aspects of social behavior or social thought.
-
- Experiments - Do changes in one variable (X) *cause* changes in another variable (Y)?
 - Independent Variable (X)
 - condition or event that is manipulated by experimenter
 - Dependent Variable (Y)
 - variable that is affected (hopefully) by manipulating independent variable
 - Extraneous Variable(s)
 - any variable other than independent variable that may influence dependent variable

VARIABLES

- Very simply, a **VARIABLE** is a measurable characteristic that varies.
- It may change from group to group, person to person, or even within one person over time. There are six common variable types:



- **DEPENDENT VARIABLES**

- ... show the effect of manipulating or introducing the independent variables.

- For example, if the independent variable is the use or non-use of a new language teaching procedure, then the dependent variable might be students' scores on a test of the content taught using that procedure.

- In other words, the variation in the dependent variable depends on the variation in the independent variable.

- **INDEPENDENT VARIABLES**

- . . . are those that the researcher has control over.

- This "control" may involve manipulating existing variables (e.g., modifying existing methods of instruction) or introducing new variables (e.g., adopting a totally new method for some sections of a class) in the research setting.
- Whatever the case may be, the researcher expects that the independent variable(s) will have some effect on (or relationship with) the dependent variables.

Example

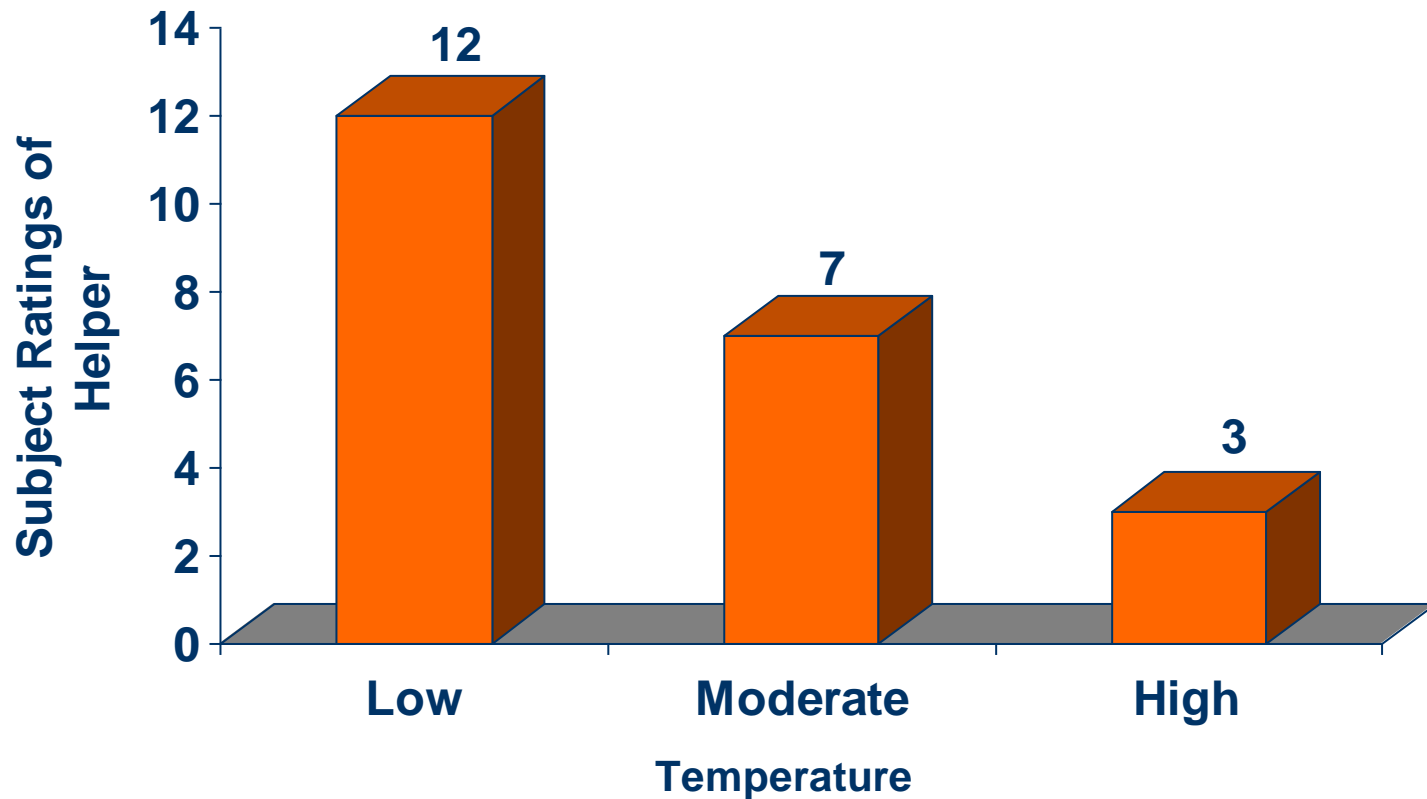
A study was conducted to examine the effects of temperature on aggression. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three conditions (low [70°-72°], moderate [80°-82°], or a high [90°-92°] temperature room).

While in the room an assistant irritates the subjects.

Subjects were later given a chance to “evaluate” the assistant and told that low ratings would cause the assistant to be fired.

Graphic Results

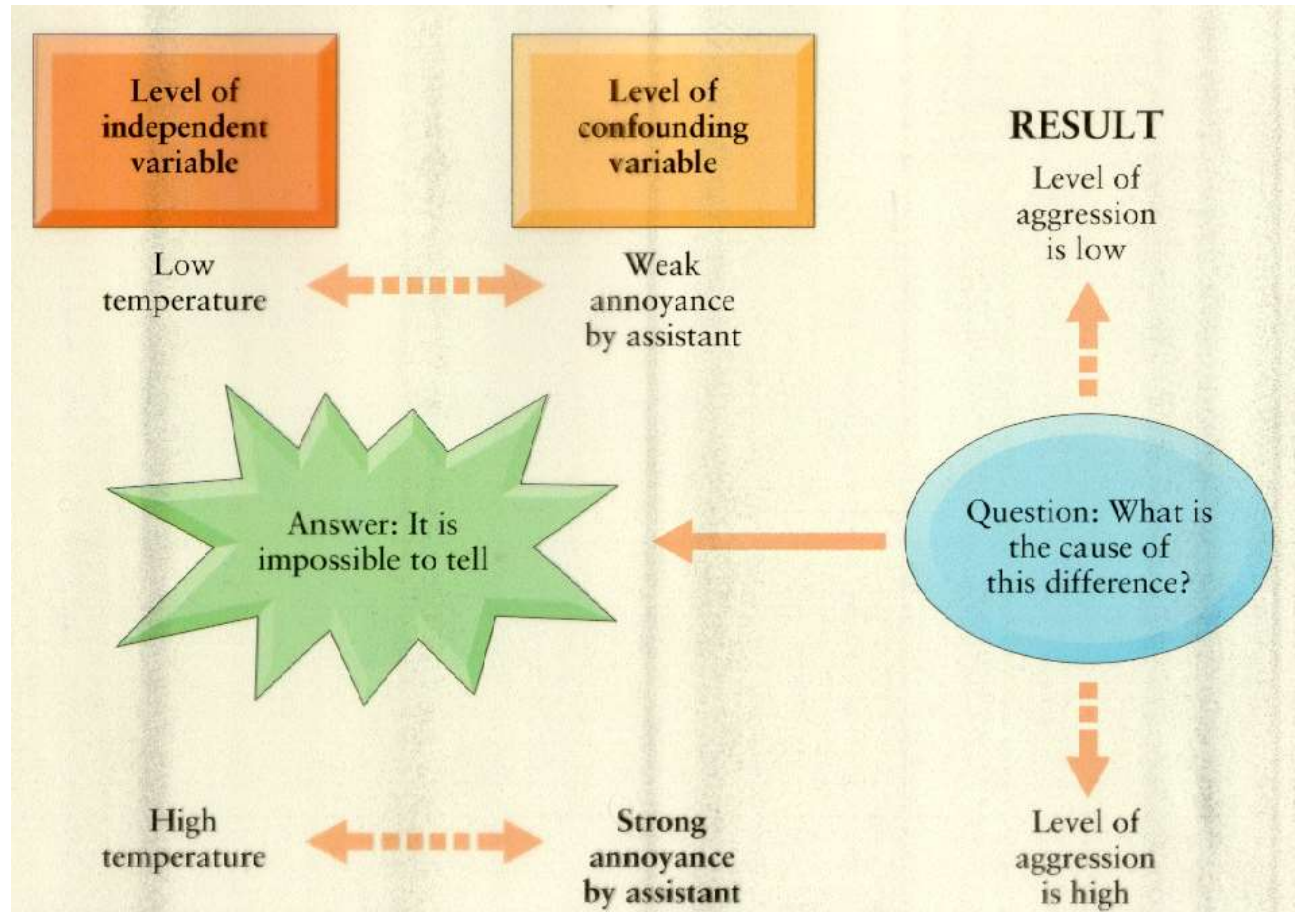
Effects of Temperature on Aggression



Confounding of Variables

- occurs when independent and extraneous variables are linked together
- makes it impossible to tell which variable affected dependent variable

The Process of Confounding



confounding variable

- In statistics, a **confounder** (also **confounding variable**, **confounding factor**, or **lurking variable**) is a variable that influences both the dependent variable and independent variable, causing a spurious (Fake) association.
- In research that investigates a potential cause-and-effect relationship, a **confounding variable** is an unmeasured third variable that influences both the supposed cause and the supposed effect.
- It's important to consider potential confounding variables and account for them in your research design to ensure your results are valid.

- Confounding variables, which are also called confounders or confounding factors, are closely related to a study's independent and dependent variables.
- A variable must meet two conditions to be a confounder:
 - It must be correlated with the independent variable. This may be a causal relationship, but it does not have to be.
 - It must be causally related to the dependent variable.

- Example of a confounding variable You collect data on sunburns and ice cream consumption. You find that higher ice cream consumption is associated with a higher probability of sunburn. Does that mean ice cream consumption causes sunburn?
- Here, the confounding variable is temperature: hot temperatures cause people to both eat more ice cream and spend more time outdoors under the sun, resulting in more sunburns.

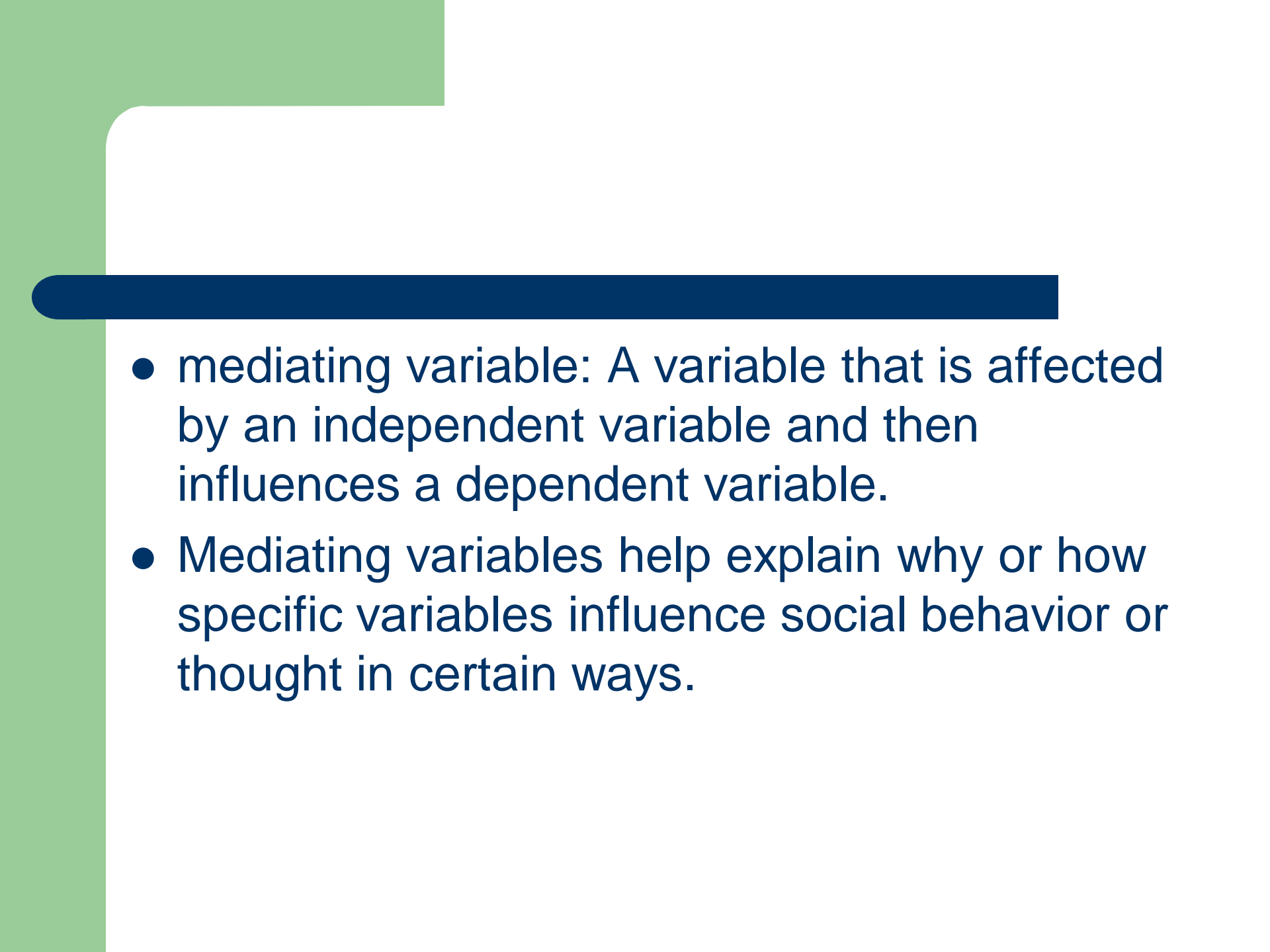
- **INTERVENING VARIABLES**

. . . refer to abstract processes that are not directly observable but that link the independent and dependent variables.

- In language learning and teaching, they are usually inside the subjects' heads, including various language learning processes which the researcher cannot observe.
- For example, if the use of a particular teaching technique is the independent variable and mastery of the objectives is the dependent variable, then the language learning processes used by the subjects are the intervening variables.

Mediator variable

- Mediator variable is the middle variable / "middleman" between an independent variable (IV) and a dependent variable (DV).
- Objective of the mediator variable is to explain the relationship between IV & DV
- e.g. IV is not directly influencing DV but rather IV is indirectly influencing DV through mediator variable.
- Pictorially, Independent variable --> Mediator variable --> Dependent variable.
- For example, salary (IV) is positively influencing education (mediator variable) and then education is positively influencing health-screening expenses (DV). When the effect of education is removed, the relationship between salary and health-screening disappears.

- 
- mediating variable: A variable that is affected by an independent variable and then influences a dependent variable.
 - Mediating variables help explain why or how specific variables influence social behavior or thought in certain ways.

Moderator variable

- Moderator variable is a third party variable that modify the relationship between an independent variable (IV) and a dependent variable (DV).
- Objective of the moderator variable is to measure the strength of the relationship between the IV & DV.
- For example, if age is a moderator variable between salary (IV) and health-screening expenses (DV), then relationship between salary & health-screening can be stronger for older men and less strong for younger men.

MODERATOR VARIABLES

- . . . affect the relationship between the independent and dependent variables by modifying the effect of the intervening variable(s).
- Unlike extraneous variables, moderator variables are measured and taken into consideration.
- Typical moderator variables in language acquisition research (when they are not the major focus of the study) include the sex, age, culture, or language proficiency of the subjects.

- **CONTROL VARIABLES**

Language learning and teaching are very complex processes.

- It is not possible to consider every variable in a single study.
- Therefore, the variables that are not measured in a particular study must be held constant, neutralized/balanced, or eliminated, so they will not have a biasing effect on the other variables.
- Variables that have been controlled in this way are called control variables.

EXTRANEOUS VARIABLES

- . . . are those factors in the research environment which may have an effect on the dependent variable(s) but which are not controlled.
- Extraneous variables are dangerous.
- They may damage a study's validity, making it impossible to know whether the effects were caused by the independent and moderator variables or some extraneous factor.
- If they cannot be controlled, extraneous variables must at least be taken into consideration when interpreting results.

Research Methods

- Minimize confounding with consistent procedures
- Minimize confounding with random assignment
 - subjects have an equal chance of being assigned to any group or condition in the study.
 - the goal of random assignment is to equally distribute potential extraneous variables in each group.

Research Methods

- Advantages of Experimental Research
 - Allows conclusions about cause & effect relationships between variables
- Disadvantages of Experimental Research
 - Experimental conditions are artificial
 - do results “generalize” to the real world?
 - Some questions can’t be tested in an experiment

Descriptive Research

- Surveys
 - investigators use questionnaires or interviews to gather data about subject's behavior
- Naturalistic Observation
 - investigators observe subject behavior without direct intervention
- Case Studies
 - in-depth probe of individual subject(s)

/Descriptive Research

- Advantages
 - Study phenomena that can't be studied in a lab
 - riots
 - effects of supervisor behavior on employees
 - effects of job loss on couples' relationship quality
 - effects of smoking on physical health
 - Very realistic
 - results can be generalized to other settings

/Descriptive Research

- Disadvantages
 - less control over extraneous variables
 - difficult to measure behavior as precisely (compared to lab experiments)
 - cannot demonstrate cause and effect relationships

Correlation

- The extent to which one variable can be understood on the basis of another
 - Two properties of correlation coefficient
 - **direction (positive or negative)**
 - **magnitude (strength of the relationship)**

Ethical Considerations

- Institutional Review Boards (IRBs)
 - Potential benefits must outweigh potential harm

APA ethical guidelines

- Voluntary participation
- Informed consent- a procedure in which research participants are provided with as much information as possible about a research project before deciding whether to participated in it.
- Privacy
- Debriefing- procedures at conclusion of a research session in which participants are given full information about the nature of the research and the hypothesis under investigation.

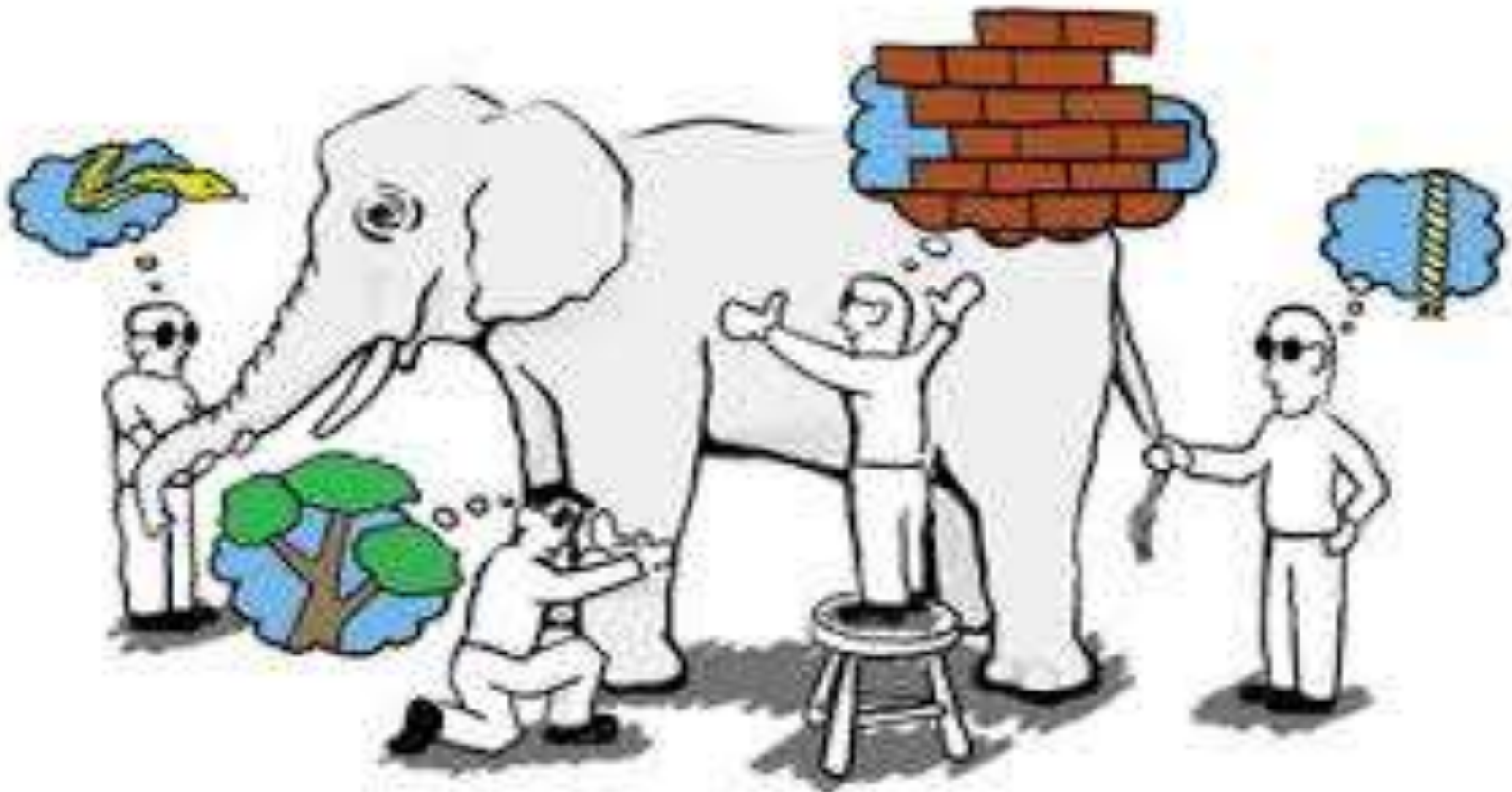
- deception :A technique whereby researchers withhold information about the purposes or procedures of a study from people participating in it.

- Overall, then, it appears that most research participants do not react negatively to temporary deception as long as its purpose and necessity are subsequently made clear. However, these findings do not mean that the safety or appropriateness of deception should be taken for granted (Rubin, 1985).

- On the contrary, the guiding principles for all researchers planning to use this procedure should be:
- (1) Use deception only when it is absolutely essential to do so—when no other means for conducting the research exists;
- (2) always proceed with caution;

- and (3) make certain that every possible precaution is taken to protect the rights, safety, and well-being of research participants.
- In terms of the latter, all universities in the United States who receive federal funding must have an Institutional Review Board to review the ethics, including a cost– benefit analysis when deception is to be employed, for all proposed research involving human participants.

SOCIAL PERCEPTION



- **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.
- 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 informations are 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.
- 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.

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

- 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.

- **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.

Communication

- 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.

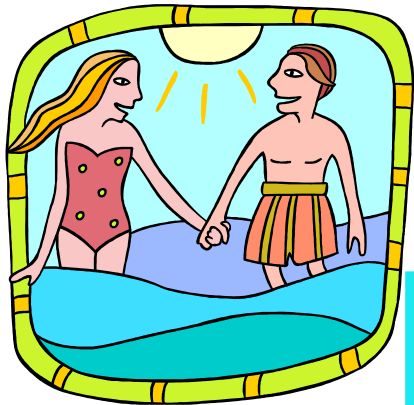


Nonverbal Communication



Nonverbal communication is powerful

- 60% of all communication is nonverbal (Burgoon, Buller, & Woodall, 1989)



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- gazes and stares
- Body language-gestures, postures, body movements.
- touching.

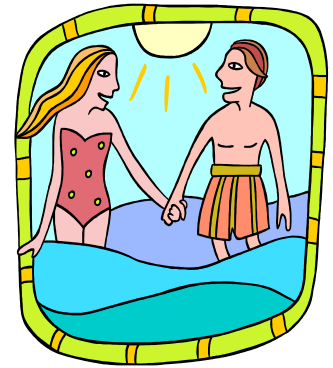


Facial Expression

- 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.



- **Gazes and Stares: Eye contact as a non-verbal cue**
- Ancient poets described the “Eyes as windows to the soul”
- High eye contact to a person usually indicates the sign of liking or positive feeling.
- Staring –A form of eye contact in which one person continues to gaze steadily at another regardless of what the recipient does.



- 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.

Body language-gestures, postures, body movements.

- Body languages are Cues provided by the position, posture, and movement of others bodies or body parts.
- Gestures are body movements carrying specific meanings. 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.
- 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.

Touching

- Most intimate nonverbal cue.
- Touching—reveals affection, interest, dominance, caring, threat and aggression.

There are 6 types of nonverbal behavior

- Proxemics
- Haptics
- Chronemics
- Kinesics
- Artifacts
- Vocalics or Paralanguage

PROXEMICS (distance)

- **Different cultures have different comfort levels of distance**
- **As children grow older and become less dependent on parents they require more space**
- **Men tend to take up more space than women**

Example: When you go to the movies with someone of the opposite sex who usually gets the armrest?

Edward T. Hall's 4 levels of distance

- **Intimate:** 0 to 18 inches
- **personal:** 18 inches to 4 feet
- **social:** 4 to 10 feet
- **public:** 10 feet to infinity

HAPTICS (touch)

The power of touch:

- A (1997) study found that strangers that were touched were more likely to return change left in a phone booth(Klienke)
- A (1992) study found that food servers who used touch received larger tips (Hornick)
- Library study (1976) found that students who were slightly touched by clerk while checking out library books evaluated the library much more favorably than those who were not touched.



CHRONEMICS (time)

How is time used to communicate?

- ❖ What does it mean to you when someone is always late?
- ❖ A study conducted by Burgoon (1989) found that people who arrive 15 minutes late are considered dynamic, but much less competent, composed and sociable than those that arrive on time.

KINESICS (behavior)

- Facial expressions
- Eye contact
- Body language
- Gestures
- Physical appearance

Facial expressions

- **The face is capable of conveying 250,000 expressions (Birdwhistle, 1970)**
- **Smiling increases sociability, likeability, and attraction (LaFrance & Hecht, 1995)**
- **Food servers who smile more often earn increased tips (Heslin & Patterson, 1982)**
- **Studies conducted on students caught cheating found that students who smiled were treated with more leniency (LaFrance & Hecht, 1995)**



Eye contact

- **Successful pan handlers establish eye contact (Beebe, 1974)**
- **People are more likely to comply when more eye contact is used**
- **Eye contact conveys a sense of sincerity**
- **Eye contact establishes a connection between persons**

Body language

- **Mirroring – building rapport with others by mimicking their nonverbal cues**
- **People like those who are similar or equal to them**
- **“Mirroring” body language facilitates compliance**
- **Many self-help books suggest mirroring techniques to get people to like them**

Example: The book Unlimited Power by, Anthony Robbins

Gestures

- Gestures can be seen as subtle or not so subtle cues
- We use gestures to take the place of words, or help us to increase understanding of what is being said

Physical Appearance

- More attractive people are judged to be happier, more intelligent, friendlier, stronger, and kinder and are thought to have better personalities, better jobs, and greater marital competence (Knapp, 1992)
- Attractive people get more dates, higher grades, higher tips, and lighter court sentences than unattractive people (Dunn, 2000)

ARTIFACTS (Dress, Belongings, etc.)

- **Material objects as an extension of oneself**
- **Clothing has the power to influence**
- Change left in a phone booth was returned to well dressed people 77% of the time, poorly dressed people only 38% of the time
- Several studies show that fancy suits, uniforms and high-status clothing are related to higher rates of compliance.
- **The situation governs appropriate dress**

VOLCALICS (Paralanguage)

- **Use of voice to communicate includes elements such as pitch, rate, pauses, volume, tone of voice, silences, laughs, screams, sighs, etc.**

- **Studies have found that people who talk louder, faster, and more fluently are more persuasive**
- **Deep voices are often viewed as more credible**
- **Powerless style of communication (pauses, umhs, uhs, tag questions) lowers perceptions of credibility**

Functions of Nonverbal Communication

- Repeating
- Substituting
- Complementing
- Accenting
- Regulating
- Contradicting
- Deceiving

Repeating

- The use of nonverbal behavior to say what you are saying in words
- **Emblems**- are the nonverbal behaviors that we use to display what we mean
- Example: head nods at the same time as someone saying “yes”

Substituting

- The use of nonverbal behaviors to say things rather than words
- We often answer questions others ask by responding nonverbally rather than verbally

Example: Nodding your head to answer a question rather than saying “yes”

Complementing

- The use of nonverbal behaviors to strengthen what is being said with words.
- **Illustrators**- nonverbal behaviors that support what is being said verbally
- Example: A friend says “I am so sorry” and at the same time makes a sincerely sad face

Accenting

- The way we emphasize certain words in order to clarify what we mean.

Example: “NO!” or “No?????”

Regulating

- Nonverbal behaviors that control the flow of the conversation, and tell us when it is our turn to talk, or when the other person is finished talking.

Example: while telling a story to a friend, one may pause to allow room for comments

Contradicting

- When people are saying one thing yet their nonverbal behavior is telling us something completely different.

Example: A friend says, “I am so sorry” while smiling

Role of nonverbal cues recognizing **deception**

- Use nonverbal cues to cut through **deception**-efforts by other person to mislead us about their true feelings or beliefs.
- Careful attention to both verbal and nonverbal cues that can reveal the fact that others are trying to deceive us.

- **Micro expressions**
- These are fleeting facial expressions that last only a few tenths of a second
- Appear quickly on the face
- Difficult to suppress
- Reveal others' true feelings
- One expression followed quickly by another can be a useful sign that they are lying.

- **Interchannel discrepancies-** the term channel refers to a type of nonverbal cue; for instance, facial expressions are one channel, and body movements are another.
- Interchannel discrepancies are inconsistencies among nonverbal cues from different basic channels, and result from the fact that persons who are lying often find it difficult to control all of these channels at once.

- Eye contact-lying person often blink more often and show more dilated pupils than others.
- Also seen low level eye contact.
- Exaggerated facial expressions-lying person show exaggerated facial expressions ,smile more , greater sorrow.
- Take longer to begin
- Greater tendency to start sentence, stop them and to begin again.
- Trying to avoid direct attention to themselves.

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.

Appearance

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

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.

DARWIN'S THEORY OF UNIVERSAL FACIAL EXPRESSIONS OF EMOTION :

- 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 recognize different facial expressions is an indication of an extremely vital social skill.

- 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 behaviour 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.

- 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.

How to read body language

- Reading body language is a difficult skill you will continue to develop throughout your career.
- While each person uses nonverbal communication differently, there are several common cues to pay attention to that will inform you about a person's feelings, intentions, motivations and more.
- When you are communicating with someone, it's helpful to notice their body language while also taking in their verbal communication.

Here are a few uses of body language you can begin to look out for:

- **Posture.** If a person has their shoulders back and spine straight, this is a sign that they are engaged, listening and open to the ideas or information you are presenting. If they are exhibiting poor posture with their shoulders slouched or raised and spine bent, they might be nervous, anxious or angry.

- **Use of arms.** If a person has their arms down to their side, on the table or arranged in some other open way, this is a sign that they feel positive and ready to absorb information. If their arms are crossed or closed, they might feel be experiencing some sort of negative emotion.

- **Use of legs.** If a person has both feet placed flat on the ground, this is a sign that they feel ready and open to hear your ideas. If their legs are crossed or arranged in some other closed formation, they might be feeling irritated or stressed.

- **Use of facial expressions.** If you are communicating with someone who is frowning, has a furrowed brow or tight lips, you might pause to ensure they don't feel confused, angry or some other negative emotion. If you are communicating with someone who has a soft smile, relaxed facial muscles or gently raised eyebrows, this is a sign that they feel good about the information you are presenting.

How to improve your own body language

- **Do a body language test.** Pay close attention to the ways you use body language over a business week. Notice your body language, facial expressions and posture in meetings, during casual exchanges and in presentations. See how others respond to your natural nonverbal communications.

Notice how your emotions feel physically.

- Emotions are not purely felt in the mind; they affect us physically, too.
- Throughout the day, as you experience a range of emotions (anything from energized, bored, happy or frustrated), try to identify where you feel that emotion within your body.
- For example, if you're feeling anxious, you might notice that your stomach feels tight.
- Developing the self-awareness of how your emotions affect your body can give you greater mastery over your external presentation.

Be intentional about your nonverbal communications.

- Be attentive when trying to communicate with others using facial expressions or body language.
- Make an effort to display positive body language when you feel alert, open and positive about your surroundings.
- You can also use body language to support your verbal communication if you feel confused or anxious about information, like using a furrowed brow.
- Use body language alongside verbal communication such as asking follow up questions or pulling the presenter aside to give feedback.

Mimic nonverbal communications you find effective.

- If you witness certain facial expressions or body language you find beneficial to a certain setting, use it as a guide when improving your own nonverbal communications.
- For example, if you see that when someone nods their head it communicates approval and positive feedback efficiently, use it in your next meeting when you have the same feelings.

- Nonverbal communication is an essential part of having excellent communication skills. Take time to understand the body language and facial expressions of others you work with, as well as to develop the ways you use nonverbal communications

**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.

- **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

Attributions

- **How do we make social inferences, from both verbal and nonverbal behavior, to understand WHY a person might be behaving in a particular way?**

Example

- Janet and Michael go on a date and, at the end of the evening, he promises to call her tomorrow. Tomorrow comes along, but Michael doesn't call. In thinking about this situation, Janet might come up with different explanations for his behavior. What are some possible explanations for Michael's behavior?

Causal attributions

- **Internal attribution:** Explain in terms of something about the person (e.g., Michael is rude and unreliable)
- **External attribution:** Explain in terms of something about the situation (e.g., Michael couldn't call because he's in the hospital and unconscious)

2 big questions

- How do people explain another's behavior?
 - Role of subjective vs. objective
- What kinds of errors do people make when explaining another's behavior?

Two attributional biases

- Fundamental attribution error
- Actor-observer difference

Fundamental attribution error

- **Fundamental attribution error:** the tendency to overestimate the impact of internal, personality causes and to underestimate the impact of situational causes when explaining another person's behavior.

Causal Attributions

- **The Correspondence Bias: People as Personality Psychologists**

The *Two-Step Process of Attribution* occurs when people analyze another person's behavior by first making an automatic internal attribution, and only then thinking about possible situational reasons for the behavior, after which one may adjust original internal attribution.

Causal Attribution

- **The Actor/Observer Difference**

The *actor/observer difference* is the tendency to see other people's behavior as dispositionally caused, but focusing more on the role of situational factors when explaining one's own behavior.

Example

- Imagine you are working on a group project and one of the other students does not complete her part.
- Your view: She's lazy, inconsiderate, not motivated. (internal, personal)
- Her view: I'm taking 5 classes, working 30 hours/week, my boyfriend cheated on me, and my grandmother is seriously ill. (external, situational)

Causal Attribution

- **The Actor/Observer Difference**

One reason for the actor/observer difference is perceptual salience (figure vs. ground): actors notice the situations around them that influence them to act, while observers notice the actors.

Causal Attribution

- **The Actor/Observer Difference**

The actor/observer difference also occurs because actors have more information about themselves than do observers.

How do we make inferences about another person from nonverbal behavior?

- Body language, facial expressions, touching, tone of voice
- Nonverbal cues can provide a range of information (e.g., information about a person's relationship to another person, or about whether a person is lying)

The Two-Step Process of Making Attributions

- **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.

Jones and Davis's (1965) correspondent inference theory

- Jones and Davis's (1965) correspondent inference theory explains how people infer that a person's behaviour corresponds to an underlying disposition or personality trait.
- Dispositional (internal) cause is preferred as it is stable and renders people's behaviour more predictable and increases sense of control.

- According to the theory proposed by Jones and Davis, we are most likely to conclude that others' behavior reflects their stable traits (i.e., we are likely to reach correspondent inferences about them),
- when that behavior
- (1) is freely chosen;
- (2) yields distinctive, noncommon effects; and
- (3) is low in social desirability.

- **Freely chosen(Choice):** If a behavior is freely chosen it is believed to be due to internal (dispositional) factors.
- **Non common effects-** effects produced by a particular cause that could not be produced by any other apparent cause.

- **Behaviors low in sociable desirability** (non conforming) lead us to make (internal) dispositional inferences more than socially undesirable behaviors. For example, if you observe a person getting on a bus and sitting on the floor instead of one of the seats. This behavior has low social desirability (non conforming) and is likely to correspond with the personality of the individual.

Kelley's Theory of Causal Attribution :

- According to this theory in the case of Single-Instance Observation the following principles are used in making attributions.
- **Discounting principle** works 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 co variation 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 behaviour to the factor that co varies most closely with the behaviour.

The Covariation Model :

- The Co-variation Theory assumes that people make causal attributions in a rational, logical fashion, like detectives, drawing inferences from clues and observed behaviours.
- By discovering covariation in people's behaviour you are able to reach a judgment about what caused their behaviour.

- **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 behaviour 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 naïve 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** -The extent to which other people react to some stimulus or even in the same manner as the person we are considering. *E.g., Alison smokes a cigarette when she goes out for a meal with her friend. If her friend smokes, her behavior is high in consensus. If only Alison smokes, it is low.*
- (2) **Distinctiveness** -The extent to which an individual responds in the same manner to different stimuli or events. *If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, her behavior is high in distinctiveness. If she smokes at any time or place, distinctiveness is low.*
- (3) **Consistency** -The extent to which the person behaves like this every time the situation occurs. (i.e., across time). *If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, consistency is high. If she only smokes on one special occasion, consistency is low..*

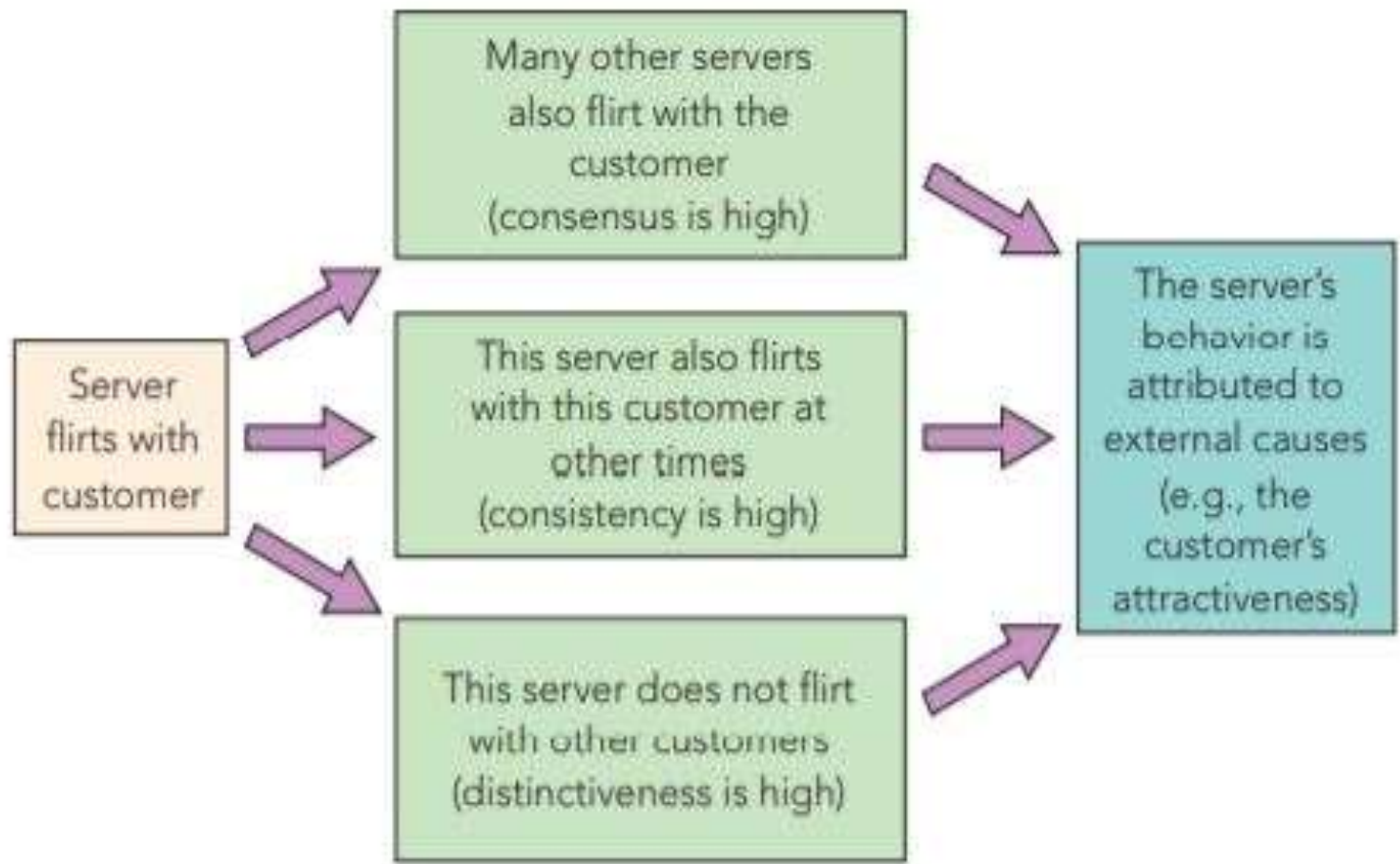
- Let's look at an example to help understand his particular attribution theory. Our subject is called Tom. His behavior is laughter. Tom is laughing at a comedian.
- 1. Consensus
- If everybody in the audience is laughing, the consensus is high. If only Tom is laughing consensus is low.
- 2. Distinctiveness
- If Tom only laughs at this comedian, the distinctiveness is high. If Tom laughs at everything, then distinctiveness is low.
- 3. Consistency
- If Tom always laughs at this comedian the consistency is high. If Tom rarely laughs at this comedian, then consistency is low.

- *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.

- 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 situation attribution. You basically don't know in this situation.

- Imagine that you see a server in a restaurant flirt with a customer. This behavior raises an interesting question:
- Why does the server act this way?
- Because of internal causes or external causes?
- Is he simply someone who likes to flirt (an internal cause)?
- Or is the customer extremely attractive—someone with whom many people flirt (an external cause)?

- According to Kelley's theory, your decision (as an observer of this scene) would depend on information relating to the three factors mentioned above. First, assume that the following conditions prevail:
- (1) You observe other servers flirting with this customer (consensus is high);
- (2) you have seen this server flirt with the same customer on other occasions (consistency is high); and
- (3) you have not seen this server flirt with other customers (distinctiveness is high).
- Under these conditions—high consensus, consistency, and distinctiveness—you would probably attribute the clerk's behavior to external causes—this customer is very attractive and that's why the server flirts with her



- Now, in contrast, assume these conditions exist:
- (1) No other servers flirt with the customer (consensus is low);
- (2) you have seen this server flirt with the same customer on other occasions (consistency is high); and
- (3) you have seen this server flirt with many other customers, too (distinctiveness is low).
- In this case, Kelley's theory suggests that you would attribute the server's behavior to internal causes: the server is simply a person who likes to flirt

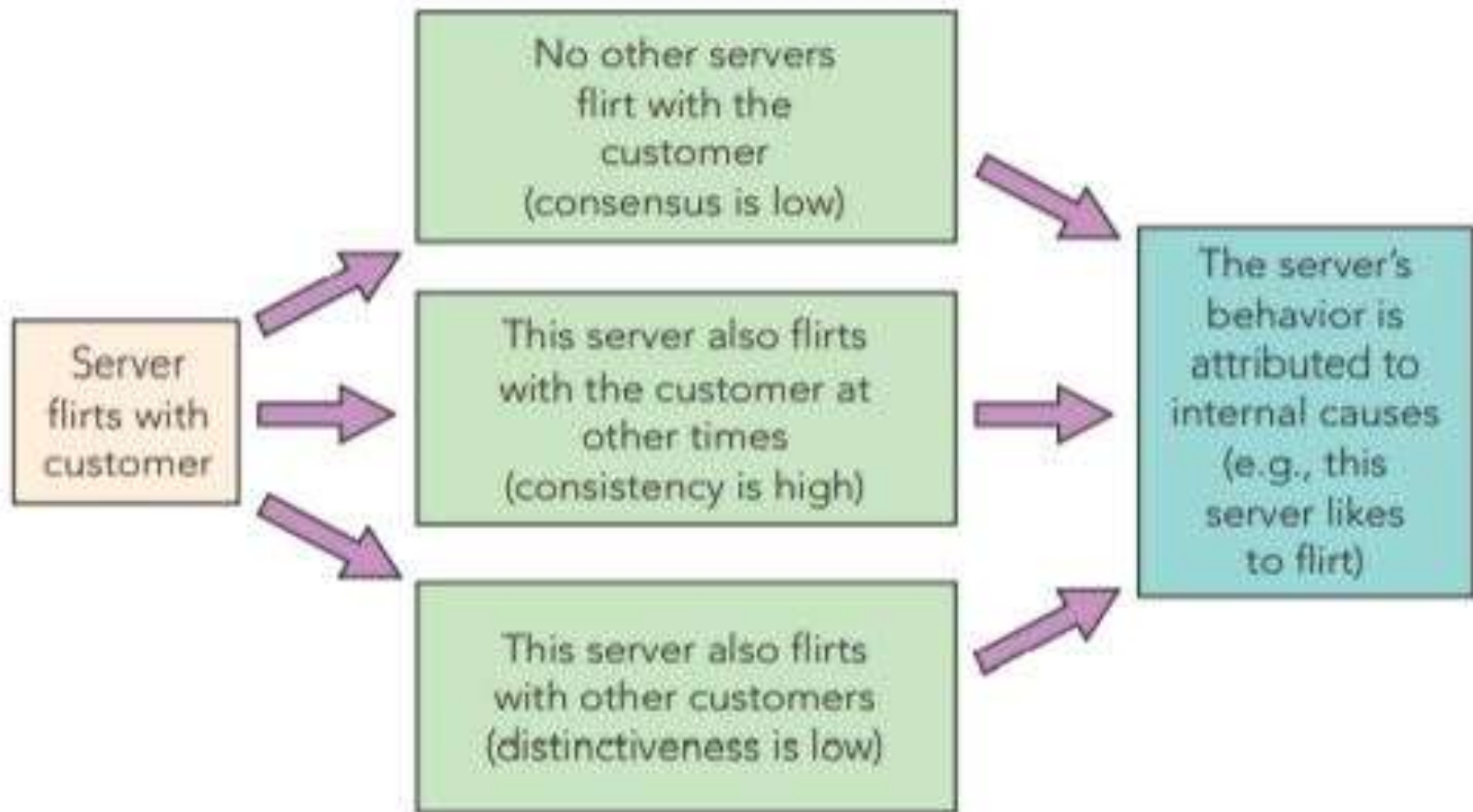


FIGURE 3.8 Kelley's Theory of Causal Attribution: An Example

- 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 influences 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.

OTHER DIMENSIONS OF CAUSAL ATTRIBUTION

- While we are often very interested in knowing whether others' behavior stemmed mainly from internal or external causes, this is not the entire story.
- In addition, we are also concerned with two other questions:
- (1) Are the causal factors that influenced their behavior likely to be stable over time or likely to change?
- (2) Are these factors controllable—can the individual change or influence them if he or she wishes to do so (Weiner, 1993, 1995)? These dimensions are independent of the internal–external dimension we have just considered.

- For instance, some internal causes of behavior tend to be quite stable over time, such as personality traits or temperament (e.g., Miles & Carey, 1997).
- In contrast, other internal causes can, and often do, change greatly—for instance, motives, health, and fatigue.
- Similarly, some internal causes are controllable—individuals can, if they wish, learn to hold their tempers in check; other internal causes, such as chronic illnesses or disabilities, are not.

- The same is true for external causes of behavior:
- some are stable over time (e.g., laws or social norms telling how we should behave in various situations) whereas others are not (e.g., bad luck).
- A large body of evidence indicates that in trying to understand the causes behind others' behavior, we do take note of all three of these dimensions—internal–external, stable–unstable, controllable–uncontrollable (Weiner, 1985, 1995)

FATE ATTRIBUTIONS VERSUS PERSONAL CHOICE

- The social psychologists suggested that belief in fate is related to two more basic beliefs: religious convictions concerning the existence of God, and a belief in complex causality—the idea that many causes influence such events, and that no one cause is essential.
- This, too, leads to the conclusion that unlikely events that occur are “meant to be,” (*it seems certain to happen , usually because it has been decided by God or other forces that people believe cannot be controlled*) since so many factors combine to lead to their occurrence that the presence or absence of one makes little difference—the events are “overdetermined.” (*cause in more than one way or with more conditions that are necessary*)

- The researchers predicted that people with strong religious beliefs would be more likely to attribute unlikely events such as this to the fact that they were “meant to be,” and that East Asians would be more likely to do this too, since they have strong cultural beliefs concerning complex causality.
- In further studies, Norenazyan and Lee found that belief in fate (that events were “meant to be”) was mediated by belief in God for the Christians and by a belief in causal complexity for the East Asians.

ACTION IDENTIFICATION AND THE ATTRIBUTION PROCESS

- The level of interpretation we use is known as action identification
- The level of interpretation we place on an action; low-level interpretations focus on the action itself, while higher-level interpretations focus on its ultimate goals.

- Research findings indicate that this is a basic aspect of attribution.
- When we view others' actions as involving little more than the actions themselves, we also tend to make few attributions about their intentions, goals, or higher-order cognition.
- When, instead, we view others' actions as having greater meaning, we attribute much greater mental activity to them.
- We see their actions not simply as produced by the present situation, but as reflecting much more—the person's goals, characteristics, intentions—their mind, if you will.

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.

- 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.

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.
- 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).

Defensive attributions

- **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.

APPLICATIONS OF ATTRIBUTION THEORY :

- **Attribution and Depression**
- Depressives have a different attributional style than nondepressives.
- 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.



ATTITUDE



Attitudes

- ◆ 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.
- ◆ Attitudes are evaluation of the various aspects of the social world.



- ◆ Attitudes exercise a great influence on the 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.

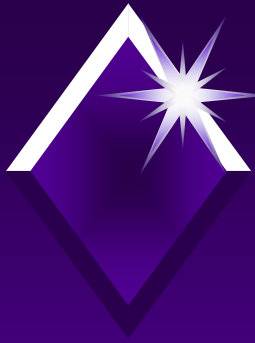


Definition :

- ◆ Attitudes refer to a mental and neural set of readiness, organized 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.



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 process in attitude formation. It is similar to how beliefs are formed.



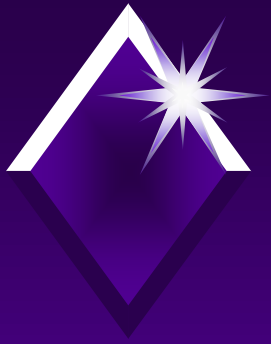
There are four process in attitude formation. It is similar to how beliefs are formed. They include:-

- 1.Past experience:** People develop 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 hear about the promotion of many people in an industry his attitude changes.
- 3. Generalization :** Generalization 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.
- 4.** The most important thing to remember about attitude formation is that it is **learned**. Family, friends, experiences co-workers, are involved in attitude formation.



ATTITUDE DEVELOPMENT

- ◆ In 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 figure is an important element of socialization. It determines his behaviour in school.
- ◆ A rebellious attitude towards authority (teacher, principal, peer group) can bring conflicts. Teacher 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.



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 dominant role in converting behaviour in to 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 group.
- ◆ **5. Ethical and Moral Development: Individuals enhancing his feelings of self-esteem** tries to develop those attitudes that increases his values and ideals.



Theories of attitude formation

- ◆ Theories of attitude formation
 - ❖ Social learning-
 - ◆ classical conditioning,
 - ◆ instrumental conditioning,
 - ◆ observational learning,
 - ◆ role of social comparison



- ◆ Social learning
- ◆ The process through which we acquire new information, forms of behavior, or attitudes from other people. Such learning occurs through several processes.
- ◆ classical conditioning,
- ◆ instrumental conditioning,
- ◆ observational learning,
- ◆ role of social comparison



- ◆ **classical conditioning-** learning based on association

- ◆ A basic form of learning in which one stimulus, initially neutral acquires the capacity to evoke reactions through repeated pairing with another stimulus. In a sense, one stimulus become a signal for the presentation or occurrence of the other.

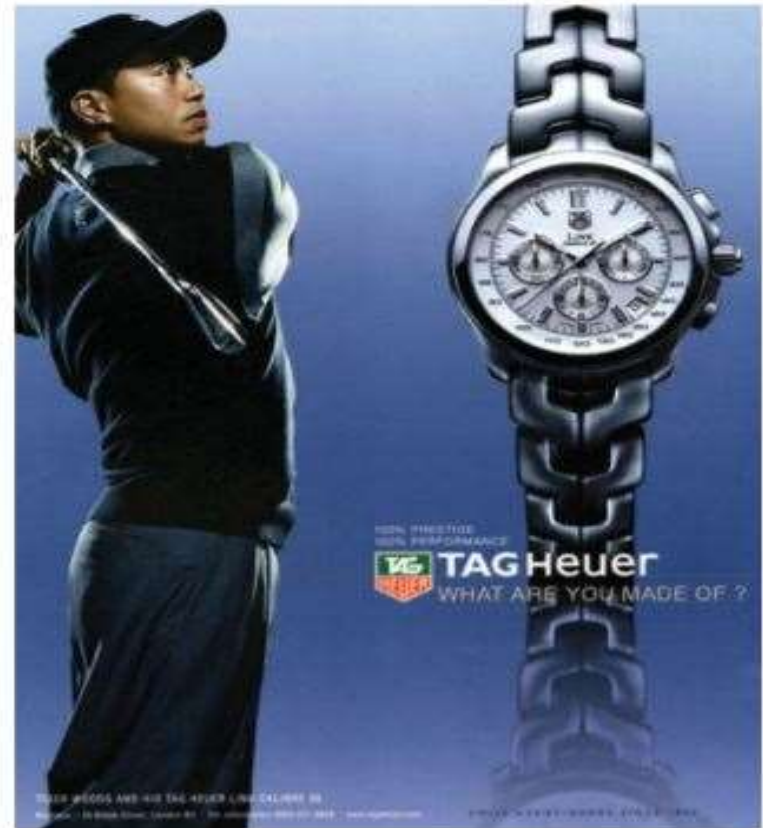


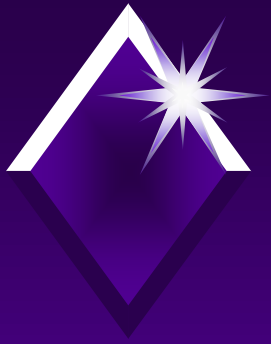
FIGURE 5.7 Classical Conditioning of Attitudes—The Indirect Route

The manufacturers of these watches hope that by repeatedly pairing Tiger Woods with their product, a memory link between that celebrity and the product will be created. If the link formed in memory is sufficiently strong, then whenever consumers think of that celebrity, their watch brand name will come to mind.



- ◆ unconditioned stimulus A stimulus that evokes a positive or negative response without substantial learning.
- ◆ conditioned stimulus The stimulus that comes to stand for or signal a prior unconditioned stimulus.

Not only can classical conditioning contribute to shaping our attitudes—it can do so even though we are not aware of the stimuli that serve as the basis for this kind of conditioning. For instance, in one experiment (Krosnick, Betz, Jussim, & Lynn, 1992), students saw photos of a stranger engaged in routine daily activities such as shopping in a grocery store or walking into her apartment. While these photos were shown, other photos known to induce either positive or negative feelings were exposed for very brief periods of time—so brief that participants were not aware of their presence. Participants who were nonconsciously exposed to photos that induced positive feelings (e.g., a newlywed couple, people playing cards and laughing) liked the stranger better than participants who had been exposed to photos that nonconsciously induce negative feelings (e.g., open-heart surgery, a werewolf). Even though participants were not aware that they had been exposed to the second group of photos because they were presented very briefly, the photos did significantly influence the attitudes that were formed toward the stranger. Those exposed to the positive photos reported more favorable attitudes toward this person than those exposed to the negative photos. These findings suggest that attitudes can be influenced by **subliminal conditioning**—classical conditioning that occurs in the absence of conscious awareness of the stimuli involved.



- ◆ These findings suggest that attitudes can be influenced by subliminal conditioning—classical conditioning that occurs in the absence of conscious awareness of the stimuli involved.



- ◆ Indeed, mere exposure—having seen an object before, but too rapidly to remember having seen it—can result in attitude formation (Bornstein & D’Agostino, 1992).
- ◆ It is also the case that even when we can remember being exposed to information, its mere repetition creates a sense of familiarity and results in more positive attitudes.
- ◆ Moons, Mackie, and GarciaMarques (2009) refer to this as the illusion of truth effect.



The studies by these researchers revealed that more positive attitudes developed following exposure to either weak or strong arguments—as long as little detailed message processing occurred.

- ◆ Although this has substantial implications for the likely impact of advertising on the attitudes we form— as a result of merely hearing the message repeated—it is good to know that this effect can be overcome when people are motivated to and able to process extensively the message



- ◆ Mere exposure :By having seen before, but not necessarily remembering having done so, attitudes toward an object can be formed.
- ◆ Illusion of truth effect: The mere repetition of information creates a sense of familiarity and more positive attitudes



Instrumental conditioning

- ◆ A basic form of learning in which response that lead to positive outcomes or that permit avoidance of negative outcomes are strengthened.
- ◆ Rewarding children with smiles, approval or hugs for right views.
- ◆ social networks -Composed of individuals with whom we have interpersonal relationships and interact with on a regular basis.



Observational learning

- ◆ A basic form of learning in which individuals acquire new forms of behavior as a result of observing others.
- ◆ Third-person effect- Effect that occurs when the impact of media exposure on others attitudes and behaviours is overestimated and the impact on the self is underestimated.



Role of social comparison

- ◆ The process through which we compare ourselves to others in order to determine whether our views of social reality are or are not correct.
- ◆ Reference groups- Groups of people with whom we identify and whose opinions we value



Attitude functions

- ◆ Why we form attitudes in the first place
- ◆ Mere exposure effect- by having seen an object previously, but not necessarily remembering having done so, attitudes toward an object can become more positive. so attitude can be viewed as automatic reactions to the world around us.
- ◆ **Functions**
- ◆ The knowledge functions of attitude
- ◆ The identity or self-expression function
- ◆ The self-esteem function of attitude
- ◆ The ego-defensive function of attitudes
- ◆ The impression motivation function of attitudes



The knowledge functions of attitude

Attitudes aid in the interpretation of new stimuli and enable rapid responding to attitude-relevant information.



The identity or self-expression function

- ◆ Attitudes can permit the expression of central values and beliefs and thereby communicate who we are.



The self-esteem function of attitude

- ◆ Function in which holding particular attitudes can help maintain or enhance feelings of self worth.



The ego-defensive function of attitudes

- ◆ Protection of ourselves from unwanted or unflattering views of ourselves by claiming particular attitude.



The impression motivation function of attitudes

- ◆ Attitudes can be used to lead others to have a positive view of ourselves.
- ◆ When motivated to do so , the attitudes we express can shift in order to create the desired impression on others.



Attitude Structure

- ◆ There are a number of different views about what an attitude is:
 - ◆ an affective orientation toward, or evaluation of, an attitude object (one-component model, socio-cognitive model); (Feeling)
 - ◆ a mental readiness to act and a guide for how to respond and guides our evaluations (two-component model); (Thought and feeling)
 - ◆ or a combination of information about, and feelings and behavioural intentions toward, an object (three-component model). (Thought, Feeling and Action/Behaviour)

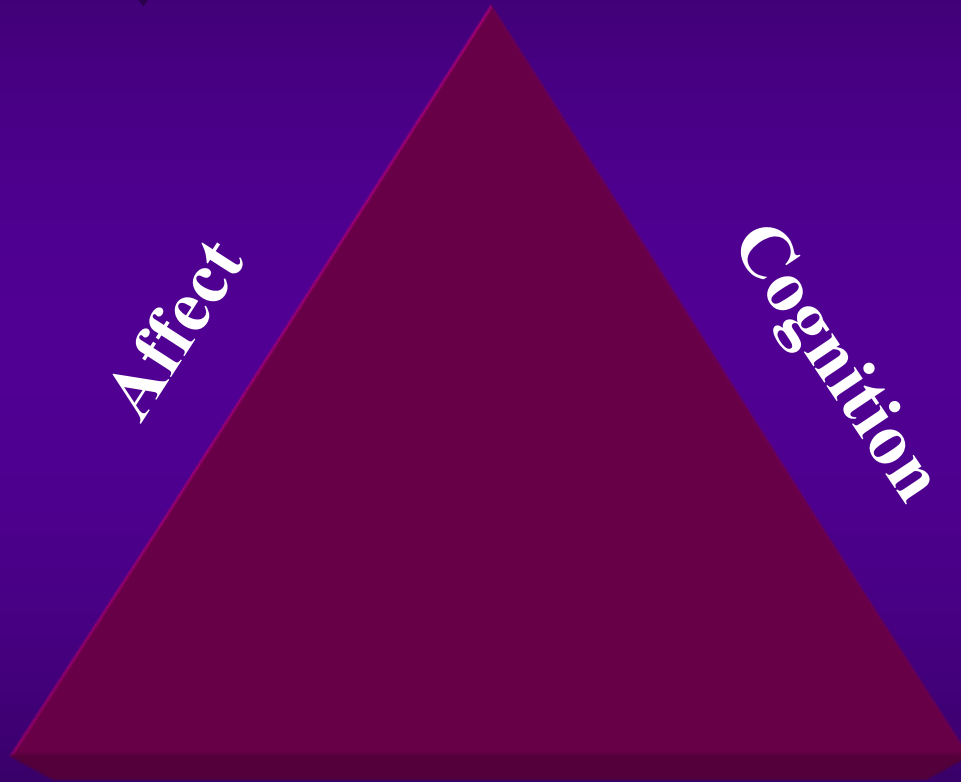


Structure

- ◆ The three-component model is probably most popular. Generally, attitudes are useful because they are enduring and they provide a cognitive and affective orientation toward objects and thus help us pursue goal-directed thought and action.



Attitude Structure



Behavior

Gun Control

Affect: “Guns make me sick!”

Behavior: “I vote for gun control whenever possible.”

Cognition: “Guns in the house increase the likelihood of children accidentally shooting themselves.”



Attitude Types

Explicit attitudes: Consciously accessible attitudes that are controllable and easy to report.

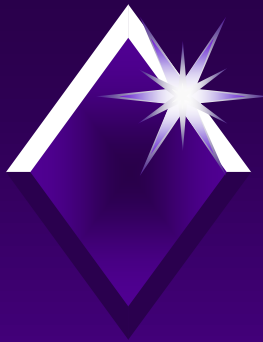
Implicit attitudes : Unconscious associations between objects and evaluative responses. If we want to learn someone's implicit attitudes—that is, attitudes they may be either unwilling or unable to report. A method for assessing these is the **Implicit Association Test (IAT; Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwarz, 1998).**



Why Study Attitudes?

Attitudes are important because they:

- ◆ **strongly influence our social thought**
 - ◆ help to organize and evaluate stimuli (e.g., categorizing stimuli as positive or negative)
- ◆ **presumably have a strong affect on behavior**
 - ◆ help to predict people's behavior in wide range of contexts (e.g., voting, interpersonal relations)



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 some one'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.



Moderators of A-B Link

◆ Aspects of the situation

- ◆ situational constraints (e.g., sparing one's feelings) may prevent us from expressing our true attitudes
- ◆ often we choose situations where we can engage in behaviors consistent with our attitudes

◆ Aspects of attitudes

- ◆ origins- how attitudes were formed
- ◆ strength- intensity, importance, accessibility
- ◆ specificity- general vs. specific



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.



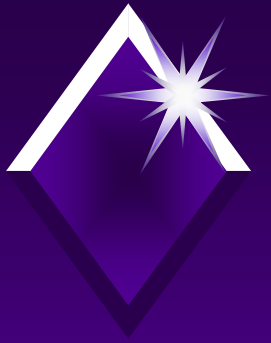
- ◆ Lapiere studied the relation of attitude and behaviour by travelling with a young Chinese couple.
- ◆ His results indicated a sizable gap between attitudes and behaviour between what people say and what they actually do.
- ◆ Attitude do not strongly influence overt behaviour.
- ◆ Accordingly to some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



- ◆ **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 relationship between attitudes and behaviour.

Do Attitudes Predict Behavior?

- LaPierre (1934): The attitude-behavior problem.
 - In a classic study, LaPierre (1934) drove through the U.S. with a Chinese couple. They stopped at over 250 restaurants and hotels and were refused service only once. Several months later, the owners were surveyed on whether they would serve Chinese people. The response was overwhelmingly negative, 92 percent of those surveyed said that they would not. In this case, **clearly**, their behavior gave less evidence of racial bias than their expressed attitudes did.
 - Different time...about six months later.
 - Different people
 - Chinese couple spoke flawless English; accompanied by Stanford professor.



- ◆ 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 shape the extent to which attitudes can be expressed.
- ◆ (3) when attitudes are powerful and strong.

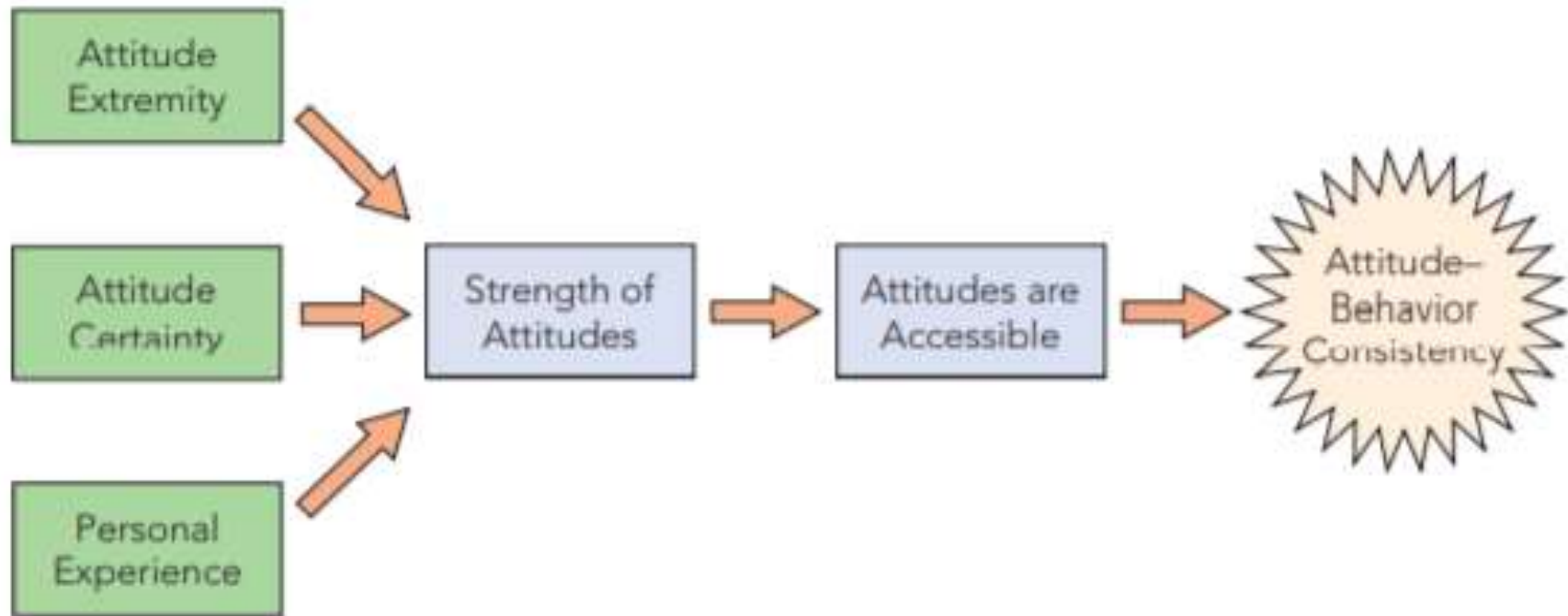


FIGURE 5.11 How Attitude Strength Influences Attitude-Behavior Consistency

Attitudes that are extreme, certain, and formed on the basis of personal experience with the attitude object tend to be strong attitudes, which are more likely to be accessible when a behavioral response is made. Greater attitude-behavior consistency is found when attitudes are strong rather than weak. (Sources: Based on research by Clarkson, Tormala, DeSensi, & Wheeler, 2009; Petrocelli, Tormala, & Rucker, 2007).



Pluralistic ignorance

- ◆ When we collectively misunderstand what attitudes others hold, and believe erroneously that others have different attitudes than ourselves.
- ◆ Pluralistic ignorance, where we erroneously believe others have attitudes different than ourselves)



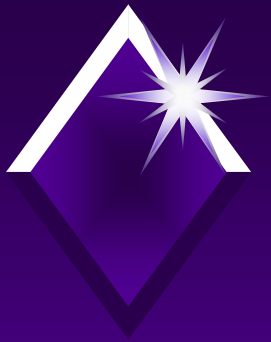
Attitude accessibility

- ◆ The ease with which specific attitudes can be remembered and brought into consciousness.



- ◆ Attitudes are complex cognitive process, 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 provides the attitude.
- ◆ The behavioral intentions describes what the person is inclined to do. The actual behaviour is a function of attitudes and other many factors.
- ◆ Belief of object attitude Behaviour

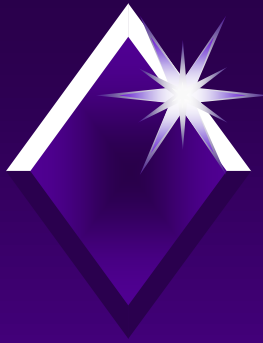




- ◆ In late 1960s, social psychology was experiencing serious crisis. Many studies concluded the fact that the link between attitudes and behaviour is actually quite weak.
- ◆ This means knowing someones attitude was not very useful in predicting their overt behaviour. Later studies support the fact 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.



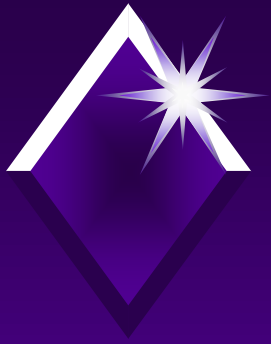
- ◆ There are several aspects of attitudes that guide behaviour :
- ◆ (1) Attitude origin – Evidence indicates that attitudes on basis of direct experience have stronger effects on behaviour.
- ◆ (2) Attitude strength. The stronger the attitudes are, the greater their impact on behaviour.
- ◆ (3) Attitude 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 same level of specificity.



How do attitudes guide behavior

- ◆ **Attitude based on reasoned thought**
- ◆ **Theory of reasoned action (Icek Ajzen and Martin Fishbein , 1980)**

A theory suggesting that the decision to engage in a particular behavior is the result of rational process in which behavioral options are considered , consequences or outcomes of each are evaluated and a decision is reached to act or not to act. That decision is then reflected in behavioral intentions, which strongly influence overt behavior.



- ◆ In some situations we give careful, deliberate thought to our attitudes and their implications for our behavior.
- ◆ Insight into the nature of this process is provided by the theory of **Reasoned action**, which was later refined and termed the theory of **Planned behavior** (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980).

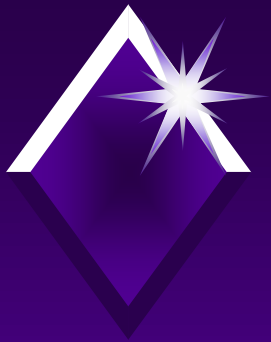


Theory of planned behavior

- ◆ An extension of the theory of reasoned action, suggesting that in addition to attitudes toward a given behavior and subjective norms about it, individuals also consider their ability to perform the behavior.
- ◆ Intentions are determined by three factors
- ◆ 1, positive or negative evaluations
- ◆ 2, subjective norms
- ◆ 3, perceived behavior control



- ◆ Recent research has made it clear that the intention–behavior relationship is even stronger when people have formed a plan for how and when they will translate their intentions into behavior (Frye & Lord, 2009; Webb & Sheeran, 2007)



- ◆ Suppose, for example, that you form the intention to go to the gym to work out. If you develop a plan for how you will translate your intention into actual behavior—beginning with setting your alarm, preparing your exercise clothes, and so forth—you will be more likely to succeed at doing so.



◆ In my own case, because I formed the intention to walk three mornings a week, I made a commitment to do so with my next-door neighbor. The reason why this is a particularly effective implementation plan is that I no longer have to assess whether I really want to go out today—in the cold, rain, or whatever, or rely on having my attitude toward getting more exercise be accessible at that time of the morning.



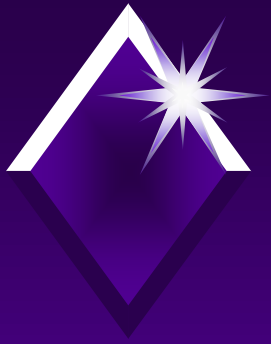
- ◆ As Gollwitzer (1999) has noted, such a plan to implement our intentions is very effective because it involves delegating control of one's behavior to the situation—in my case, my alarm clock beeping and, if that hasn't worked, my neighbor ringing my doorbell!



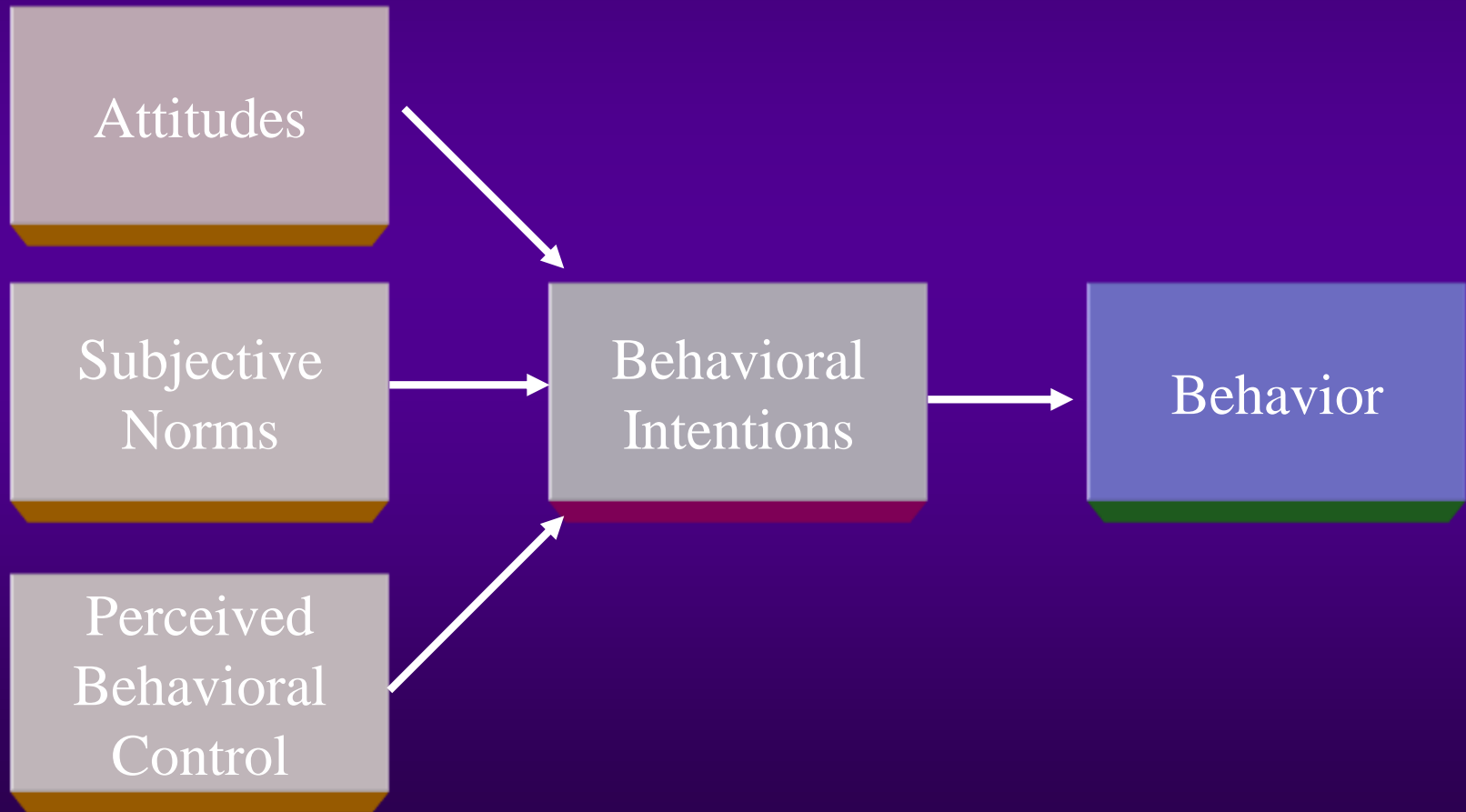
- ◆ According to the theory, intentions are determined by two factors:
- ◆ Attitudes toward the behavior—people’s positive or negative evaluations of performing the behavior (whether they think it will yield positive or negative consequences),
- ◆ and subjective norms—people’s perceptions of whether others will approve or disapprove of this behavior.



- ◆ . A third factor, perceived behavioral control— people’s appraisals of their ability to perform the behavior—was subsequently added to the theory (Ajzen, 1991)



Theory of Planned Behavior



Suppose an adolescent male is considering joining Facebook. Will he actually take action, find the website, and go through the process of joining up? First, the answer will depend on his intentions, which will be strongly influenced by his attitude toward Facebook. His decision of whether to join or not will also be based on perceived norms and the extent to which he feels able to execute the decision. If the teen believes that becoming a member will be relatively painless and it will make him look more sociable (he has positive attitudes toward the behavior), he also believes that people whose opinions he values will approve of this action (subjective norms), and that he can readily do it (he knows how to access Facebook, upload some photos, and he believes he can control how much of his private data is exposed), his intentions to carry out this action may be quite strong. On the other hand, if he believes that joining Facebook might be dangerous because of the exposure of private data, joining might not really lead to more interaction with friends, or his friends will disapprove of his joining, then his intention to join will be relatively weak. His intentions are more likely to translate into behavior if he formulates a plan for when and how to join (e.g., "On Friday when I get done with school, I'll access the Facebook website and join up"). Of course, even the best of intentions can be thwarted by situational factors (e.g., an emergency that he has to attend to comes up on Friday), but, in general, intentions are an important predictor of behavior.



- ◆ Reasoned action and planned behavior ideas have been used to predict behavior in many settings, with considerable success



Attitude and Spontaneous behaviour reactions

- ◆ Attitude to behavior process model(Fazio, 1989)
- ◆ A model of how attitudes guide behavior that emphasizes the influence of attitudes and stored knowledge of what is appropriate in a given situation on an individuals definition of present situation. This in turns influences overt behavior.




Our ability to predict behavior in situations where people have the time and opportunity to reflect carefully on various possible actions that they might undertake is quite good. However, in many situations, people have to act quickly and their reactions are more spontaneous. Suppose another driver cuts in front of you on the highway without signaling. In such cases, attitudes seem to influence behavior in a more direct and seemingly automatic manner, with intentions playing a less important role



- ◆ This event triggers your attitude toward people who engage in such dangerous and discourteous behavior and, at the same time, your understanding of how people are expected to behave on expressways. As a result, you perceive this behavior as non-normative, which influences your definition of and your response to that event.



- ◆ You might think, “Who does this person think he/she is? What nerve!” or, perhaps your response is more situational, “Gee, this person must be in a big hurry.” Whichever of these interpretations of the event is given, it will shape the individual’s behavior. Several studies provide support for this perspective on how attitudes can influence behavior by affecting the interpretation given to the situation



◆ In short, attitudes affect our behavior through at least two mechanisms, and these operate under somewhat contrasting conditions.

◆ When we have time to engage in careful, reasoned thought, we can weigh all the alternatives and decide how we will act. Under the hectic conditions of everyday life, however, we often don't have time for this kind of deliberate weighing of alternatives, and often people's responses appear to be much faster than such deliberate thought processes can account for. In such cases, our attitudes seem to spontaneously shape our perceptions of various events—often with very little conscious cognitive processing



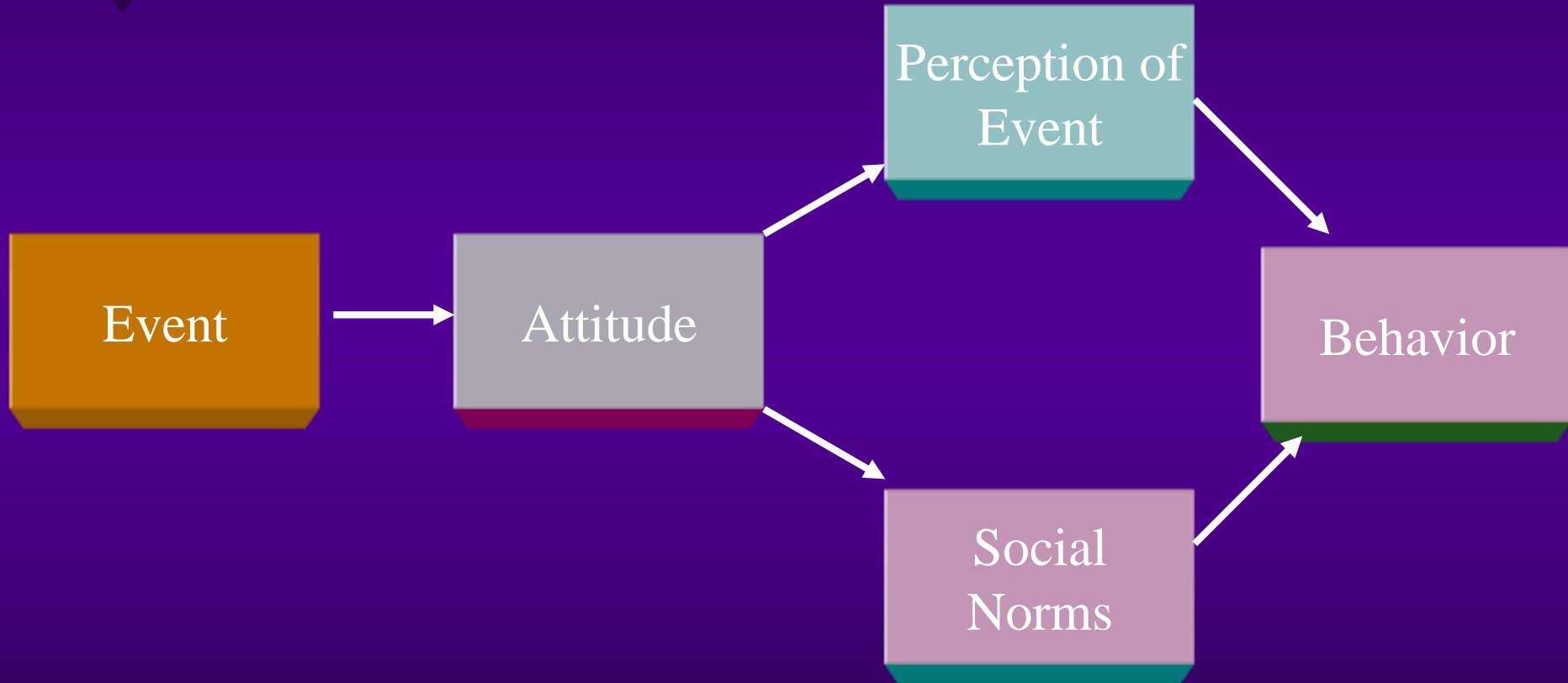
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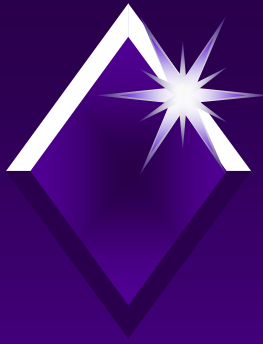


- ◆ Habit - Repeatedly performing a specific behavior so responses become relatively automatic whenever that situation is encountered.



Attitude to Behavior Process Model





Attitude and Risky behaviour


- ◆ **Prototype/willingness model (risky)**
 - ◆ behavior is a function of attitudes toward behavior, subjective norms, behavior intentions, willingness to engage in specific form of behavior, and prototypes



◆ The Prototype – Willingness Model (PWM) (Figure 1), developed by Gibbons, Gerrard and colleagues (Gibbons, Gerrard, Blanton, & Russel, 1998; Gibbons, Gerrard, & McCoy, 1995), is used in order to give reasons for the risk aspects of decisions that are made related to the behaviour in adolescents (Todd, Kothe, Mullan, & Monds, 2014).



- ◆ A special feature of the PWM is that it uses two different information-processing pathways for the analysis of behaviour (Hammer & Vogel, 2013).
- ◆ On the one hand a reasoned pathway, which is determined by intentions and deals with the determinants attitude and subjective norm. These variables predict intention to engage in that behaviour, and intention subsequently predicts actual behaviour (Todd, Kothe, Mullan, & Monds, 2014)

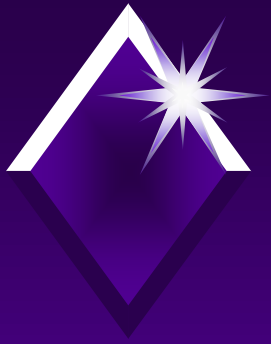


◆ On the other hand, there is the social reactive pathway that affects one's behaviour through willingness (Hammer & Vogel, 2013).

- ◆ More specifically, this pathway is about the variables 'prototypes' and 'willingness'.
- ◆ According to Elliott et.al, the prototype perceptions can be defined as “positive or negative valences that are attached to the cognitive representations that people hold for the typical members of social categories” (Elliott et. al, 2017).



Moreover, there are two different kinds of prototype perceptions, namely on the one side, the prototype favourability perception, which refers to one's evaluation either positively or negatively towards the prototype. On the other side, there is the prototype similarity perception that is related to the particular degree of likeness, one has the belief to show or have towards the prototype (Elliott et. al, 2017).



- ◆ According to Gibbsons et al. (1998), intentions are related to planned behaviours, thus an active engagement with a risky behaviour that is often based on a process where one has thought of and reasoned, until deciding to finally engage in a certain risk behaviour (Gerrard et. al, 2005).



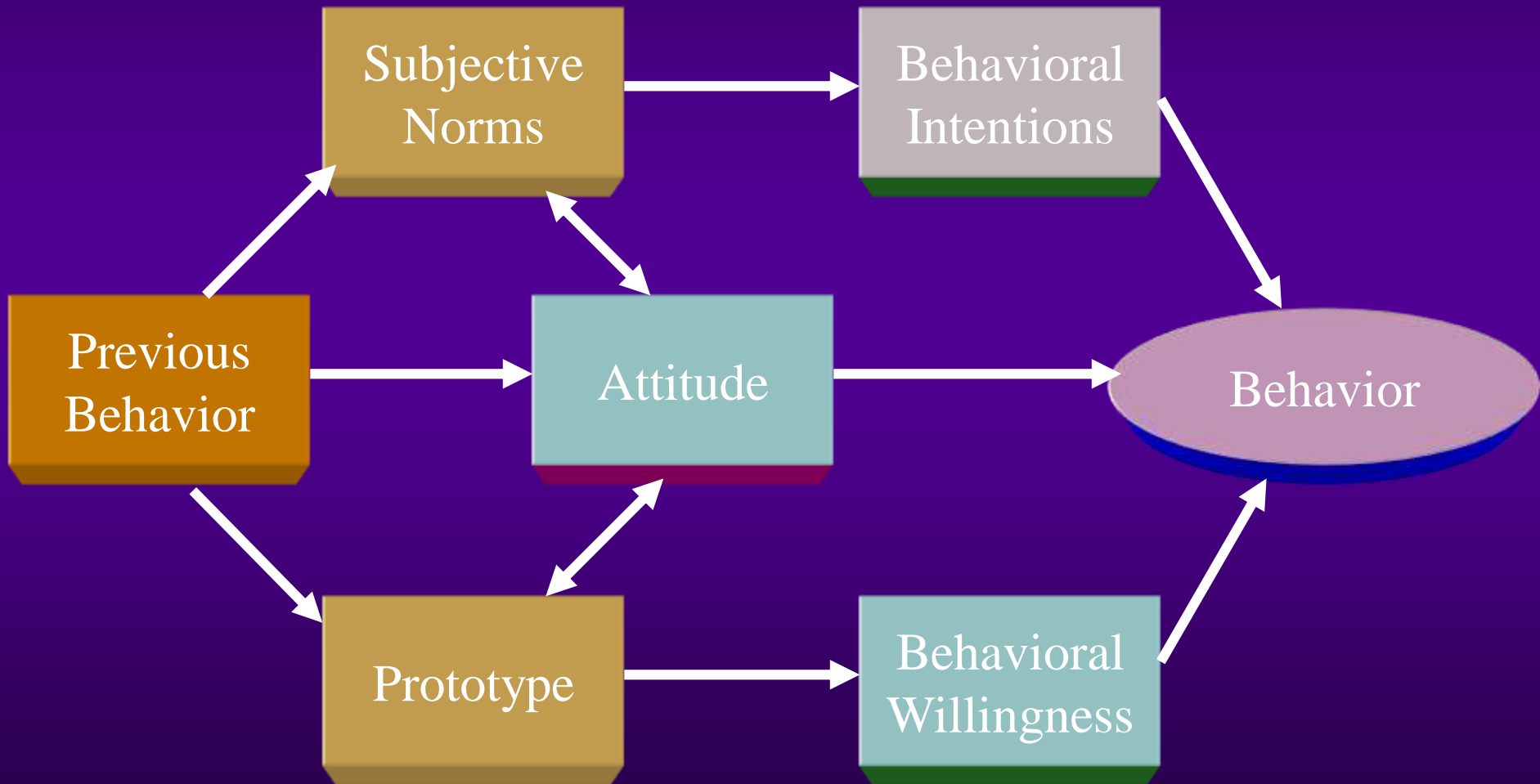
- ◆ Willingness, as opposed to intentions, deals with an unplanned action and the conduction of a certain behaviour when there is an opportunity offered.



- ◆ So, for example, a youngster, who does not smoke, goes to a party where a lot of people do smoke. Such a situation indirectly increases the tendency for him/her to smoke, thus it is one's willingness to show a certain openness to take a risk which leads to the final behaviour (Gerrard et. al, 2005).



Prototype/Willingness Model



GROUPS & SOCIAL INFLUENCE

Group



GROUPS

- Definitions:

two or more people who:

- interact with each other directly or indirectly
- share common goals/share norms
- have a stable relationship
- are interdependent
- perceive they are part of a group

***not a collection of people in a lobby, street corner,
or elevator (Baron & Byrne)***

- McDavid and Harrari defined group in 1968 as "an organized system of two or more individuals who are interrelated so that the system performs some function, has a standard set of role relationships among its members, and has a set of norms that regulate the function of the group and each of its members."

- A group is a social unit consisting of a number of individuals who stand in role and status of relationship to one another, stabilizing in some degree at the time and who process a set of values or norms of their own behavior, at least, in matter of consequences to the group.(Sherif and sherif)

- Fielder (1967) defined a group as " by a group we, generally , mean set of individuals who share a common fate , that is who are inter dependent in the sense that an event which affects one member is likely to affect all "

Group Formation and Function

- **People join groups to:**
 - satisfy important needs (e.g., belonging, safety)
 - reach goals they cannot achieve alone
 - boost their self-identity
- **Groups function through:**
 - roles- expected behavior for different positions
 - status- social standing within group
 - norms- rules for behaving within group
 - cohesiveness- forces that cause members to stay in group (attraction, desire for status)

- Cooley (1909) drew a distinction between primary and secondary groups
- Types of groups:
 - Primary
 - Secondary
 - Planned (concocted and founded)
 - Emergent (circumstantial and self-organizing)

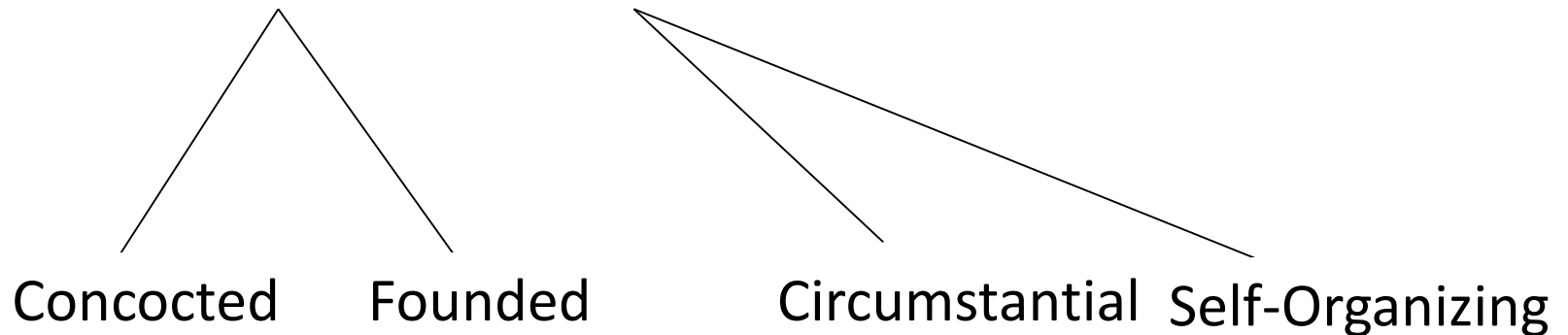
Social Groups - Types

Type of Group	Characteristics	Examples
Primary groups	Small, long-term groups characterized by face-to-face interaction & high levels of cohesiveness, solidarity, & member identification	Families, close friends, tight-knit peer groups, gangs, elite military squads
Secondary groups	Larger, less intimate, more goal-focused groups typical of more complex societies	Congregations, work groups, unions, professional associations

(Cooley, 1909)

Types of Groups

- Arrow and her colleagues (2000) offer a more fine-grained analysis
- **planned vs. emergent**



Type of Group	Characteristics	Examples
Planned groups	Deliberately formed by the members themselves or by an external authority, usually for some specific purpose or purposes	
Concocted	Planned by individuals or authorities outside the group.	Production lines, military units, task forces, crews, professional sports teams
Founded	Planned by one or more individuals who remain within the group	Study groups, small businesses, clubs, associations
Emergent groups	Groups that form spontaneously as individuals find themselves repeatedly interacting with the same subset of individuals over time and settings	
Circumstantial	Emergent, unplanned groups arising when external, situational forces set the stage for people to join together, often only temporarily, in a unified group	Waiting lines (queues), crowds, mobs, audiences, bystanders
Self-organizing	Emerge when interacting individuals gradually align their activities in a cooperative system of interdependence.	Study groups, friendship cliques in a workplace, regular patrons at a bar

- Primary vs. Secondary
- Formal vs. Informal
- In group Vs Out group
- Membership vs. Reference

Reference groups can indirectly influence an individual's cognitions, affective responses, and behaviors.

Usually positive in nature

The many types of reference groups include formal, informal, primary, secondary, membership, and aspirational

Type of Group	Characteristics	Examples
Intimacy groups	Small groups of moderate duration & permeability characterized by large levels of interaction amongst members, who value membership in the group	Families, romantic couples, close friends, street gangs
Task groups	Work groups in employment settings and goal-focused groups in a variety of non-employment situations	Teams, neighborhood associations
Weak associations	Aggregations of individuals that form spontaneously, last for brief periods, and have very permeable boundaries	Crowds, audiences, clusters of bystanders
Social categories	Aggregations of individuals similar to one another in terms of gender, ethnicity, religion, or nationality.	Women, Asian ,Indian physicians, U.S. citizens, New Yorkers

- Accidental : When group is formed accidentally or unknowingly that too without any purpose.
- Purposive : The group which is made for a definite reason or aim of task fulfillment.

- Voluntary vs Involuntary group: types of groups of which we are part of either by choice nor not by choice , e.g. involuntary-family ,voluntary- labor union

- Open group: The group where the new individuals can freely enter and old members can exit anytime, is known as an open group.
- Closed group: The restricted group where no further entries are entertained, is called as a closed group.

- Common bond groups - . In common-bond groups, which tend to involve face-to-face interaction among members, the individuals in the group are bonded to each other. Examples of these kinds of groups include the players on a sports team, friendship groups, and work teams.
- Common identity groups-Face-to-face interaction is often absent, and the members are linked together via the category as a whole rather than each other.

- Temporary group: When the individuals come together for a particular project or task accomplishment, they are known to be in a temporary group. Such a group disintegrates after the successful performance of the task.
- Permanent group: Such groups represent a long-term association of the group members. Here, people belonging to a particular organization are known to be in a single group.

- A 'contiguous group' is based on physical contiguity, as a crowd that has collected to render help to certain persons in distress. It is also 'transitory' in the sense that it collects and then disperses.
- A 'non-contiguous' group is a collection of individuals who are unified by certain ideals or beliefs, like persons belonging to an ethnic group or a particular religion, but living in different parts of the world.

- Organized group: When the individuals belonging to a particular discipline work together systematically as a team by supporting each other, they are said to be in an organized group.
- Unorganized group: The disorganized group is not formed purposefully. Instead, the individuals just happened to fall into a single group where they neither have any attachment to one another nor have any belongingness.

- Nominal group: The group in which the members are involved in problem-solving, take up challenges and carry out operations, is termed as a nominal group.
- Non performing group: Whenever the individuals are put together in a single group, just on a sheet of paper; however, they need not carry out any task, they tend to be in a non-performing group.

-

COMMON CHARACTERISTICS

- **Interaction:** task and relationship
- **Interdependence:** sequential, reciprocal, mutual
- **Structure:** roles, norms, relations
- **Goals:** generating, choosing, negotiating, executing

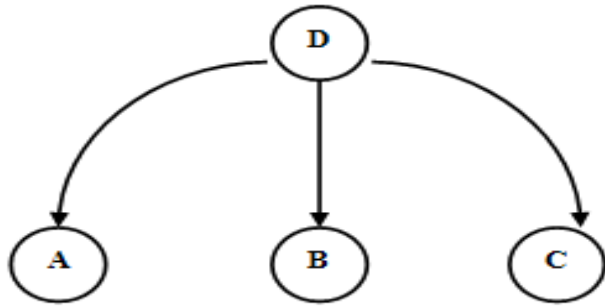
Characteristics of Groups - Interaction

- Groups are systems that create, organize, and sustain interaction among members
- *Task Interaction* – actions performed by individuals pertaining to group's tasks and goals
- *Relationship Interaction* – actions performed by the group relating to emotional and interpersonal bonds

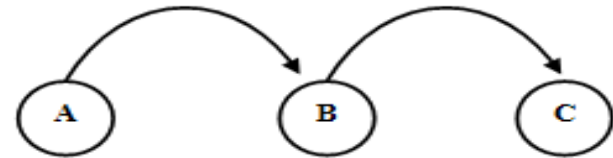
Characteristics of Groups - Interdependence

- Experiences are determined by other members of the group and vice versa
- *Sequential* – influence of one member to the next.
- *Reciprocal* – two or more members may influence each other
- *Multilevel* – the outcome of larger groups are influenced by the activities of smaller groups

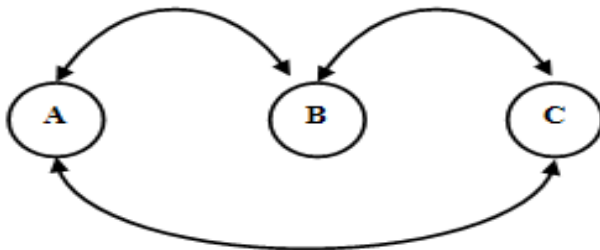
Interdependence Diagram



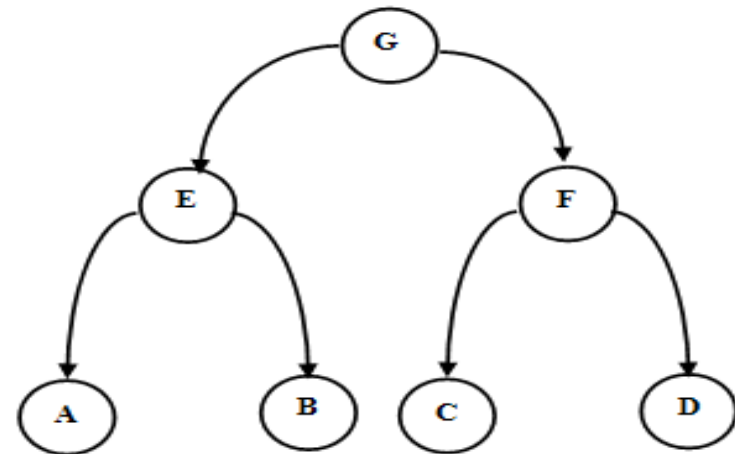
**Unilateral
Interdependence**



**Sequential
Interdependence**



**Mutual, Reciprocal
Interdependence**



**Multi-level
Interdependence**

Characteristics of Groups - Structure

- Groups' structure are often organized in predictable patterns
- *Roles* – set of behaviours expected of people who occupy certain positions
- *Norms* – a consensual standard that describes what behaviours should and should not be performed in a given context

- Group structure studied through *Sociometric method* – Moreno
- 1) Isolates: members of groups not accepted by other members. They tend to leave the group under pressure

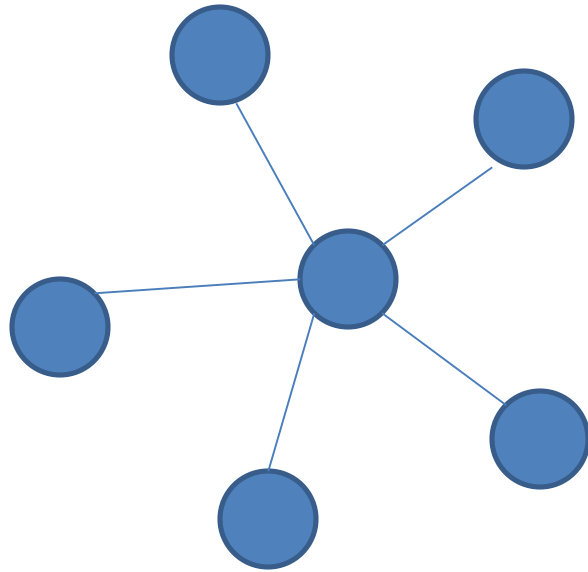
2) Paires : groups of two who are mutually attracted eg: face to face group

3) Chains

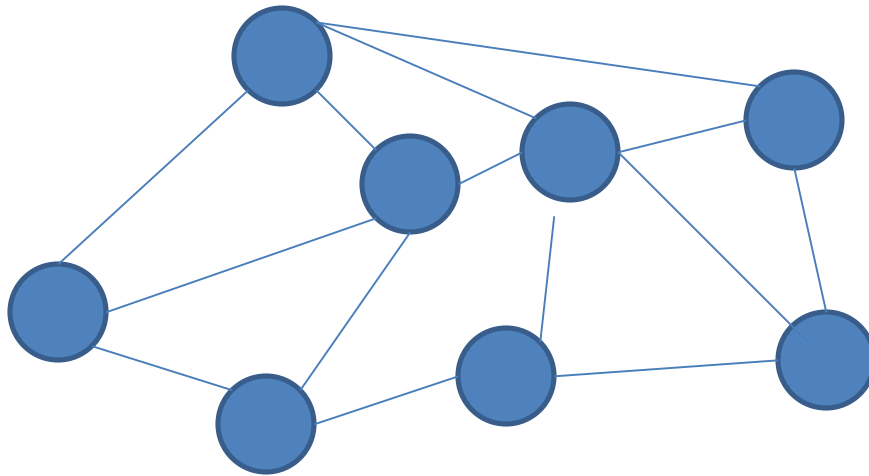
One member does not know the other members directly but only indirectly through other member



4) Star : large grouping may form star pattern.
it is a an authoritarian group stucture

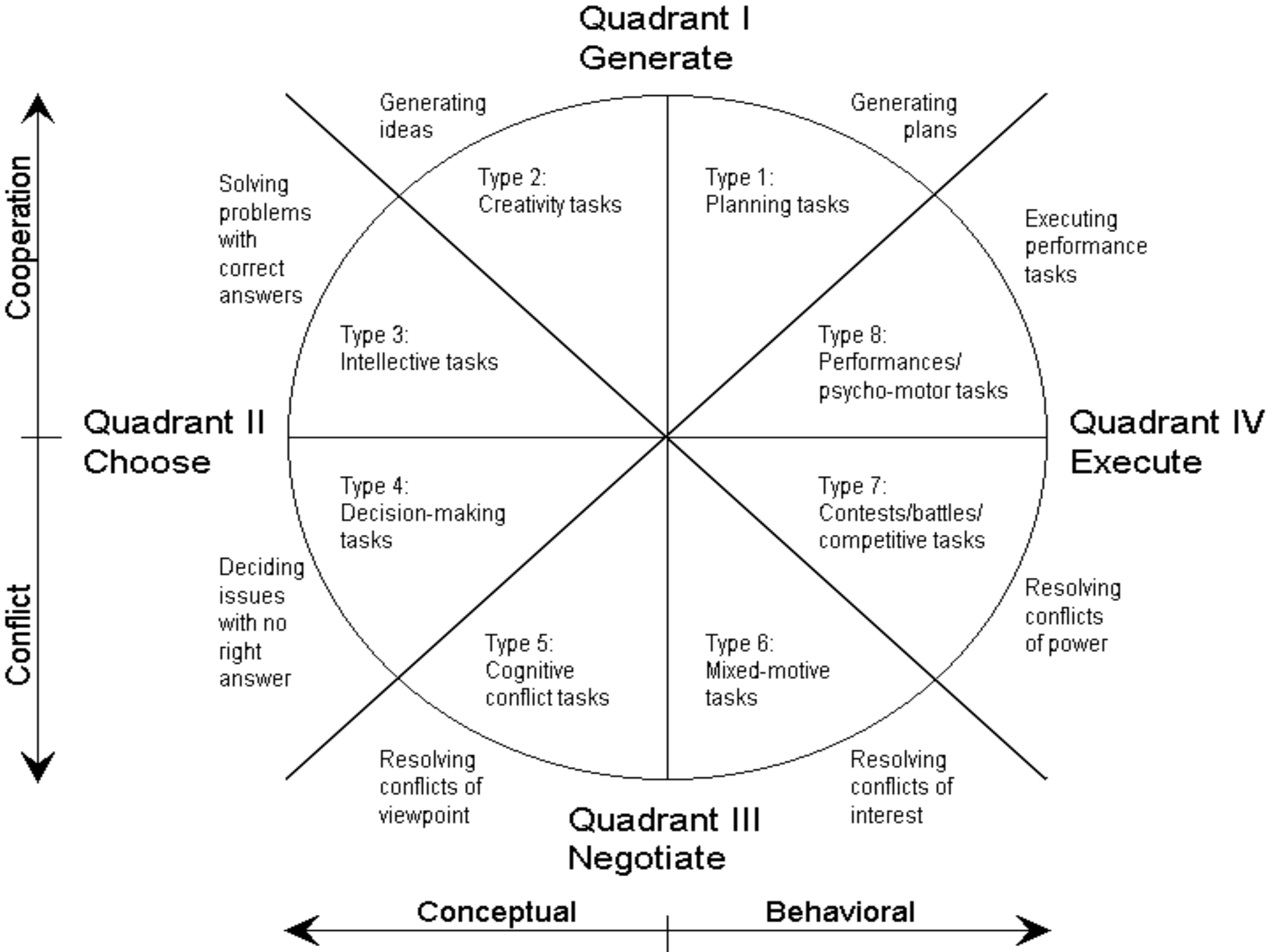


5) Net: members have link with many members.
They have the freedom to select many leaders
according to their wish



Characteristics of Groups - Goals

- Groups often strive towards some common outcome
- McGrath's Circumplex Model of Group Tasks
 - Generating
 - Choosing
 - Negotiation
 - Executing



COHESIVENESS

- **Group Cohesion: the strength of the bonds linking individuals to the group**
- Attraction to specific group members and efforts to achieve goals
- Entitativity (Perception of a group as pure entity) is perceived groupness rather than an aggregation of independent, unrelated individuals

- There is a heightened sense of belonging.
- There is a shared sense of group identity
- Creates a desire to be active, and enthusiastic about the group.
- Motivates members to sacrifice their own individual desires for the good of the group.

Campbell's Theory of Entitativity (1958)

- ❖ *Common Fate* – do individuals experience the same outcomes?
- ❖ *Similarity* – do individual perform similar behaviours or resemble one another
- ❖ *Proximity* – how close together are the individuals in the group

COHESION AS A BOND

- Means – the total field of forces that act on members to remain in the group.
- Similar to the forces of physics, where the forces hold particles of matter together.
- What are some of the forces that hold people in groups despite adversity?

COHESION AS UNITY

- Here the term means the we-ness of the group.
- There is a heightened sense of belonging.
- There is a shared sense of group identity
- Creates a desire to be active, and enthusiastic about the group.
- Motivates members to sacrifice their own individual desires for the good of the group.

COHESION AS ATTRACTION

- Cohesion as a special kind of attraction between members.
- The people in the group like each other.
- The distinction should be made between personal attraction and social attraction.
- Group cohesion corresponds to depersonalized affiliation based on group membership rather than a person liking of one another.

COHESION AS TEAMWORK

- The willingness to work together toward some goal
- There is a sense of personal responsibility to the group effort
- A feeling of letting the group down when failure occurs

COHESION AS MULTIDIMENSIONAL

- Some social scientists argue that cohesion cannot be understood as a single dimension.
- The concept is too complex to be defined as one dimensional.
- There is very little commonality between the cohesion that exists in one group and that of another.
- One group is cohesive because the members like one another, but another group is cohesive because the members work well together.

Social Facilitation

When we perform better?????

a) when alone b) as a group

- Social facilitation refers to the enhancement in task performance that occurs when people work in the presence of others.
- Research has used two different social facilitation conditions:
 - Audience – a condition where the person performs in front of a passive audience.
 - Co-action – a condition where the person performs with others who are performing the same task.

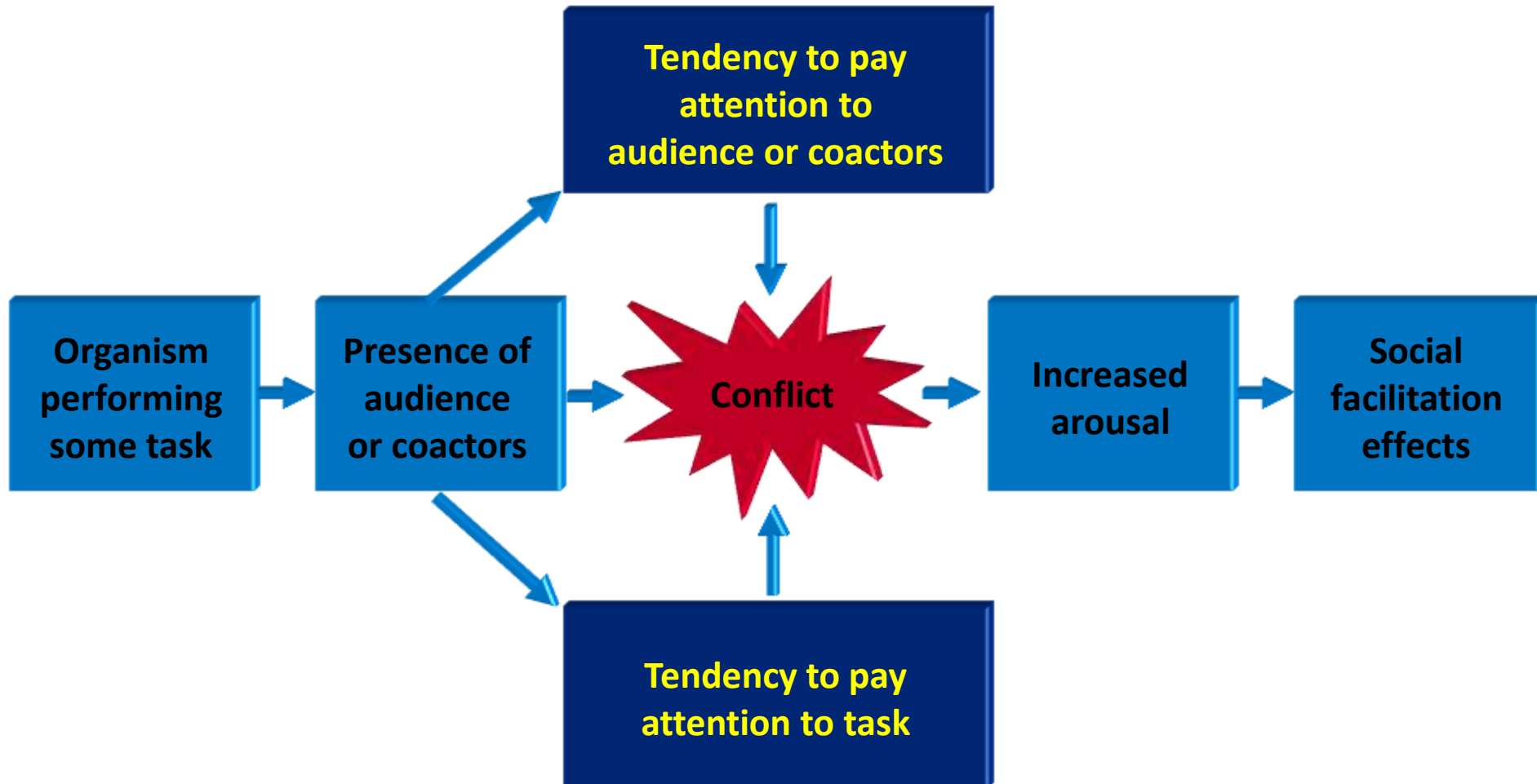
Robert Zajonc: Distraction/Conflict Theory

- Zajonc reviewed the conflicting literature on social facilitation in an attempt to discover the contradictory findings on social facilitation.
- Discovered two distinct types of tasks that were being required to be performed.
 - Dominant tasks – are those that have been practiced by the person to the point of being second nature. No special thought is required to complete the task.
 - Non-dominant tasks – are those that have not been practiced to the point of second nature. Special thought is required to complete the task.

- Performing a task in the presence of others distracts the performer.
 - The distraction creates a “response conflict” for the performer.
 - Who or what should I pay most attention to?
- Dominant tasks can tolerate larger amounts of response conflict.
 - The presence of others increases the level of task concentration by the performer, thus increasing the level of performance (**social facilitation**).
- Non-dominant tasks can only tolerate low levels of response conflict.
 - The presence of others creates a response conflict that can not be over come (decreases task concentration), thus decreasing the level of performance (**social interference**).

Social Facilitation

Distraction-Conflict Theory

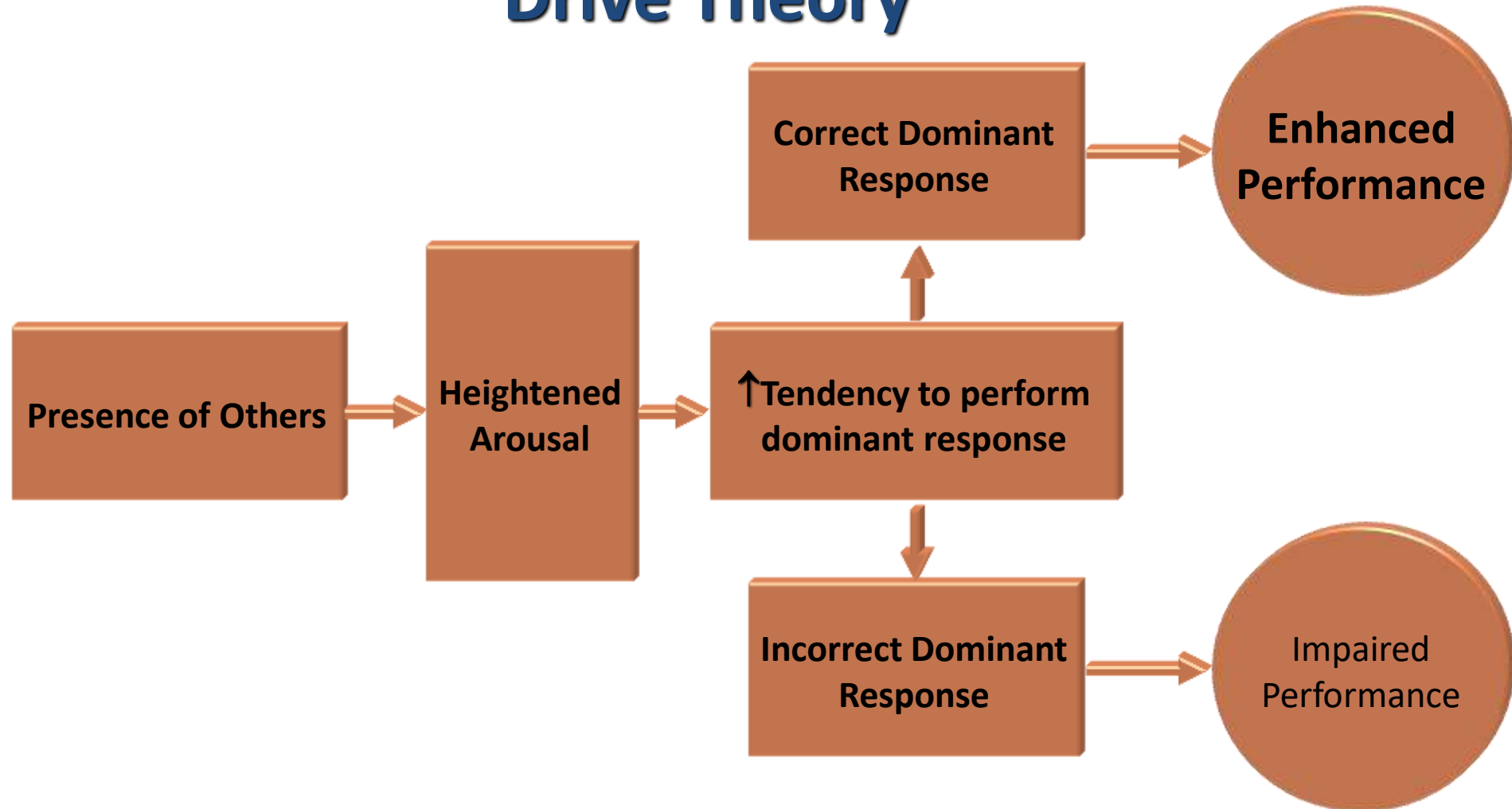


Robert Zajonc – proposed that the mere presence of others will cause either increase or decrease in performance depending on how well the task has been learned .

- This theory suggesting that social facilitation stems from the conflict produced when individuals attempt, simultaneously, to pay attention to other persons and to the task being performed.

Effect audience has on performance

Social Facilitation Drive Theory



- According to Zajonc,(1965) the presence of others , either as an audience or coactors, increases arousal, and this in turn, strengthens the tendency to perform dominant responses. If these responses are correct, performance is enhanced; if they are incorrect, performance is impaired.

- Current research confirms that social facilitation stems from cognitive factors- not just heightened arousal, as Zajonc proposed.
- Influence on task is by inducing narrowed attention focus.

SOCIAL LOAFING

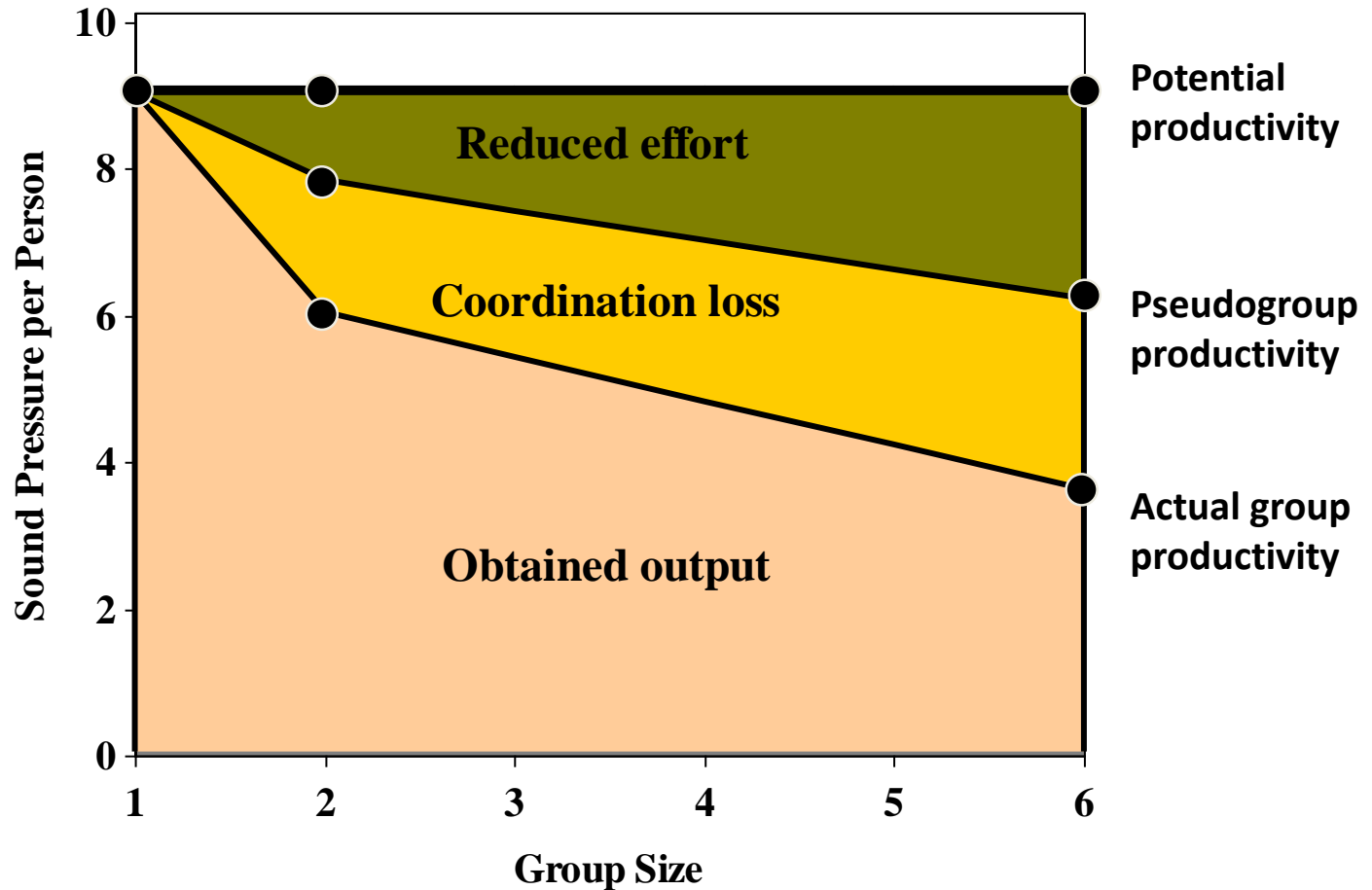
- Do people try less hard when working in groups?
- If so, why do they do so?
- Many hands make light work?????

- Reductions in motivation and effort that occur when individuals work collectively in a group compared with when they work individually as independent coactors (Karau & Williams, 1993)

Tendency to slack off when individual effort cannot be monitored

Social Loafing

Latane', Williams, and Harkins (1979)



- Ringleman Effect --- (e.g., with rope pulling task)



The average performance (input) of individuals decreases as group size increases

- Why?
 - a) Less effort
 - b) Coordination issues

- Max **Ringelmann**, French agricultural Engineer
- Pulling a rope- when as a group pulled with lesser effort
- S L is the decrease in individual effort that occurs when people engage in shared group activity.
- From physical activity to perceptual and mental activity.

Clapping and shouting experiments

- blindfolding male college students while making them wear headphones that masked all noise. They then asked them to shout both in actual groups and pseudogroups in which they shouted alone but believed they were shouting with others. When subjects believed one other person was shouting, they shouted 82% as intensely as they did alone, but with five others, their effort decreased to 74%.

Yelling (& clapping) studies by Latane, Williams, & Harkins

Alone

In actual groups

In pseudo-groups

Less individual effort when in groups, even in “groups” when no one was present (but people thought they were)

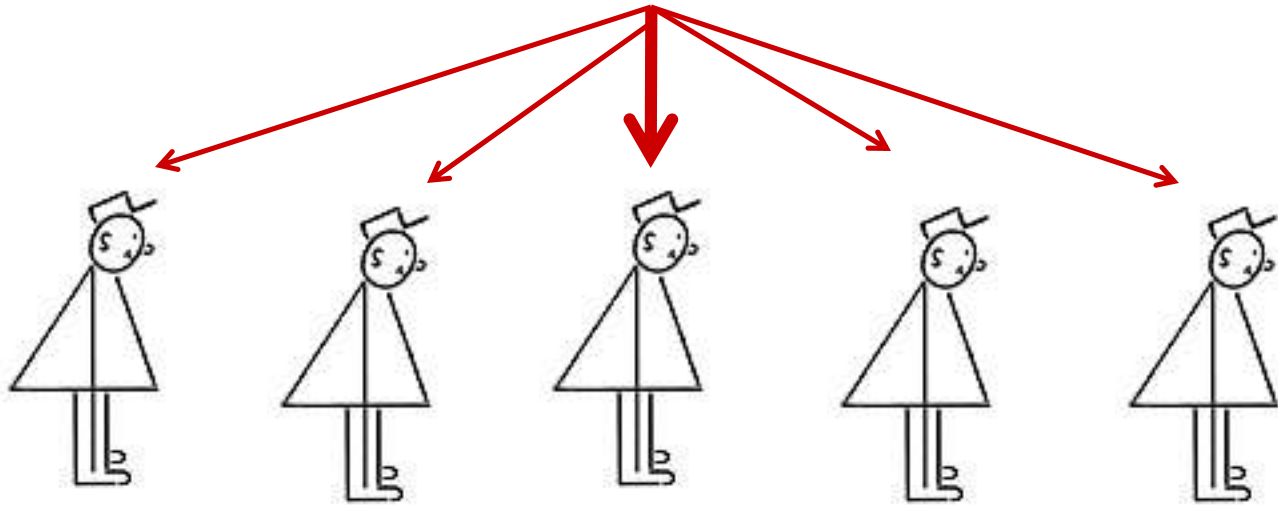


- Latané et al. concluded that increasing the number of people in a group diminished the relative social pressure on each person: "If the individual inputs are not identifiable the person may work less hard. Thus if the person is dividing up the work to be performed or the amount of reward he expects to receive, he will work less hard in groups."

Why less effort (loafing)?

- Expectation that others are trying (or will try) less hard (**equity**)
- Optimizing goal setting, rather than maximizing
- Less social pressure on each individual group member
- Less contingency between individual inputs and outputs (individuals in groups cannot be identified; anonymous)

Social Pressure



Collective Effort Model (CEM)

- 1993 meta-analysis by Karau and Williams, they propose the *Collective Effort Model (CEM)*
- The CEM integrates expectancy theories with theories of group-level social comparison and social identity to account for studies that examine individual effort in collective settings.
- **Collective Effort Model** is an interpretation of social loafing stating that perceived connections between individuals' effort and their results are declining when they function together with others in a group.

- **Collective Effort Model** is, “In psychology, a model proposing that working on tasks as part of a group tends to weaken individual motivation by (1) lowering the individual's expectancy that his or her actions can lead to the attainment of goals and (2) reducing the subjective value of these goals to the individual.”

- Karau et al.'s concluded that social loafing occurred because there was usually a stronger perceived contingency between individual effort and valued outcomes when working individually.

- findings by Karau and Williams following their implementation of the CEM include:
 1. The magnitude of social loafing is reduced for women and individuals originating from Eastern cultures.
 2. Individuals are more likely to loaf when their co-workers are expected to perform well.
 3. Individuals reduce social loafing when working with acquaintances and do not loaf at all when they work in highly valued groups.

Causes of Social Loafing

- **Diffusion of responsibility/Evaluation potential**

People could simply feel "lost in the crowd", so they feel that their effort would not be rewarded even if they put it forth. This idea can also cause people to feel as though they can simply "hide in the crowd" and avoid the averse effects of not applying themselves

- **Motivation**

Karau and Williams (1993, 2001) found that motivation was highest when the individual believed that the goal was easily attainable and very valuable. On the other hand, motivation was lowest when the goal seemed impossible and not at all valuable

- **Dispensability of effort**

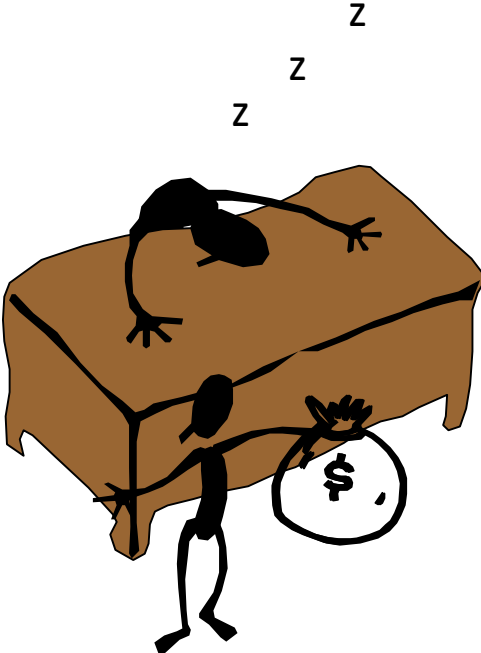
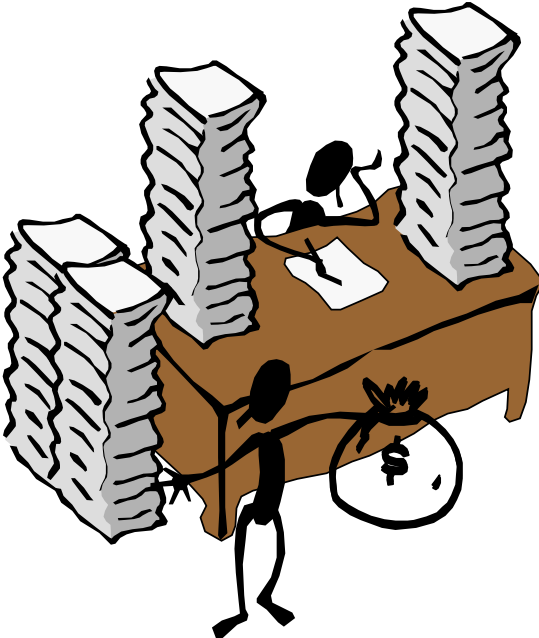
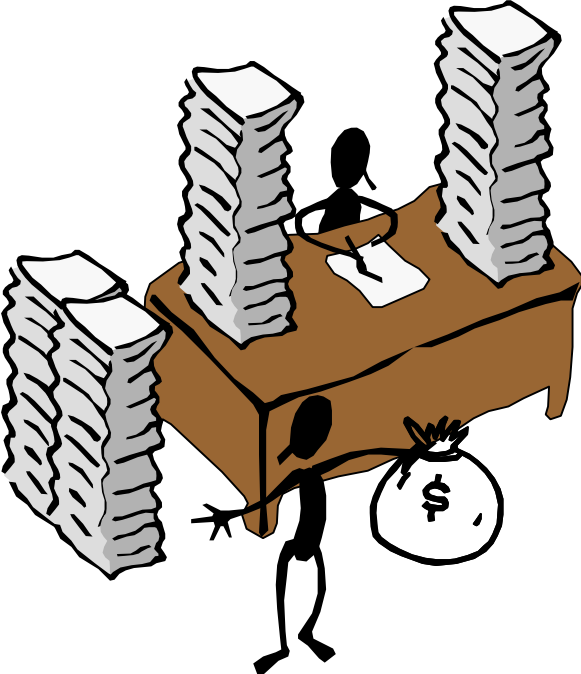
If the group size is large, members can feel that their contribution will not be worth much to the overall cause because so many other contributions can or should occur. This leads people to not contribute as much or at all in large groups as they might have in smaller groups.

- **"Sucker" effect/Aversion**

People feel that others in the group will leave them to do all the work while they take the credit.

For example, in a workplace environment, the establishment of an absence culture creates an attitude that all employees deserve to have a certain number of days of absence, regardless of whether or not they are actually sick. Therefore, if an employee has not used the maximum number of absence days, "he may feel that he is carrying an unfair share of the workload".

Sucker effect



- **Attribution and equity/Matching of effort**

Jackson and Harkins (1985) proposed that if someone feels that others in the group are slacking or that others will slack, he will lower his effort to match that of the others.

- **Submaximal goal setting**

By setting a goal that is based on maximization, people may feel that there is a set level that the group needs to be achieved. Because of this, they feel that they can work less hard for the overall desired effect.

Methods to reduce SL

- 1) Output or effort of each participant readily available
- 2) Increase group members commitment.
- 3) Increasing apparent importance or value of a task
- 4) Individual contribution as unique rather than general.

Motivation strategies	Coordination strategies
Increase identifiability	Using single-digit teams
Promote involvement	Having an agenda
Reward team members for performance	Training team members together
Strengthen team cohesion	Spending more time practicing
Increase personal responsibility	Minimizing links in communication
Use team contracts	Setting clear performance standards
Provide team performance reviews and feedback	

GROUP DECISION MAKING

Stages of group decision making

Orientation



Discussion



Decision



Implementation (Forsyth, 1990)

- Orientation- identify the task to be accomplished and strategies to be used
- Discussion- gather information, identify alternatives, and evaluate them
- Decision- Use implicit or explicit decision-making strategies
- Implementation- Carry out and evaluate decision

Decision-Making in Groups

Social Decision Schemes- rules comparing initial group views to final group decisions

- **majority-wins rule-** group opts for whatever decision majority agreed with initially
- **truth-wins rule-** group eventually accepts correct decision
- **first-shift rule-** groups adopt decision consistent with direction of first shift in opinion

these simple rules predict final outcome 80% of time

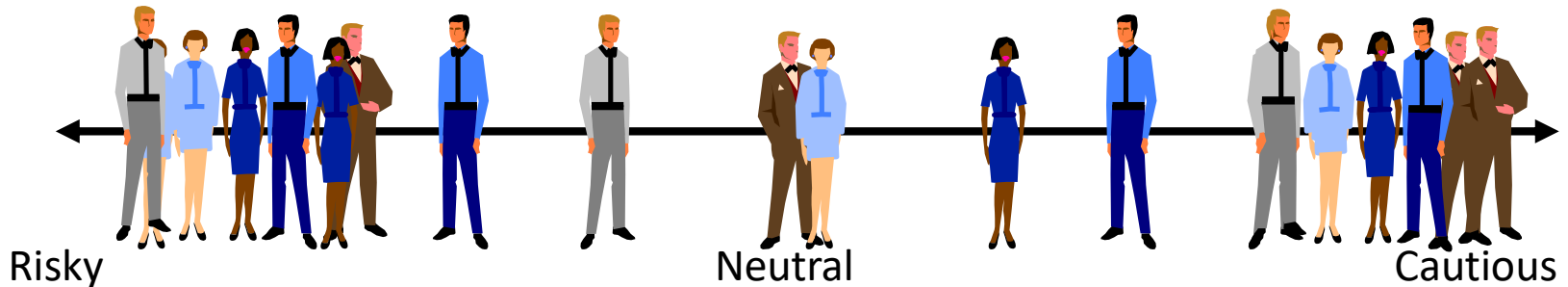
Ways to Improve Group Decision-Making

- Leadership style (impartial, use of outside input)
- **Brainstorming** :group members are asked to produce as many ideas as possible
 - Define the problem
 - Individuals anonymously generate solutions
 - Solutions presented to the group (no evaluation allowed)
 - Group rates solutions
 - Best solution is chosen (vote, consensus)

Production blocking is one danger: only one person can talk at a time

Group Polarization

Group Polarization- tendency to shift toward more extreme positions after group discussion



- Myres & Lamm,(1972): it is the exaggeration of a group's initial tendencies following group discussion.
- ***Risky shift*** : the findings that the groups often make riskier decisions than individuals alone.

- 1) Persuasive arguments theory: through discussion extreme groups produce a pool of novel extreme arguments that persuade members to embrace even more extreme positions.
- 2) Cultural values theory:
people infer from the initial group position what is the culturally valued pole of an attitudinal dimension, and then publicly espouse that pole more strongly in order to gain social approval

3) Self Categorization theory:

members of an initially extreme group generate and conform to an ingroup norm that is subjectively polarized to differentiate ingroup from noningroup

Groupthink

- **Groupthink-** syndrome of bad decision-making
 - high cohesiveness- strong bond
 - emergent group norms (invulnerability, superiority)
 - pressure for group consensus- reject opposing views
- **Failure to pool unshared information**
 - often groups only discuss shared information, thus ignoring hidden (often useful) information

- Groupthink, a term coined by social psychologist Irving Janis (1972), occurs when a group makes faulty decisions because group pressures lead to a deterioration of “mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment”.

- Groups affected by groupthink ignore alternatives and tend to take irrational actions that dehumanize other groups. A group is especially vulnerable to groupthink when its members are similar in background, when the group is insulated from outside opinions, and when there are no clear rules for decision making.

Symptoms of Groupthink

Janis has documented eight symptoms of groupthink:

- **Illusion of invulnerability** – Creates excessive optimism that encourages taking extreme risks.
- **Collective rationalization** – Members discount warnings and do not reconsider their assumptions.
- **Belief in inherent morality** – Members believe in the rightness of their cause and therefore ignore the ethical or moral consequences of their decisions.
- **Stereotyped views of out-groups** – Negative views of “enemy” make effective responses to conflict seem unnecessary.

- **Direct pressure on dissenters** – Members are under pressure not to express arguments against any of the group's views.
- **Self-censorship** – Doubts and deviations from the perceived group consensus are not expressed.
- **Illusion of unanimity** – The majority view and judgments are assumed to be unanimous.
- **Self-appointed 'mindguards'** – Members protect the group and the leader from information that is problematic or contradictory to the group's cohesiveness, view, and/or decisions.

Remedies for Groupthink

- a) The leader should assign the role of critical evaluator to each member
- b) The leader should avoid stating preferences and expectations at the outset
- c) Each member of the group should routinely discuss the groups' deliberations with a trusted associate and report back to the group on the associate's reactions

- d) One or more experts should be invited to each meeting on a staggered basis. The outside experts should be encouraged to challenge views of the members.
- e) At least one articulate and knowledgeable member should be given the role of devil's advocate (to question assumptions and plans)
- f) The leader should make sure that a sizeable block of time is set aside to survey warning signals from rivals; leader and group construct alternative scenarios of rivals' intentions.

Examples

Corporate

- **Swissair's Collapse:** Thought to be so financially stable that people referred to it as the “Flying Bank.” Poor decision-making processes eventually led to its collapse.
- **Symptoms:** The belief that the group is invulnerable and the belief in the morality of the group.
- Lack of expertise, similar backgrounds / norms and pressure to conform were also present.
- **Consequences:** Collapse of Swissair

Political

- **Vietnam:** Groupthink is believed to be main reason for the war. Strategic advisors in 3 successive administrations rubber-stamped battle plans laced with false assumptions.
- **Symptoms:** Groupthink prevented contradictory views to the war from being expressed and subsequently evaluated.
- **Consequences:** 58,220 United States servicemen died.

Sports

- **Major League Umpire Association:** In 1999, the Major League Baseball Association staged a mass resignation in a failed attempt to gain a stronger negotiating stance.
- **Symptoms:** The umpires overestimated the power that they had over the baseball league and the strength of their group's resolve. There was the presence of self-censorship; some umpires who disagreed with the decision to resign failed to voice their dissent.
- **Consequences:** Failed strategy, Major League Baseball accepted their resignations, 22 umpires were out of jobs and eventually replaced.

Bay of Pigs invasion and the Cuban Missile Crisis

The United States Bay of Pigs Invasion of April 1961 was the primary case study that Janis used to formulate his theory of groupthink. The invasion plan was initiated by the Eisenhower administration, but when the Kennedy White House took over, it "uncritically accepted" the CIA's plan. When some people, such as Arthur M. Schlesinger, Jr. and Senator J. William Fulbright, attempted to present their objections to the plan, the Kennedy team as a whole ignored these objections and kept believing in the morality of their plan.

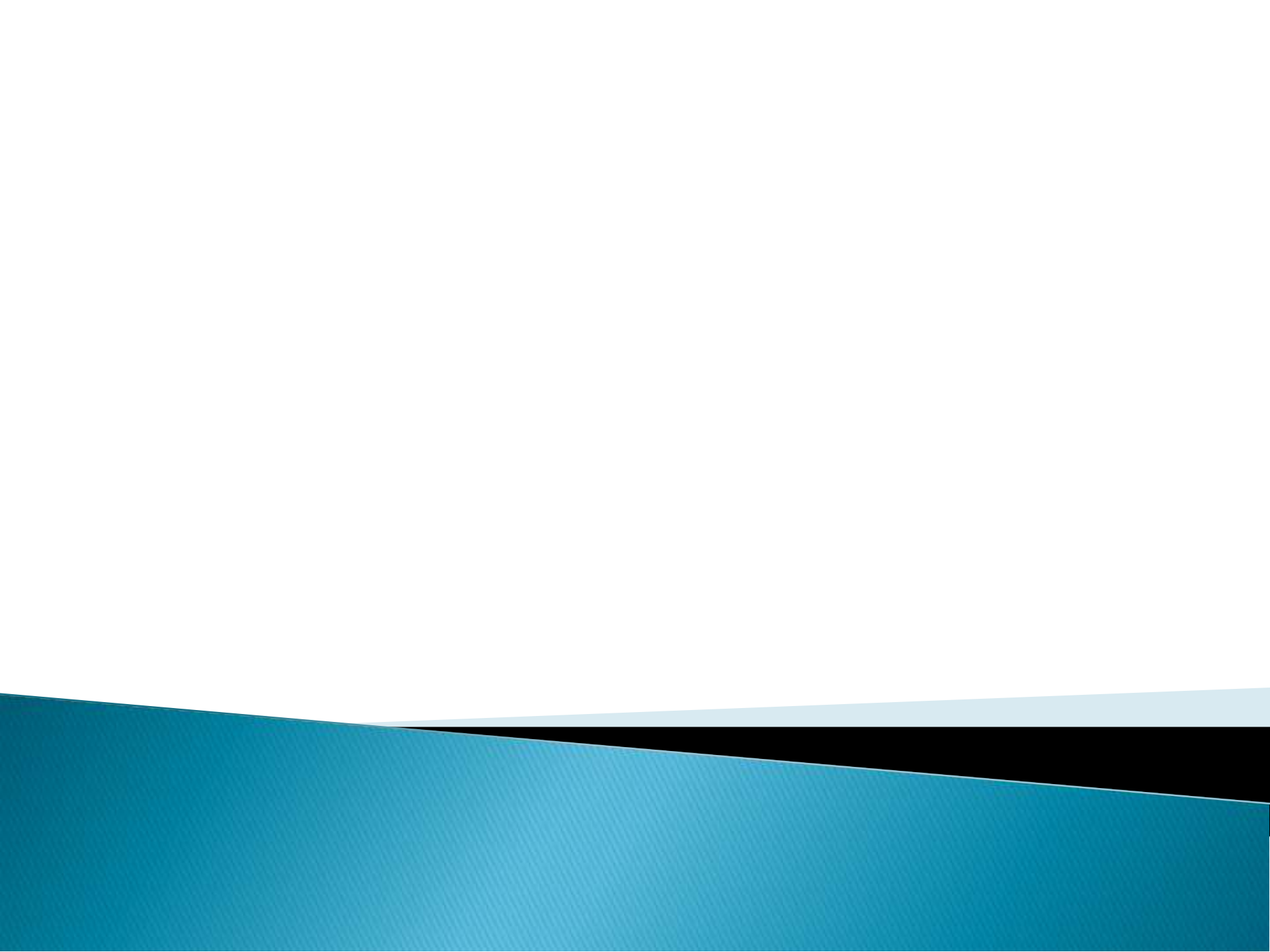
- Eventually Schlesinger minimized his own doubts, performing self-censorship. The Kennedy team stereotyped Castro and the Cubans by failing to question the CIA about its many false assumptions, including the ineffectiveness of Castro's air force, the weakness of Castro's army, and the inability of Castro to quell internal uprisings.

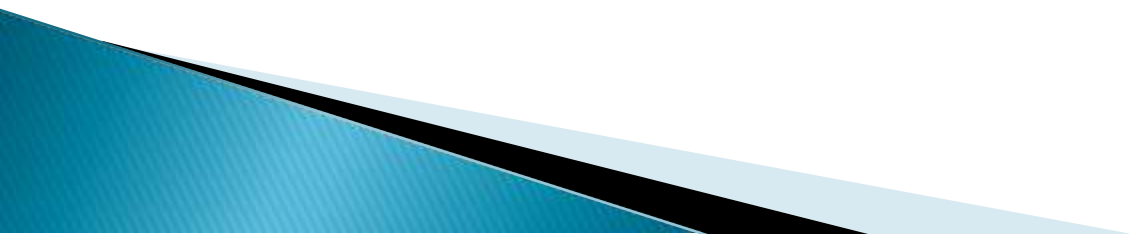
- Janis claimed the fiasco that ensued could have been prevented if the Kennedy administration had followed the methods to preventing groupthink adopted during the Cuban Missile Crisis, which took place just one year later in October 1962. In the latter crisis, essentially the same political leaders were involved in decision-making, but this time they learned from their previous mistake of seriously under-rating their opponents

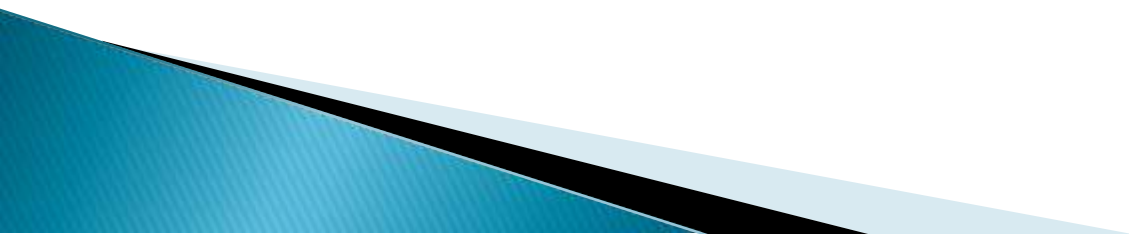
Pearl Harbor

- The attack on **Pearl Harbor** on December 7, 1941 is a prime example of groupthink. A number of factors such as shared illusions and rationalizations contributed to the lack of precaution taken by Naval officers based in Hawaii. The United States had intercepted Japanese messages and they discovered that Japan was arming itself for an offensive attack **somewhere** in the Pacific. Washington took action by warning officers stationed at Pearl Harbor, but their warning was not taken seriously. They assumed that Japan was taking measures in the event that their embassies and consulates in enemy territories were usurped.
- The Navy and Army in Pearl Harbor also shared rationalizations about why an attack was unlikely. Some of them included

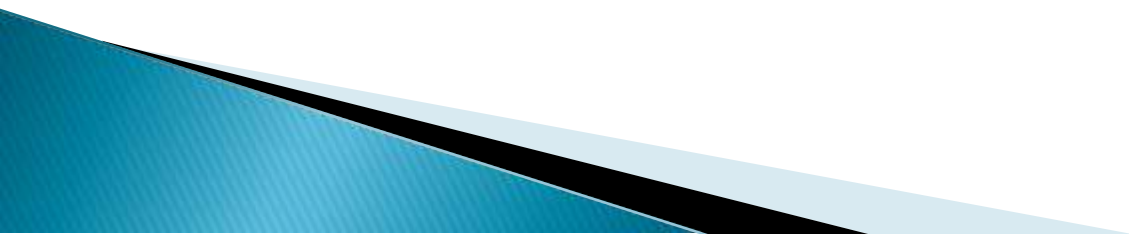
- The Japanese would never dare attempt a full-scale surprise assault against Hawaii because they would realize that it would precipitate an all-out war, which the United States would surely win."
- "The Pacific Fleet concentrated at Pearl Harbor was a major deterrent against air or naval attack."
- "Even if the Japanese were foolhardy to send their carriers to attack us [the United States], we could certainly detect and destroy them in plenty of time."
- "No warships anchored in the shallow water of Pearl Harbor could ever be sunk by torpedo bombs launched from enemy aircraft."



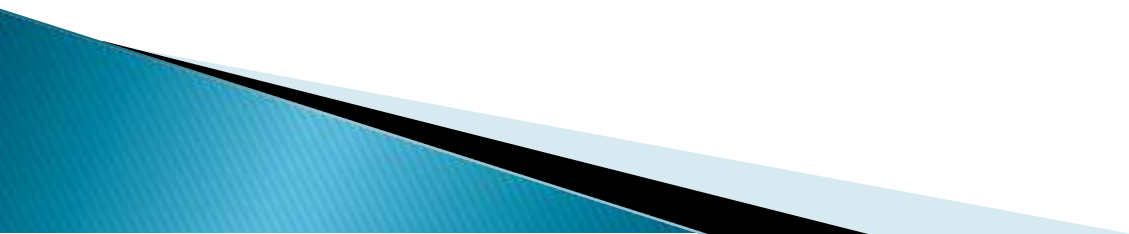




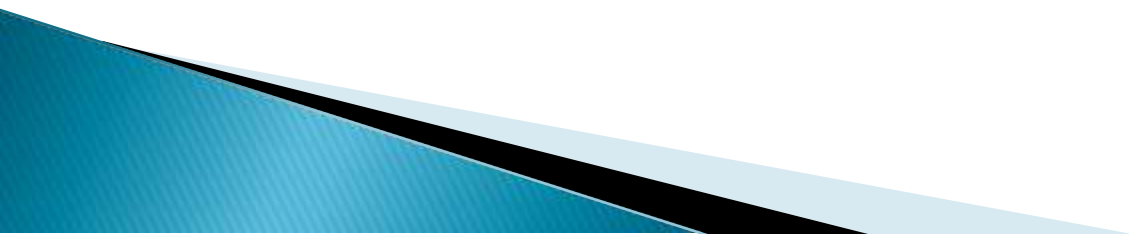


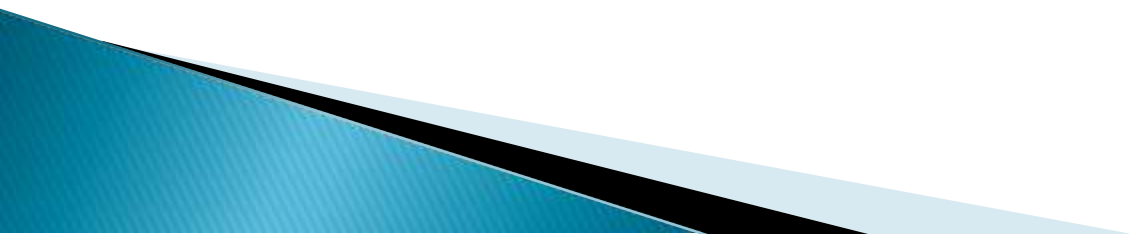












▶ Leadership Skills



Leadership Skills



Definition of Leadership

Leadership, according to Peter DeLisle, is the ability to influence others, with or without authority.

All successful endeavors are the result of human effort; thus, the ability to influence others is a derivation of

- ▶ Interpersonal Communications
 - ▶ Conflict Management
 - ▶ Problem solving
- 

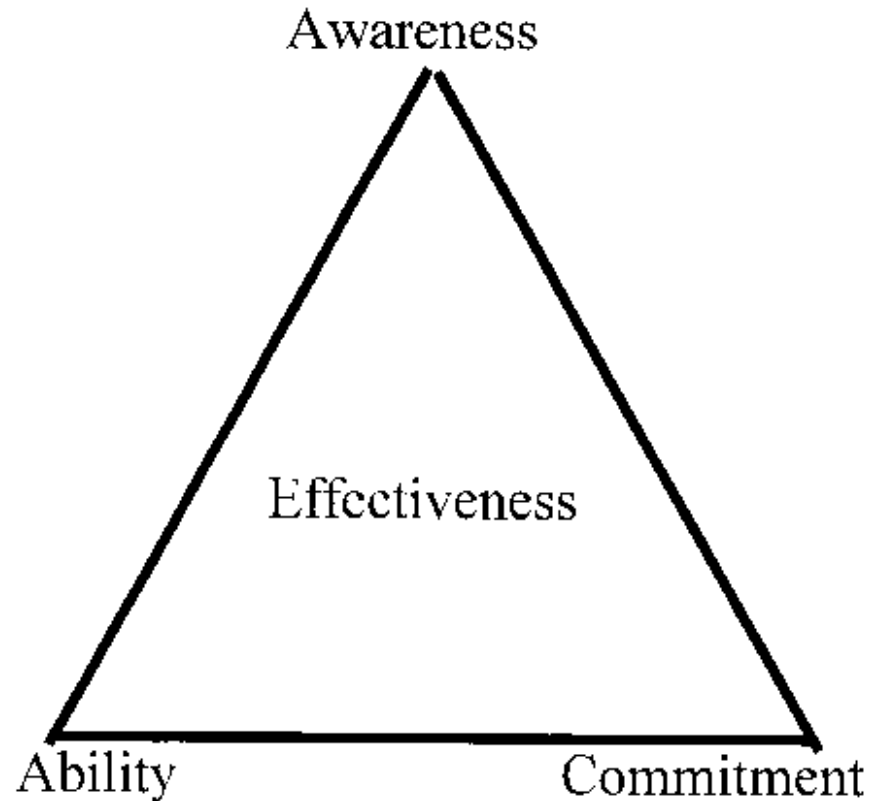
Interpersonal Effectiveness

Interpersonal effectiveness is the capability of an individual to do this, influence others, competently.

Leadership is a direct function of three elements of interpersonal effectiveness

- ▶ Awareness
- ▶ Ability
- ▶ Commitment

Interpersonal Effectiveness



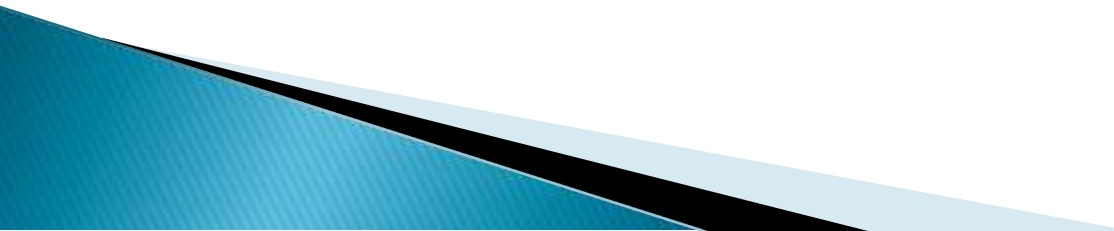
Awareness

Awareness is a state of consciousness.

It is the ability to recognize yourself, others, events and situations in real time.

It is the ability to assess the impact of actions on situations and others, and be critically self-reflective.

It is a development process that is a function of experience, communication, self discovery and feedback.



Ability

Ability to learn and understand technical issues is the basis of our careers.

Ability to lead is a function of influence:

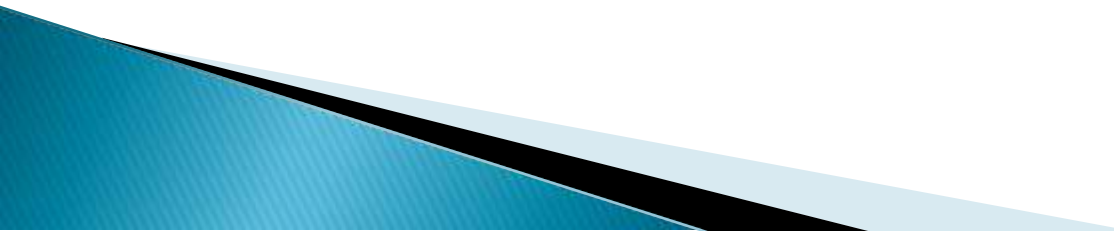
- ▶ Ability to communicate
- ▶ Ability to resolve conflicts
- ▶ Ability to solve problems and make decisions

As a member of a team, we influence others in a collaborative effort to find better ideas or solve problems.

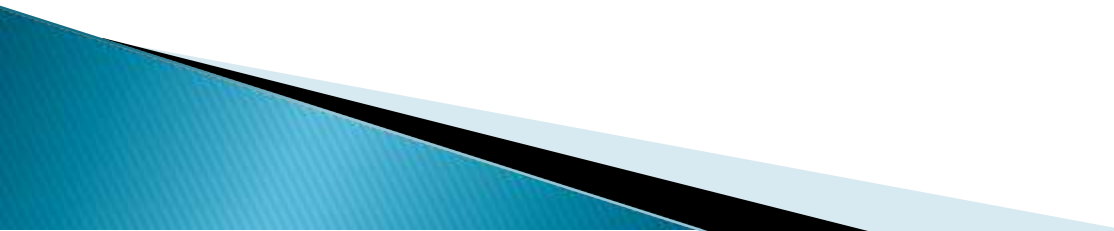
Commitment

For leaders, the “one thing” that leads to maturity is the fully aware recognition that one’s decisions make a difference, both positively and negatively, in the lives of others, and that any attempt to solve a problem might have a decided negative impact on some, while helping others.

In no-win scenarios, one must still make a hard decision.



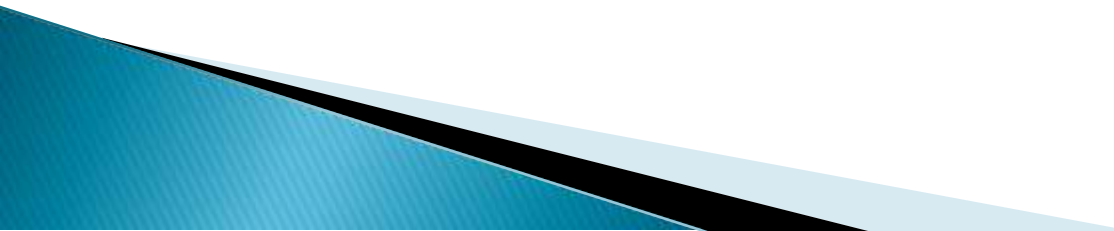
Attributes of a Leader

- ▶ *Guiding vision: Effective leaders know what they want to do, and have the strength of character to pursue their objectives in the face of opposition and in spite of failures. The effective leader establishes achievable goals.*
- 

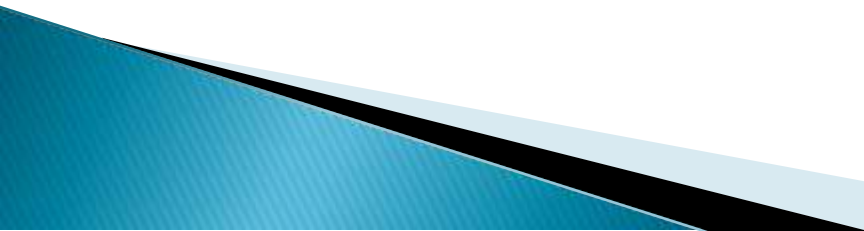
Attributes of a Leader

Passion: Effective leaders believe passionately in their goals. They have a positive outlook on who they are, and they love what they do. Their passion for life is a guiding star for others to follow, because they radiate promise!

Attributes of a Leader

- ▶ *Integrity: Because they know who they are, effective leaders are also aware of their weaknesses. They only make promises they can follow through on.*
 - ▶ *Honesty: Leaders convey an aura of honesty in both their professional and their personal lives.*
 - ▶ *Trust: Effective leaders earn the trust of their followers and act on behalf of their followers.*
- 

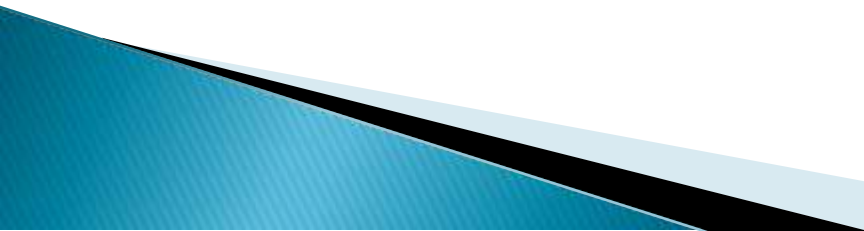
Attributes of a Leader

- ▶ *Curiosity: Leaders are learners. They wonder about every aspect of their charge. They find out what they need to know in order to pursue their goals.*
 - ▶ *Risk: Effective leaders take calculated risks when necessary to achieve their objectives. If a mistake is made, the effective leader will learn from the mistake and use it as an opportunity to explore other avenues.*
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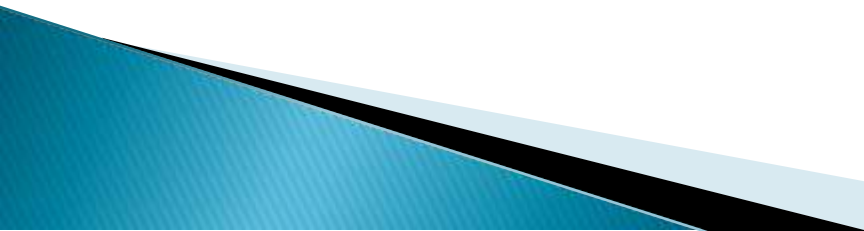
Attributes of a Leader

- ▶ *Dedication: The effective leader is dedicated to his or her charge, and will work assiduously on behalf of those following. The leader gives himself or herself entirely to the task when it is necessary.*

Attributes of a Leader

- ▶ *Charisma: This may be the one attribute that is the most difficult to cultivate. It conveys maturity, respect for your followers, compassion, a fine sense of humor, and a love of humanity. The result is that leaders have the capability to motivate people to excel.*
 - ▶ *Listening: Leaders Listen! This is the most important attribute of all, listen to your followers.*
- 

Leadership

- ▶ Leadership is the ability to develop a vision that motivates others to move with a passion toward a common goal
- 

Leadership Theory

Early Theories:

Great Man Theories

- ▶ Leaders are exceptional people, born with innate qualities, destined to lead
- ▶ Term 'man' was intentional – concept was primarily male, military and Western

Trait Theories

- ▶ Research on traits or qualities associated with leadership are numerous
- ▶ Traits are hard to measure. For example, how do we measure honesty or integrity?

Leadership Traits and Skills

Traits

- ▶ Adaptable to situations
- ▶ Alert to social environment
- ▶ Ambitious and achievement orientated
- ▶ Assertive
- ▶ Cooperative
- ▶ Decisive
- ▶ Dependable
- ▶ Dominant (desire to influence others)
- ▶ Energetic (high activity level)
- ▶ Persistent
- ▶ Self-confident
- ▶ Tolerant of stress
- ▶ Willing to assume responsibility

Skills

- Clever (intelligent)
- Conceptually skilled
- Creative
- Diplomatic and tactful
- Fluent in speaking
- Knowledgeable about group task
- Organised (administrative ability)
- Persuasive
- Socially skilled

Stogdill, 1974

Leaders will also use:

Integrity, Honesty, Compassion, Humility

▶ **Trait theories:**

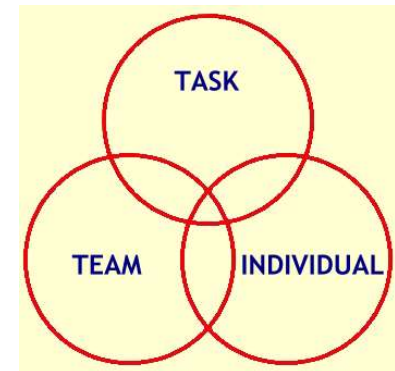
- Are such characteristics inherently gender biased?
- Do such characteristics produce good leaders?
- Is leadership more than just bringing about change?
- Does this imply that leaders are born not bred?

Functional Theories (John Adair, Action Centred Leadership, 1970)

Leadership Skills

Leader is concerned with the interaction of 3 areas:

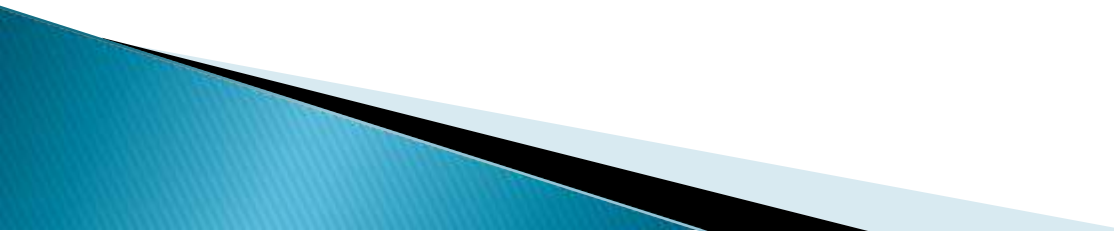
- ▶ **Task** – goal setting, methods and process
- ▶ **Team** – effective interaction/communication, clarify roles, team morale
- ▶ **Individual** – attention to behaviour, feelings, coaching, CPD(Continued professional Development)–professional development in schools



Behaviourist Theories (Blake and Mouton, Managerial grid, 1964)



- Leaders behaviour and actions, rather than their traits and skills e.g. production orientated or people orientated
- Different leadership behaviours categorised as 'leadership styles' e.g. autocratic, persuasive, consultative, democratic
- Doesn't provide guide to effective leadership in different situations

- ▶ Behavioural:
 - ▶ Imply that leaders can be trained – focus on the way of doing things
 - Structure based behavioural theories – focus on the leader instituting structures – task orientated
 - Relationship based behavioural theories – focus on the development and maintenance of relationships – process orientated
- 

Situational/contingency Leadership (*Hersey-Blanchard, 1970/80*)

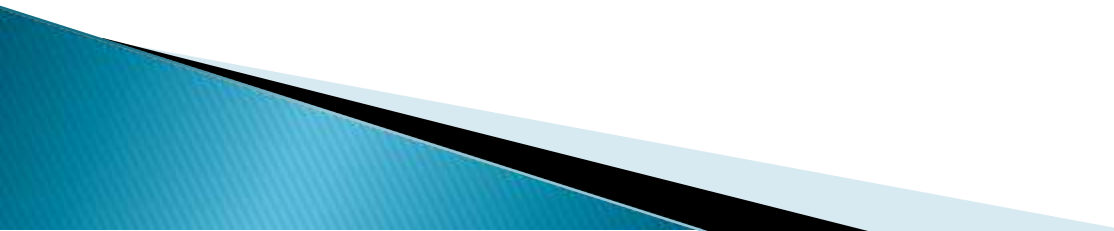
Leadership style changes according to the 'situation' and in response to the individuals being managed – their competency and motivation

Competency	Low competence	Some competence	High competence	High competence
Motivation	Low commitment/ Unable and unwilling or insecure	Variable commitment/ Unable but willing or motivated	Variable commitment/ Able but unwilling or insecure	High commitment/ Able and willing or motivated
Leadership style	DIRECTIVE (Telling)	COACHING (Selling)	SUPPORTIVE (Participating)	DELEGATORY (Observing)

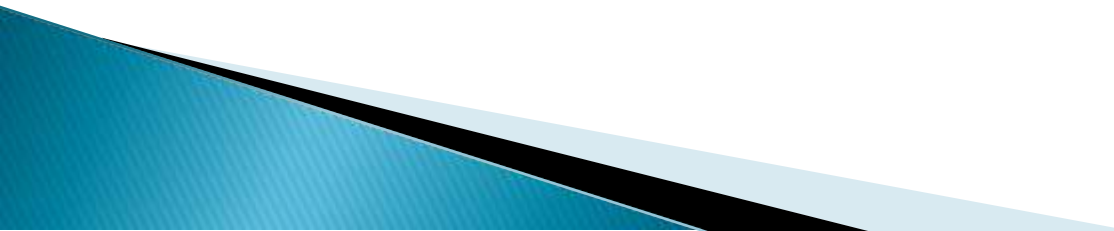
▶ Invitational Leadership:

- Improving the atmosphere and message sent out by the organisation
- Focus on reducing negative messages sent out through the everyday actions of the business both externally and, crucially, internally
- Review internal processes to reduce these
- Build relationships and sense of belonging and identity with the organisation – that gets communicated to customers, etc.

Transformational Theory (Bass and Avolio, 1994)

- ▶ Leaders inspire individuals, develop trust, and encourage creativity and personal growth
 - ▶ Individuals develop a sense of purpose to benefit the group, organisation or society. This goes beyond their own self-interests and an exchange of rewards or recognition for effort or loyalty.
- 

▶ Transactional Theories:

- Focus on the management of the organisation
 - Focus on procedures and efficiency
 - Focus on working to rules and contracts
 - Managing current issues and problems
- 

Factors Affecting Style

- ▶ Leadership style may be dependent on various factors:
 - Risk – decision making and change initiatives based on degree of risk involved
 - Type of business – creative business or supply driven?
 - How important change is – change for change's sake?
 - Organisational culture – may be long embedded and difficult to change
 - Nature of the task – needing cooperation? Direction? Structure?

Main functions

Leadership Skills

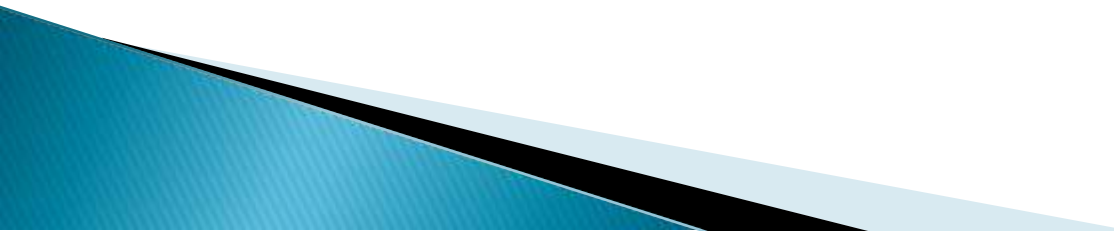
Accountability, Responsibility, and Authority

- ▶ **Accountability** the state of being accountable, liable, or answerable
- ▶ **Responsibility** (for objects, tasks or people) can be delegated but **accountability** can not – buck stops with you!
- ▶ A good leader accepts ultimate responsibility:
 - will give credit to others when delegated responsibilities succeed
 - will accept blame when delegated responsibilities fail
- ▶ **Accountability** can not operate fairly without the leader being given full authority for the responsibilities concerned
- ▶ **Authority** is the power to influence or command thought, opinion or behaviour

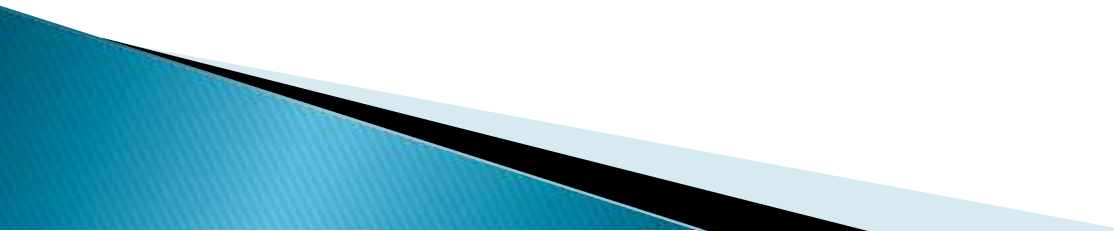
Cross-functional team – less authority – more difficult to manage

Types of Leadership Style

▶ Autocratic:

- Leader makes decisions without reference to anyone else
 - High degree of dependency on the leader
 - Can create de-motivation and alienation of staff
 - May be valuable in some types of business where decisions need to be made quickly and decisively
- 

Types of Leadership Style

- ▶ **Democratic:**
 - ▶ Encourages decision making from different perspectives – leadership may be emphasised throughout the organisation
 - **Consultative:** process of consultation before decisions are taken
 - **Persuasive:** Leader takes decision and seeks to persuade others that the decision is correct
- 

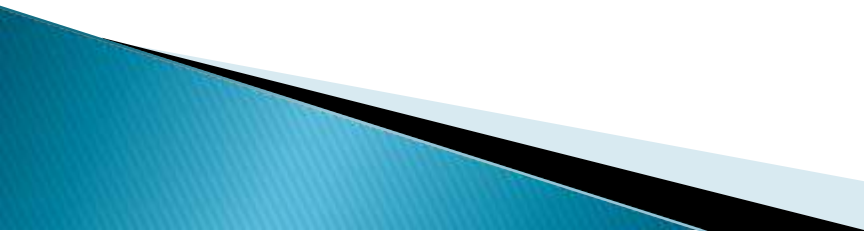
Types of Leadership Style

▶ Democratic:

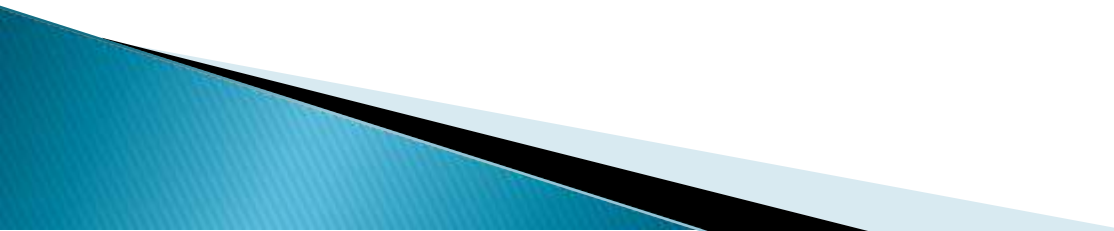
- May help motivation and involvement
- Workers feel ownership of the firm and its ideas
- Improves the sharing of ideas and experiences within the business
- Can delay decision making

Types of Leadership Style

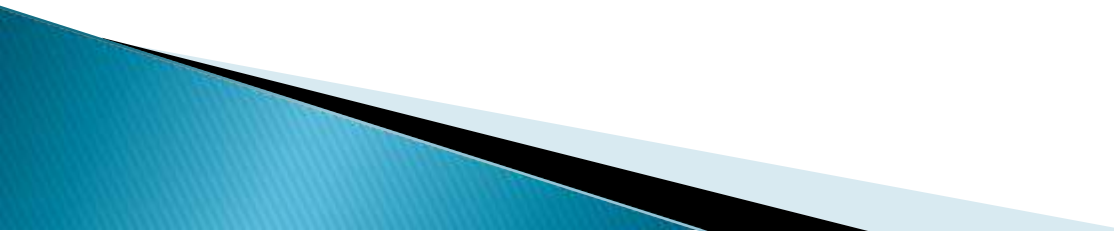
▶ Laissez-Faire:

- ‘Let it be’ – the leadership responsibilities are shared by all
 - Can be very useful in businesses where creative ideas are important
 - Can be highly motivational, as people have control over their working life
 - Can make coordination and decision making time-consuming and lacking in overall direction
 - Relies on good team work
 - Relies on good interpersonal relations
- 

Types of Leadership Style

- ▶ **Paternalistic:**
 - ▶ Leader acts as a 'father figure'
 - ▶ Paternalistic leader makes decision but may consult
 - ▶ Believes in the need to support staff
- 

Change Leadership

- ▶ The most challenging aspect of business is leading and managing change
 - ▶ The business environment is subject to fast-paced economic and social change
 - ▶ Modern business must adapt and be flexible to survive
 - ▶ Problems in leading change stem mainly from human resource management
- 

SOCIAL INFLUENCE



Social influence

- Efforts by one or more individuals to change the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, or behaviors of one or more others. (Cialdini, 2000, 2006)

- But people exert social influence for many reasons, not just to swindle others.
- Sometimes they exert influence in order to help the people involved (e.g., by getting them to stop smoking or stick to their diets).
- Or—and less altruistically— they may try to get them to do personal favors, buy certain products, or vote for specific candidates—the goals are almost infinite.
- The means used for inducing such change—for exerting social influence—vary greatly too, ranging from direct personal requests to clever commercials and political campaigns.
- Whatever the goals, though, social influence always involves efforts by one or more people to induce some kind of change in others

- Whatever the goals, though, social influence always involves efforts by one or more people to induce some kind of change in others.

Social influence

Changing other's behavior

- Conformity
- Compliance
- obedience

- Direct efforts to change others' overt behavior through requests are often labeled compliance (or seeking compliance); these involve specific requests to which the people who receive them can say "Yes," "No," or "Maybe."
- Often, efforts to change others' behavior involve the impact of rules or guidelines indicating what behavior is appropriate or required in a given situation. These can be formal, as in speed limits, rules for playing games or sports, and dress codes (if any still exist!); or they can be informal, such as the general rule "Don't stare at strangers in public places." This kind of influence is known as conformity, and is an important part of social life.
- Finally, change can be produced by direct orders or commands from others—obedience.

- **Conformity**—pressures to behave in ways that are viewed as acceptable or appropriate by a group or society in general.
- Next, we turn to **Compliance**—direct efforts to get others to change their behavior in specific ways (Cialdini, 2006; Sparrowe, Soetjipto, & Kraimer, 2006).

- After that, we examine what is, in some ways, the most intriguing form of social influence—**influence** that occurs when other people are not present and are not making any direct attempts to affect our behavior (e.g., Fitzsimons & Bargh, 2003). We refer to such effects as **symbolic social influence** to reflect the fact that it results from our mental representations of other people rather than their actual presence or overt actions.
- Finally, after considering this indirect form of social influence, we examine another kind that is, in some respects, its direct opposite: **obedience**—social influence in which one person simply orders one or more others to do what they want.

CONFORMITY

- A type of Social influence in which individuals change their attitudes or behaviour in order to adhere to existing social norms.
- People conform to group norms because of their need to master the world, and the need to be connected by others.
- It is the act of matching attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors to group norms

- Conformity, in other words, refers to pressures to behave in ways consistent with rules indicating how we should or ought to behave.
- These rules are known as social norms, and they often exert powerful effects on our behavior

- In some instances, social norms are stated explicitly and are quite detailed. For instance, governments generally function through written constitutions and laws; chess and other games have very specific rules; and signs in many public places (e.g., along highways, in parks, at airports) describe expected behavior in considerable detail (e.g., Stop!; No Swimming; No Parking; Keep Off the Grass).

- In other situations, norms may be unspoken or implicit, and, in fact, may have developed in a totally informal manner. For instance, we all recognize such unstated rules as “Don’t make noise during a concert” and “Try to look your best when going on a job interview.” Regardless of whether social norms are explicit or implicit, formal or informal, though, one fact is clear: Most people follow them most of the time.
- For instance, virtually everyone regardless of personal political beliefs stands when the national anthem of their country is played at sports events or other public gatherings.

Experiments

- **Sherif's experiment (1936)**

Muzafer Sherif was interested in knowing how many people would change their opinions to bring them in line with the opinion of a group.

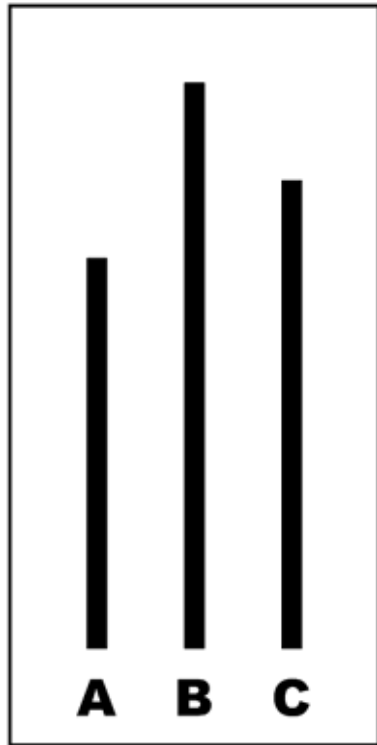
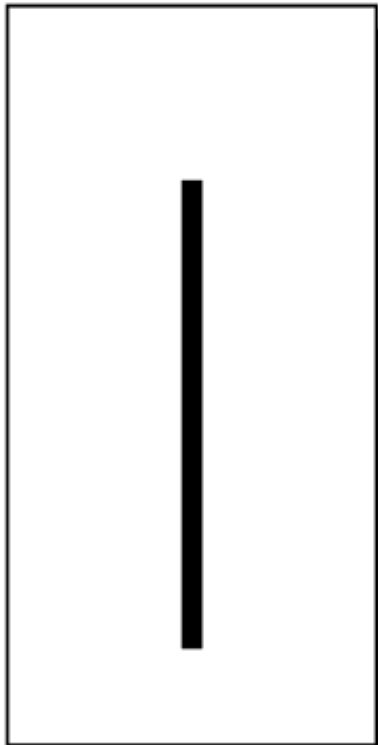
participants were placed in a dark room and asked to stare at a small dot of light 15 feet away. They were then asked to estimate the amount it moved. The trick was there was no movement, it was caused by a visual illusion known as the auto kinetic effect.

- On the first day, each person perceived different amounts of movement, but from the second to the fourth day, the same estimate was agreed on and others conformed to it
- Subsequent experiments were based on more realistic situations. In an eyewitness identification task, participants were shown a suspect individually and then in a lineup of other suspects. They were given one second to identify him, making it a difficult task.

- One group was told that their input was very important and would be used by the legal community. To the other it was simply a trial. Being more motivated to get the right answer increased the tendency to conform. Those who wanted to be more accurate conformed 51% of the time as opposed to 35% in the other group.

- **Asch's experiment (1951)**

when the situation was very clear, conformity would be drastically reduced.



- He exposed people in a group to a series of lines, and the participants were asked to match one line with a standard line. All participants except one were confederates and gave the wrong answer in 12 of the 18 trials. The results showed a surprisingly high degree of conformity: 74% of the participants conformed on at least one trial. On average people conformed one third of the time. However a question is how the group would affect individuals in a situation where the correct answer is less obvious.

- After his first test, Asch wanted to investigate whether the size or unanimity of the majority had greater influence on test subjects. “Which aspect of the influence of a majority is more important – the size of the majority or its unanimity? The experiment was modified to examine this question. In one series the size of the opposition was varied from one to 15 persons.”

- The results clearly showed that as more people opposed the subject, the subject became more likely to conform. However, the increasing majority was only influential up to a point: from three or more opponents, there is more than 30% of conformity.

Factors Affecting Conformity

- Conformity occurs not in the same degree in all occasions
- Cohesiveness and Conformity:
eg: Hairstyle

when cohesiveness is high ,pressure towards conformity is high.....when it is low, conformity is also low

Conformity and Group size:

- Social impact theory
 - Each additional member adds pressure to conform.
 - Each new member's influence is proportionally less.
- Social influence model
 - The first few people added exert the most pressure to conform.
 - Conformity levels off with additional members.
 - For example, if the first 9 group members don't convince someone, neither will the 10th.

- Informational influence
 - Members want to be correct, accurate.
 - More heads are better than one.
 - Consistent with social influence model
- Normative influence
 - Members want to be liked, accepted by the group.
 - Groups provide a sense belonging, connectedness.
 - Consistent with social impact theory

Gender and Conformity

- In general women tend to conform more than men.
 - Sex roles affect conformity
 - Females are socialized to be more communal.
 - Males are socialized to be more independent.
 - Status affects conformity
 - Sex functions as a status cue.
 - Males generally enjoy higher status in organizational settings.

Peer Pressure and Conformity

- Peer influence increases during adolescence.
- Peer pressure can promote risky behaviors.
 - Tobacco, alcohol, drug use
- Peer pressure can lead to aggression.
 - Hazing, teasing, ostracism can spark violence.
 - Online hazing can trigger suicides.
- Peer pressure also has positive effects.
 - Peers also model desirable behavior.

Personality and Conformity

- High self-monitors tend to conform more than low self-monitors.
- Dogmatic people tend to conform more than non-dogmatics. (dogma meaning literally "that which one thinks is true"**Dogma** in the broad sense is any belief held with undefended certainty.It may be in the form of an official system of principles or doctrines of a religion, such as Roman Catholicism, Judaism, or Protestantism)

Culture and Conformity

- Ethnocentrism
 - Using one's own culture as the benchmark for judging other cultures.
- Individualism-Collectivism
 - Individualistic cultures view conformity more negatively.
 - Collectivistic cultures view conformity more positively.

NORMS and Conformity

- The function of a social norm is to coordinate people's expectations in interactions that possess multiple equilibria.
- Norms govern a wide range of phenomena, including property rights, contracts, bargains, forms of communication, and concepts of justice.

- Social norms are customary rules of behavior that coordinate our interactions with others.
- social norms Rules indicating how individuals are expected to behave in specific situations.
- Once a particular way of doing things becomes established as a rule, it continues in force because we prefer to conform to the rule given the expectation that others are going to conform (Lewis, 1969).

- **Descriptive norms** - Norms simply indicating what most people do in a given situation.
- **Injunctive norms** - Norms specifying what ought to be done; what is approved or disapproved behavior in a given situation

- **Normative focus theory** (e.g., Cialdini, Reno, & Kallgren, 1990).
- This theory suggests that norms will influence behavior only to the extent that they are salient (i.e., relevant, significant) to the people involved at the time the behavior occurs.

Basis of Conformity

Why we often choose to 'go along'?

- The desire to be liked: for approval and acceptance- Normative Social Influence.
- Desire to be Right: other people's action and opinions define social reality for us. this is based on informational social influence. Motivation to be correct and accurate is strong.

- The need to maintain individuality, culture, and resistance to conformity- Bond and Smith(1996) compared conformity in 17 countries. Countries with collectivistic activities (Africa and Asia) more conformity
- The desire for personal control- if it is strong the conformity is lower

- People who do not conform- physically ,mentally challenged
- Psychological disturbances
- Deviant behaviours etc

Conditions that Strengthen Conformity

- One is made to feel incompetent or insecure.
- The group has at least three people.
- The group is unanimous.
- One admires the group's status and attractiveness.
- One has no prior commitment or response.
- The group observes one's behavior.
- One's culture strongly encourages respect for a social standard

Reasons for Conformity

- Normative Social Influence: Influence resulting from a person's desire to gain approval or avoid rejection. A person may respect normative behavior because there may be a severe price to pay if not respected.
- Informative Social Influence: The group may provide valuable information, but stubborn people will never listen to others.
- Mindless conformity: Using others as cues to behavior without thinking or dealing with the dilemma of perception/ thoughts and others' perceptions and thoughts.

- For instance, at work, many employees adopt what are known as **facades of conformity**—the appearance of going along with the values and goals of their organizations, even if they really do not (Hewlin, 2009).
- For instance, they often say things they don't really believe, suppress personal values different from those of the organization, and keep certain things about themselves confidential.
- They may find doing so to be unpleasant but necessary to further their careers, and are more likely to engage in them when they feel that they have little input into how things are run (including their own jobs), and intend to leave—thus assuring that they will get a positive recommendation! In short, people often use conformity as a tactic of self-presentation.

- More direct evidence for the fact that we believe we are less susceptible to conformity pressure than other people is provided by research conducted by Pronin, Berger, and Molouki (2007).
- They reasoned that people underestimate the impact of social influence on their own actions because in trying to understand these actions, they tend to focus on internal information rather than on the overt actions.

- As in the famous actor–observer difference (discussed in Chapter 3), we each know much more about our own thoughts and feelings than we do about the thoughts and feelings of others, so when we estimate how much they and we are influenced by conformity pressure, we tend to conclude that social influence is less important in shaping our actions than those of other people.

- For instance, we “know” that we choose to dress in popular styles because we like them—not because others are wearing them. But when making the same judgment about other people, we assume that they are “sheep” following the herd. Pronin and colleagues call this the introspection illusion, to refer to the fact that often, conformity occurs nonconsciously, and so escapes our introspection (or notice).
- **Introspection illusion** -Our belief that social influence plays a smaller role in shaping our own actions than it does in shaping the actions of others. The Illusion That We Are Less Influenced by Conformity Than Others

COMPLIANCE

- Compliance refers to a particular kind of response—acquiescence—to a particular kind of communication—a request.
- The request may be explicit, as in the direct solicitation of funds in a door-to-door campaign for charitable donations, or it may be implicit, as in a political advertisement that touts the qualities of a candidate without directly asking for a vote.
- But in all cases, the target recognizes that he or she is being urged to respond in a desired way.

- Social Psychologist, **Robert Cialdini** studied the concept compliance in professionals- sales persons, advertisers, politicians etc.
- he has worked in different fields to study the concept
- He termed it *compliance professionals-People whose success depends on their ability to get others say YES.*

Six basic principles were extracted:

- 1) **Friendship /liking**: more likely to comply with requests from friends or people we like than with requests from others.

Ingratiation : a technique

- 2) **Commitment /consistency**: once we have committed to something we'll comply more, behaviours that are consistent with this position it is accepted

- 3) **Scarcity**: outcomes or objects that are scarce or decreasing in their availability .
- 4) **Reciprocity** : favour someone who has previously provided with some reciprocity
- 5) **Social Validation**: comply with what others are doing or thinking
- 6) **Authority**: comply with someone who holds legitimate authority

Tactics based on Friendship or liking

- ***ingratiation***

A technique for gaining compliance in which requesters first induce target persons to like them and then attempt to change the persons' behavior in some desired manner. Work best with :

Flattery-praising

Appearance, positive non verbal cues, doing small favours to target persons.

Tactics based on Commitment or Consistency

- ***The Foot in the Door***

A procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a small request and then, when this is granted, escalate to a larger one.

The principle involved is that a small agreement creates a bond between the requester and the requestee.

Even though the requestee may only have agreed to a trivial request out of politeness, this forms a bond which - when the requestee attempts to justify the decision to themselves - may be mistaken for a genuine affinity with the requester, or an interest in the subject of the request.

Eg. Food court

- **Lowball procedure:** a technique for gaining compliance in which an offer or deal is changed to make it less attractive to the target person after this person has accepted it.
- Eg. Cialdini, Cacioppo, Bassett, and Miller (1978) demonstrated the technique of lowballing in a university setting.

- They asked an initial group of first-year psychology students to volunteer to be part of a study on cognition. The researchers were clear about the meeting time being 7 a.m. Only 24 per cent of the first-year college students were willing to sacrifice and wake up early to support research in psychology.

- In a second group condition, the subjects they were asked the same favour, but this time they were not told a time. Of these, 56 per cent agreed to take part. After agreeing to help in the study, they were told that they would have to meet at 7 a.m. —and that they could back out if they so wished. None backed out of their commitment. On the day of the actual meeting, 95 per cent of the students who had promised to come showed up for their 7 a.m. appointment, which means that, in the end, 53.5% of the subject pool agreed to the experiment.

Tactics based on Reciprocity

The Door-in-the Face :

a procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a large request and then, when this is refused , retreat to a smaller one .

That's-not-all technique:

A technique for gaining compliance in which requesters offer additional benefits to target persons before these persons have decided whether to comply with or reject specific request .

Tactics based on scarcity: playing hard to get and the fast-approaching –deadline technique

- **playing hard to get- a technique** that can be used for increasing compliance by suggesting that a person or object is scarce and hard to obtain .
- **the fast-approaching –deadline technique-** a technique for increasing compliance in which target persons are told that they have only limited time to take advantage of some offer or to obtain some item.

Symbolic social influence

- Social influence resulting from the mental representation of others or of our relationships with them.
- Symbolic social influence often involves goals relevant to our relationship with others, or goals with which these people themselves are associated.
- To the extent that others are psychologically present in our thoughts, goals we seek in our relationships with them or goals these people themselves seek or want us to attain can be stimulated, and these, in turn, can strongly affect our behavior.

Obedience to authority

- In which one person directly orders one or more others to behave in specific ways and the persons than comply.
- Obedience is a form of social influence in which one person orders one or more persons to do something, and they do so. Obedience is, in a sense , the most direct form of social influence.

- Research by Stanley Milgram indicates that many persons readily obey orders from a relatively powerless source of authority, even if these orders require them to harm an innocent stranger. **This is known as destructive obedience,** which plays a role in many real life atrocities, stems from several factors. These include shifting of responsibility to the authority figure, outward signs of authority on the part of these persons that remind many persons of the norm 'obey those in authority' a gradual escalation of the scope of the commands given and rapid pace with which such situations proceed.

- Several factors can help to reduce the occurrence of destructive obedience. These include reminding individuals that they share in the responsibility for any harm produced; reminding them that, beyond some point, obedience is inappropriate; calling the motives of authority figures into question; and informing the general public of the findings of social psychological research on this topic.

Introspection illusion

- Introspection illusion - Our belief that social influence plays a smaller role in shaping our own actions than it does in shaping the actions of others.

- More direct evidence for the fact that we believe we are less susceptible to conformity pressure than other people is provided by research conducted by Pronin, Berger, and Molouki (2007).
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Emotional Contagion:

- A Very Basic Form of Social Influence When we are exposed to the emotions of others, we often experience similar feelings or moods; this is known as emotional contagion. Sometimes, however, we experience emotions or feelings opposite to theirs—an effect known as counter-contagion. Our similarity to these persons is often a strong determinant of which kind of reaction we experience.

Social influence goes to work: Influence tactics in work settings.

- Conformity, compliance obedience, symbolic social influence- these are powerful source in social life and clearly play a role in many different settings.
- Rational Persuasion
- Inspirational appeal
- Consultation
- Ingratiation
- exchange

- Personal appeal
- Coalition building
- Legitimizing
- Pressure

Among most common are consultative techniques. Ingratiation is also often widely used.

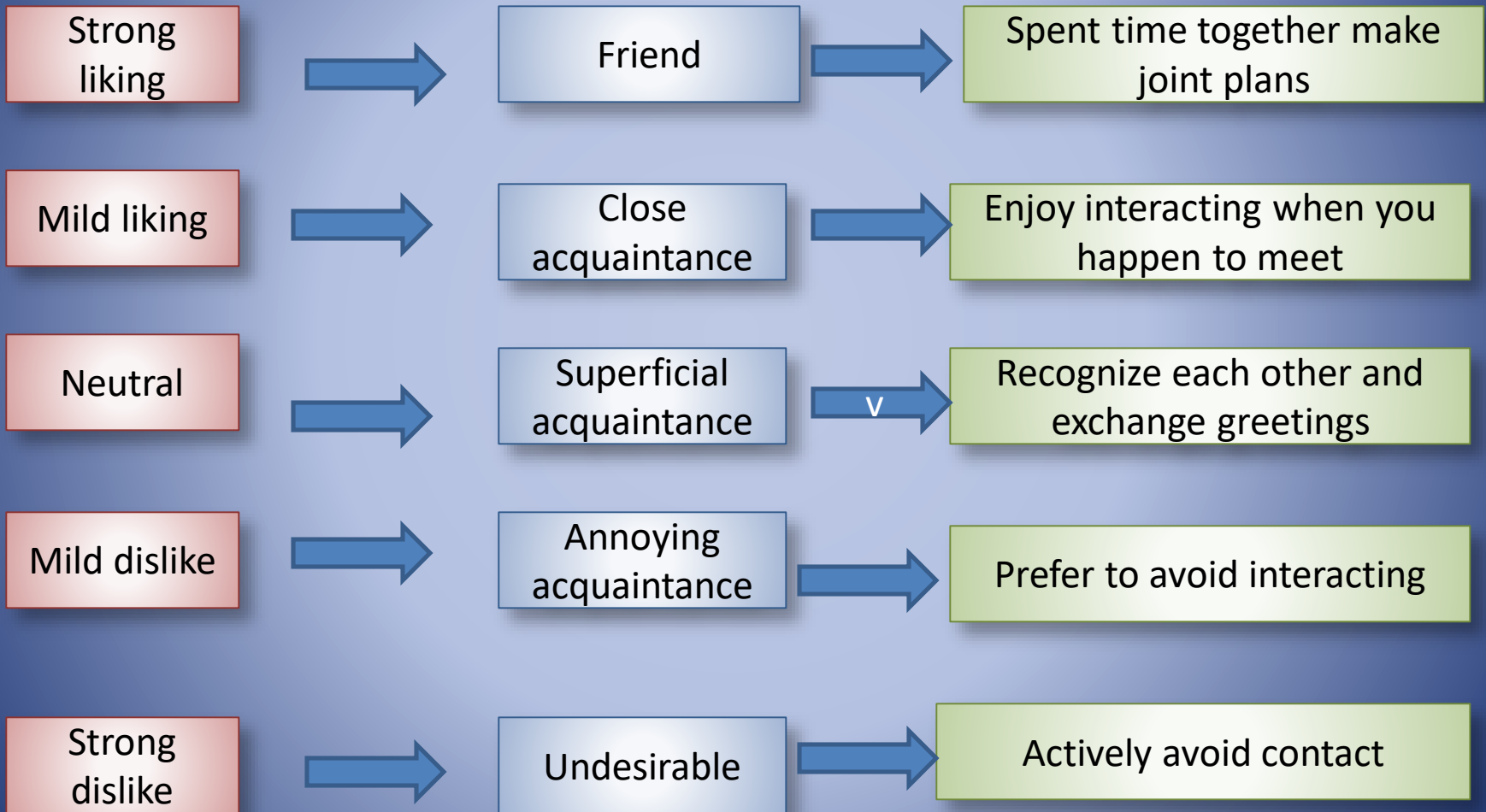
Interpersonal Attraction



The Right Chemistry

Definition

- Interpersonal attraction refers to the attitude one holds about another person. Attraction is expressed along a dimension that ranges from strong liking to strong feelings of dislike



Why do people form relationships with others?

- People are social animals who have a basic “need to belong”.
- We seem to have a built-in Affiliation need – need to associate with our fellow humans in a friendly, co-operative way
- 75% of waking hours spent with others (Larson et al., 1983)
 replicated cross-culturally (Larson & Verma, 1999)
- Newborns are responsive to human faces
- Infants engage in social smiling
- Having close social ties is associated with being happier & more satisfied, and not having them with loneliness, depression, worse physical health, and earlier death.

Infant Attachment

- Infant Attachment
 - bonds formed with the infant's primary caregiver
 - sense of security
 - provides information about the environment
 - attachment styles can differ depending on:
 - individual differences
 - the relationship
 - evolutionary explanation

Infant Attachment

- Ainsworth (1978) Infant Attachment Styles
 - Secure
 - general responsiveness
 - Avoidant
 - general unresponsiveness or rejection
 - Anxious/Ambivalent
 - general anxiety and inconsistency

Adult Attachment

- Adult Romantic Attachment
 - Hazan & Shaver (1987)
 - similar to infant attachment
 - securely attached 59%
 - avoidant 25%
 - anxious/Ambivalent 11%
 - However, adult relationships differ
 - reciprocal
 - between peers
 - involve sexual attraction

Adult Attachment

- **Adult Attachment Styles**
 - **Secure Adults**
 - easy to get close, happy relationships, don't worry about abandonment, etc.
 - **Avoidant Adult**
 - uncomfortable getting close, highs and lows, etc.
 - **Anxious/Ambivalent**
 - seek intimacy but worry about reciprocity, obsessive, clingy, etc.

Adult Attachment

- Early attachment experiences can influence later relationships, but
 - we're not tied to our previous experiences,
 - new experiences can change the way we form relationships
 - we often have different orientations for different relationships

Why We Form Relationships

- Rewards of Social Relations (Weiss, 1974)
 - attachment
 - social integration
 - reassurance of worth
 - sense of reliable alliance
 - guidance
 - opportunity for nurturance

Why We Form Relationships

- Social support strongly correlated with
 - physical health
 - mental health
- But, no single relationship will satisfy all social needs
 - the wider our social network, the better off we are

Why We Form Relationships

- Loneliness
 - psychological discomfort felt with a lack of adequate social relations
 - can be lonely without being alone
 - can be happy alone
 - *Alone* does not necessarily mean *lonely*, though the two often occur together. ---
-Individual differences
 - can differ from day to day
 - responses to lonely situations vary

Why We Form Relationships

- Emotional Loneliness
 - lack of an intimate attachment figure
- Social Loneliness
 - feeling detached from one's social network
- Can have either, both, or neither.

Why We Form Relationships

- Loneliness Risk Factors
 - background/childhood factors
 - personality factors
 - marital status
 - socioeconomic status
 - age

Why We Form Relationships

- Social Exchange Theories

- Assumption:

- we stay in relationships because the benefits outweigh the costs
 - if costs begin to exceed the benefits, we'll leave the relationship

Determinants of Attraction

- Factors Involved in Interpersonal Attraction
 - ❖ Need to affiliate
 - ❖ Affective state
 - ❖ Proximity
 - ❖ Repeated exposure
 - ❖ Familiarity
 - ❖ Similarity-dissimilarity
 - ❖ Mutual liking
 - ❖ Desirable personal attributes
 - ❖ Physical attractiveness(Observable characteristic)

Internal determinants

- Need to affiliate-Basic motive to seek and maintain interpersonal relationship
- Basic role of affect- A persons emotional state positive or negative feelings and moods

Need to affiliate

- Importance-
- **Evolutionary perspective**
- Ancestors interact socially and co-operative way in obtaining food, protecting one another from danger and reproducing
- Human infant born with motivation to affiliate
- Predisposed to look forward faces
- Newborns are responsive to human faces
- Infants engage in social smiling
- We respond automatically to facial cues such as smiles and frowns

Need to affiliate

- **Individual differences**
- People are not at all same
- Differ in the strength of their need for affiliation
- Differences based on genetics or experience, constitute a relatively stable trait

Need to affiliate

- Two types

Conscious explicit need to Affiliate

- Individual high on this tend to be sociable and to affiliate with many people

Less Conscious implicit need to affiliate

- Individuals interact primarily in limited, close, two person situation

How we react when affiliate needs are not met ?

- Experience is very unpleasant
- Sad, Angry
- Social exclusion leads to increased sensitivity to interpersonal formation and result in less effective cognitive function.

Situational influence related to affiliation need.

- It include external factors
- When people are reminded of their own mortality—At that time a common response is, the desire to affiliate with others.
- Stressful situation, anxiety , tension
- Common response to natural disaster
- Threats like flood, earth quake, blizzard.
- In all these situation strangers come together and help each other.

Situational influence related to affiliation need.

- **Reason**
- In dangerous situation such affiliation provides the opportunity for social comparison.
- People want to be with others in order to communicate about what they are experiencing and compare their affective reactions.
- It leads to “**cognitive Clarity**” in order to understand what is going on and “**Emotional Clarity**” in order to make sense of just what it is and what we are feeling.
- Conversation and hugs both are comforting

Affect

- A persons emotional state –positive and negative feelings and moods

Two important characteristics



Intensity

- The strength of the emotion



Direction

- Whether emotion is positive or negative

Direction

Positive

Negative

weak



Intensity

Strong



Affect

- Evolutionary perspective
- Ancestors try to avoid- unpleasant stimuli, hostile events.
- Seek Whatever pleasant ,hospitable
- In effect we “built for pleasure”.

Affect

- All emotions fall along a single dimension with positive feelings on one end and negative feelings on the other.
- The presence of two separate kinds of affect means- we can feel both positively and negatively at the same time ; that is we response to situations with ambivalence

Positive affect

- Explore novel aspects
- Joy
- Interest-strong feelings of determination
- Activation-Alert, Attentive

Negative affect

- Warns us to vigilant
- Watching out for danger
- Anxiety
- Tension

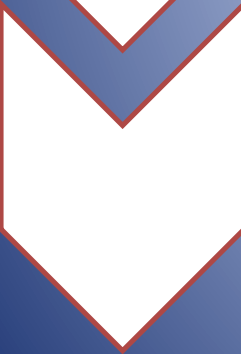
Affect and Attraction



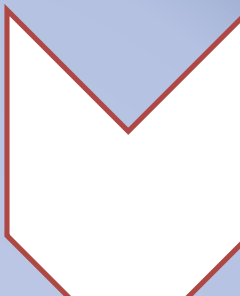
- Positive affect



- Liking



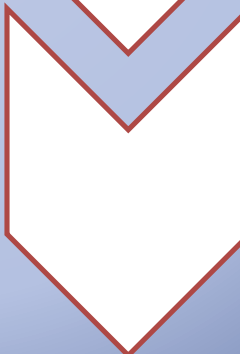
- Positive evaluation



- Negative affect



- Dislike



- Negative evaluation

Affect and Attraction

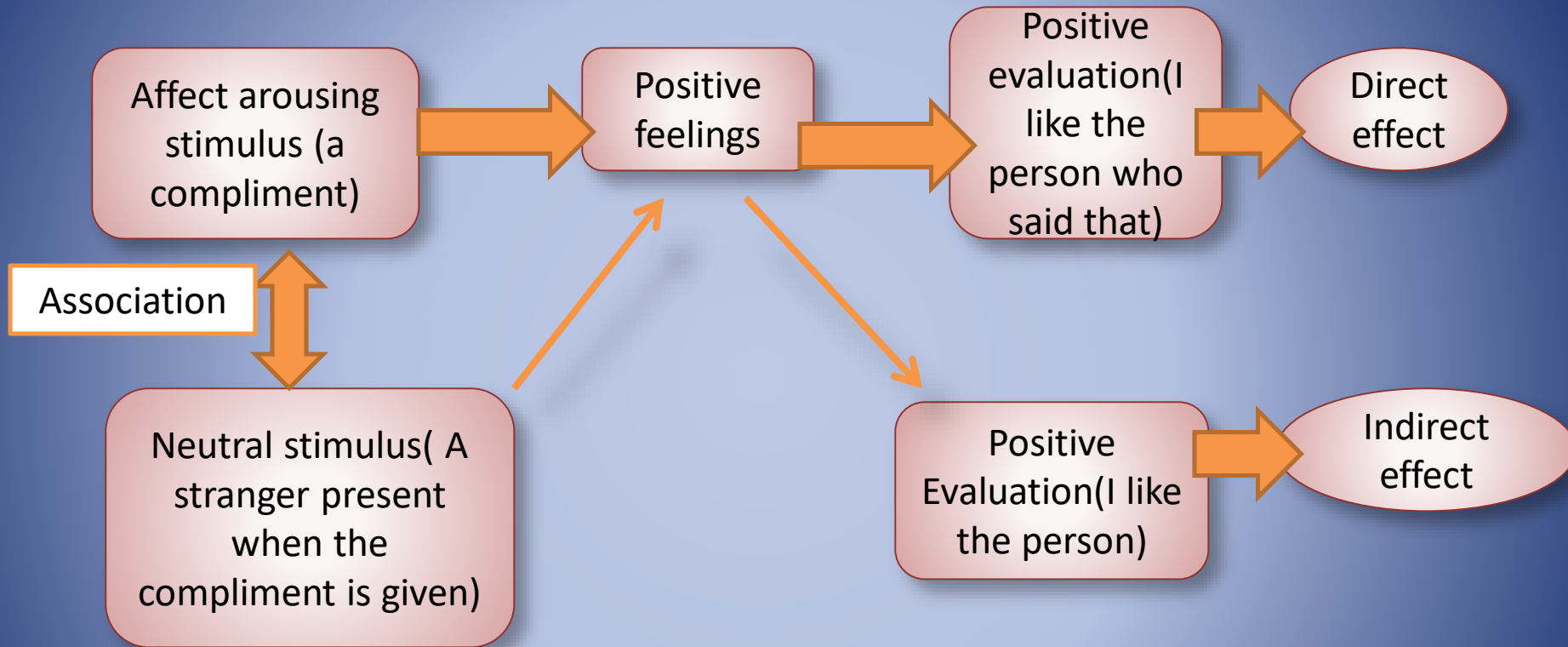
Direct Effect of Emotion on Attraction

- Another person says or does something that makes you feel good or bad

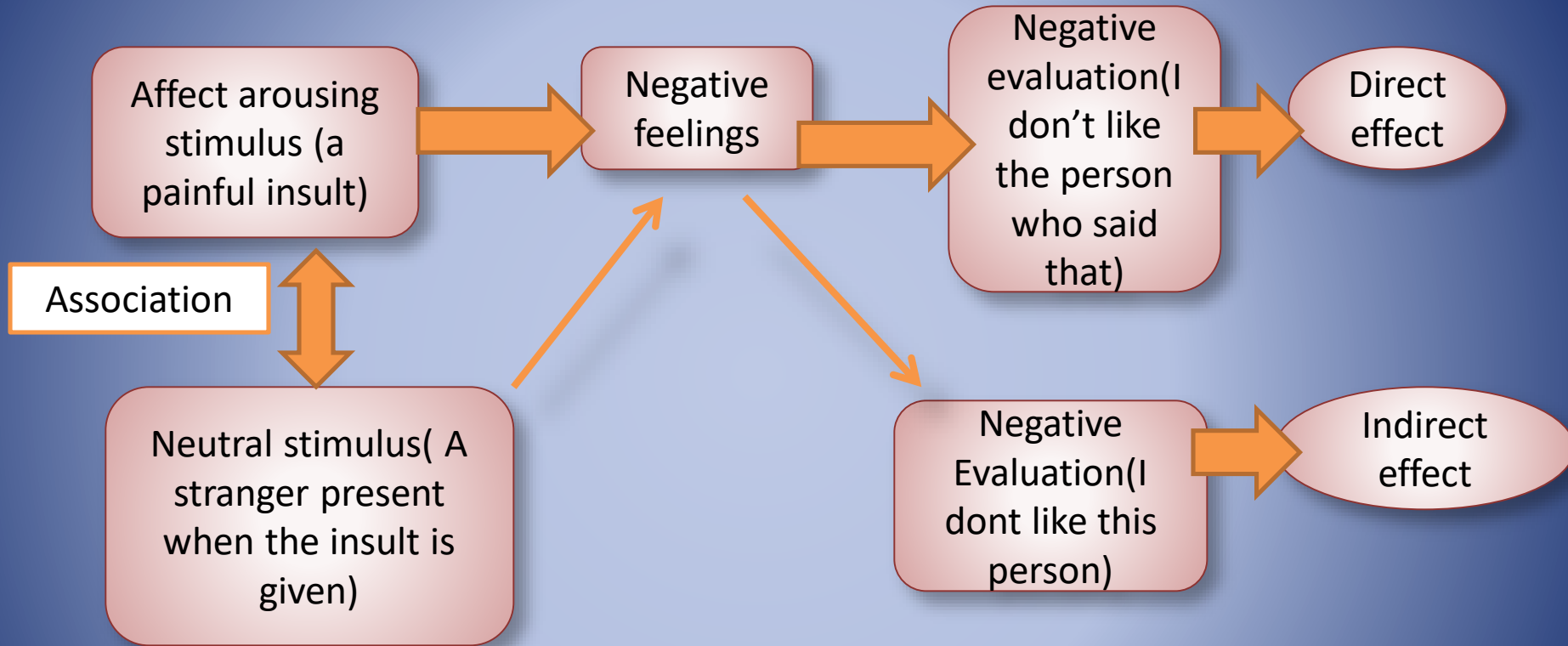
Associated Effect of Emotion on Attraction

- Based on classical conditioning
- This effect occurs when another person is simply present at the same time that one's emotional state is aroused by something or someone else

Affect and Attraction

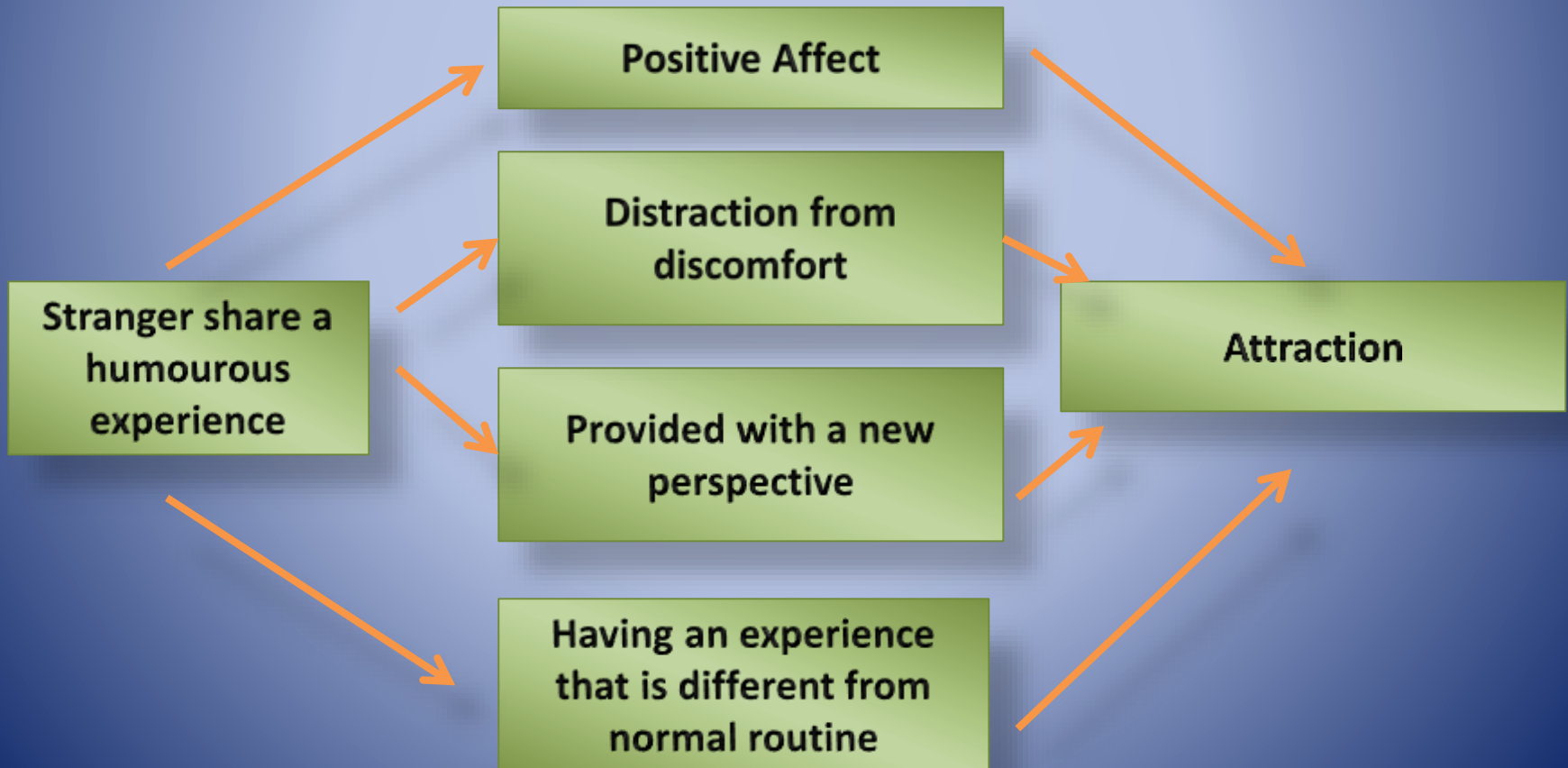


Affect and Attraction



Additional Implication of the Affect-Attraction Relation

- Laughter and liking
- Humor is a social lubricant, pleasant, nonthreatening



Applications of Associated affect

- **Manipulating affect to influence Behaviour**
- The application of associated affect is a common element in both commercial and political advertising. For eg.
- Sales person-----Free samples, compliments, gifts
- Advertisement-----Bright image, smiling faces, attractive colours
- Political candidates-----positive images of themselves, --courageous, moral, caring. Negative images of opponents----incompetent, corrupted, destructive.
- The approach is most effective when directed at an audience that is relatively unaware and uninformed.

External determinants

- Proximity

- the physical closeness of two people is *the single best predictor* of the development of a social relationship
 - more likely to know our neighbors than people 10 blocks away.

External determinants

- **Proximity**

In attraction research , the physical closeness, between two individuals with respect to where they live, where they sit in a class room, where they work, and so on, the smaller the physical distance, the greater the probability that the two people will come into repeated contact, experiencing repeated exposure to one another, positive affect and the development of mutual attraction.

- Why proximity result in attraction?
- **The reason** is that **repeated exposure** to a new stimulus results in an increasingly positive evaluation of that stimulus(zajonc, 1968).
- Zajonc's finding that frequent contact with any mildly negative, neutral, or positive stimulus results in an increasingly positive evaluation of that stimulus.

- Mere exposure effect

Another term for repeated exposure effect --- emphasizing the fact that exposure to a stimulus is all that is necessary to enhance the positive evaluation of that stimulus.

- participants shown pictures of people
 - Some shown more than others
- participants then rated each face for likeability
- Results
 - ratings and the number of times a picture was presented were positively correlated
 - replicated with actual people as well

- Zajonc (2001) explains the effect of repeated exposure by suggesting that we ordinarily respond with at least mild discomfort when we encounter anyone or anything new and unfamiliar.
- Whatever is unknown and unfamiliar is always at least potentially dangerous.
- With repeated exposure however, in the absence of harmful consequences, negative emotion decreases and positive emotion increases.
- **Familiarity** with stimulus reduces any feelings of uncertainty-suggesting that is safe.

Familiarity

- Why mere exposure or familiarity?
 - Evolutionary Reasons
 - innate fear of the unknown
 - Repeated exposure → Recognition → Predictability
 - Assumption that familiar = similar

Limits to mere exposure

- Only effective when:
 - the person is initially perceived as *positive* or *neutral or mildly negative*.
 - that person's interests are not in conflict with those of the perceiver's
- too much exposure → boredom

Applications- effects of proximity

- Architects have designed offices and neighborhoods in a way that encourages interaction and communication.
- we can select relatively isolated or relatively interactive locations in a variety of settings.

Observable characteristics

- **Physical characteristics**

- The combination of characteristics that are evaluated as beautiful or handsome at the positive extreme and as unattractive at the negative extreme.

Appearance anxiety- apprehension or Worry about whether one's physical appearance is adequate and about the possible negative reactions of other people

Observable characteristics

- Based on studies----Most people tend to believe that attractive men and women are-----
 - More poised
 - Well adjusted
 - Socially skilled
 - Successful
 - More masculine or more feminine than unattractive individuals
- People assume that “What is beautiful is good”

- **Beautiful-is-good stereotype** ---The belief that physically attractive people possess a wide range of positive characteristics.
- **Matching Hypothesis**---- Suggests that people are attracted to those whose level of physical attractiveness is similar to their own.

Cross-cultural studies-----

- Positive stereotypes about attractiveness are universal, specific content of the stereotypes depend upon characteristics most valued by each culture.

Individualistic culture-

Individual characteristics

Self esteem

Self confidence

Eg. America

Collectivistic culture-

Group characteristics

Integrity

Concern for others

Eg.korea, china

- Sometimes widely held appearance stereotypes are incorrect
- Evil individuals-Saddam Hussein's sons can be good looking
- Many individuals who do not look like movie stars- Bill Gates for eg. are intelligent, interesting ,kind and so forth

- Appearance does not create social skills and high self esteem but such characteristics are developed because of the way other people have reacted to appearance

Other aspects

- Clothing-neatness, colour
- Observable disabilities
- Mental illness
- Perceived age
- Presence of eye glasses
- Man's facial hair

Factors Involved in Interpersonal Attraction

- Physical Attractiveness
 - Determining Attractiveness
 - symmetric faces
 - baby faces
 - “averaged” faces rated more attractive than “distinct” faces
 - cultural and historic influences

Factors Involved in Interpersonal Attraction

- **Physique-body type-**
- Round-fat body-sad, sloppy
- Hard and muscular body-good health, lack of intelligence.
- Thin angular body- intelligence and fearfulness

Factors Involved in Interpersonal Attraction

- Overt behavior like observable characteristics- youthful walking style- positive response
- Firm hand shake- extrovert and emotionally expressive
- Height- dominant, authoritative, competitive
- Food preferences, style of eating
- Person's first name

Mate Selection

Top 10 Qualities in a Romantic Partner (Gilmour, 1988)

- Women

1. successful
2. leadership
3. good job skills
4. earning potential
5. sense of humor
6. intellectual
7. attractive
8. commonsensical
9. athletic
10. logical

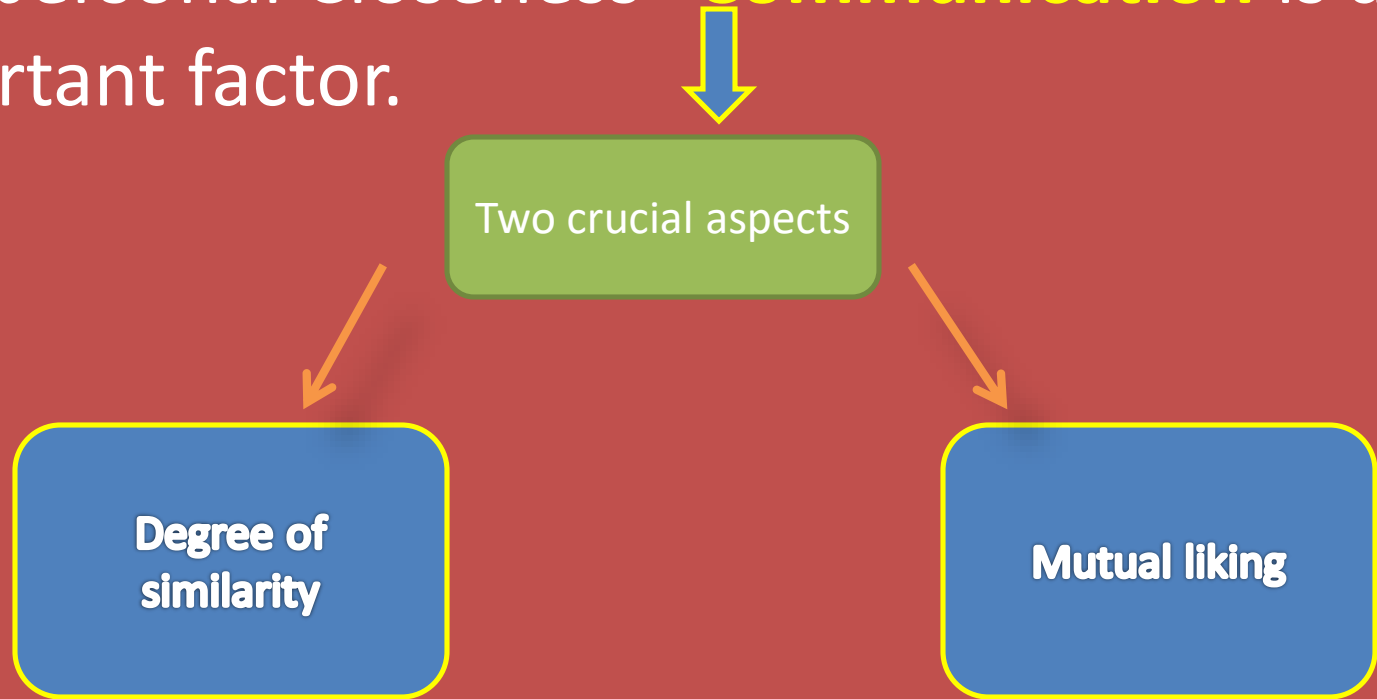
- Men

1. leadership
2. good job skills
3. attractive
4. affectionate
5. good social skills
6. good homemaker
7. stylish
8. sensitive
9. moral
10. artistic

- Interpersonal attraction and judgments based on stereotypes are strongly affected by various observable characteristics of those we meet, including physical attraction.
- People like and make positive attributions about attractive men and women of all ages, despite the fact that assumption based on appearance are usually inaccurate.

INTERACTIVE DETERMINANTS

- Interpersonal Closeness--**Communication** is an important factor.



INTERACTIVE DETERMINANTS-

Similarity

- Attitudes
- Beliefs
- Values
- Interests

Attitude similarity----The extent to which two individuals share the same attitudes about a range of topics.

- The term also include similarity of beliefs, values and interests.

Similarity- Dissimilarity Effect (Byrne 1961)

- People respond positively to indications that another person is similar to themselves and negatively to indications that another person is dissimilar from themselves.

Proportion of similarity (Byrne & Nelson, 1965)

- The number of topics on which two people express similar view is divided by the total number of topics on which they have communicated.
- The Higher the proportion of similarity the greater the liking, and greater the attraction.

Repulsion hypothesis – (Rosenbaum, 1986)

Repulsion Hypothesis-Attraction is not increased by similar attitudes but is simply decreased by dissimilar attitudes.

Later research was able to state that the idea is wrong (Smeaton, Byrne & Murnen, 1989).

The hypothesis is incorrect as stated, but it is true that dissimilar attitudes tend to have negative effects that are stronger than the positive effects of similar attitudes. (Chen & Kenrick 2002; Singh & Ho, 2000; Tan & Singh, 1995)

Explaining the effect of similarity- Dissimilarity

- Why does similarity  Positive affect?
- Why does dissimilarity  Negative affect?

1, Oldest Explanation- **Balance theory**

- Was proposed independently by Newcomb(1961) and Heider(1958).
- It specifies the relationship among
- **1, An individual's liking for another person.**
- **2, His or her attitude about a given topic**
- **3, The other person's attitude about the same topic**

Balance theory

- When two people like each other and discover that they are similar in some specific respect, this constitute a state of balance and balance is emotionally pleasant .
- When two people like each other and found out that they are dissimilar in some specific respect, the result is imbalance, which is emotionally unpleasant, causing the individuals to strive to restore balance by inducing one of them to change and thus create similarity , or by misperceiving the dissimilarity or simply by deciding to dislike one another.

- Liking + Agreement=**Balance** → Positive emotional state
- Liking + Disagreement=**Imbalance** → Negative emotional state → Desire to restore balance
- Disliking+ Either agreement or disagreement=**Nonbalance** → Indifference

2, Social Comparison Theory (Festinger's Social Comparison Theory, 1954)

- We compare our attitudes and beliefs with those of others because the only way we can evaluate our accuracy and normality by finding that other people agree with us.
- This is not a perfect way to determine the truth, but it is often the best we can do

3, Evolutionary Perspective

- **An adaptive response to potential danger**

-Gould (1996) suggest that our primitive ancestors (those who lived in the forest) time onwards we have negative reaction to dissimilar others

-A great deal of human animosity is based on reactions to dissimilarity.

“ If you are not like me I hate u” (Zoglin,1993)

“ Programmed into the human soul is a preference for the near and familiar” (McDonald, 2001)

Basic alternative reactions to the strangers(Horney, (1950)

- Our ancestors could have moved **towards them** with a friendly intent
 - **Away from them**, out of fear. or
 - **against them with** an aggressive intent.
- Survival and hence reproduction would best be enhanced.

- ***Adaptive response***- Any physical characteristics or behaviour tendency that enhances the odds of reproductive success for an individual or for other individuals with similar genes .
- Each species is genetically programmed like this--- we are automatically vigilant in reacting to cues that alert us to positive or negative consequences of interaction and therefore approach or avoid those cues.

Similarity and interpersonal attraction- Applications

- Similarity is directly reinforcing
- Similarity confirms our world view
- Similarity provides knowledge of others traits
- Similarity leads to inferences that others will like us.

Affect -centered model of attraction

- This is the idea that attraction is based on positive and negative affective responses that lead us to make positive and negative evaluations.
- A conceptual framework in which attraction is assumed to be based on positive and negative emotions. These emotions can be aroused directly by another persons or simply associated with that persons. The emotional arousal can also be enhanced or mitigated by cognitive processes.

External stimulus events

Affective and cognitive processes within the individual

Evaluative and behavioural reaction

Person B

Person B

Environment events such as pleasant or unpleasant

Affective processes that range from positive to negative

Evaluative responses such as attraction towards person A

Person A

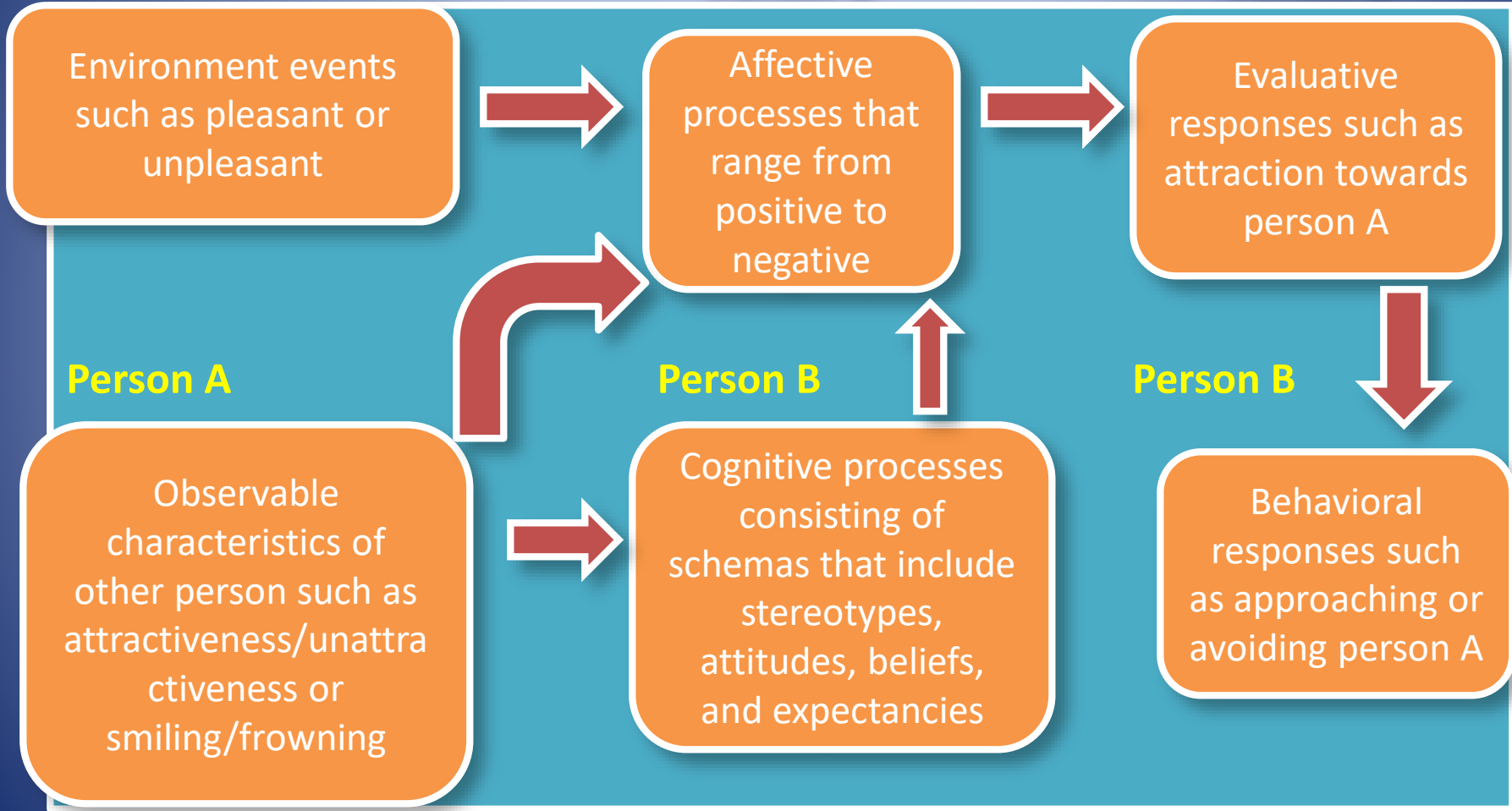
Person B

Person B

Observable characteristics of other person such as attractiveness/unattractiveness or smiling/frowning

Cognitive processes consisting of schemas that include stereotypes, attitudes, beliefs, and expectancies

Behavioral responses such as approaching or avoiding person A



- For eg. B evaluates A.

Attraction towards a given person(Person A) is based on

- **1,the relative number of positive and negative affective responses that are aroused by that person(observable characteristics),**
- **2,by other external events(environmental events),**
- **3,or by internal factors, including cognitive processes(schemas stereotypes of B).**

The net affective state (of B that ranges from positive to negative)forms the basis of an evaluative response such as like or dislike (Towards person A) and also of a behaviour reponse such as approach or avoidance.

Reciprocity of liking

- “The social psychological finding which states that you like those who like you.”
- “ I like you Because you like me.”

Dissimilarity of personality and attraction

- Dissimilarity of personality may lead to increased interpersonal attraction- If the differences allow one person to fulfill more effectively the needs of another.

Need complementarity Hypothesis

- The notion that individuals are attracted to others who have significantly different personalities, but whose needs compliment their own.
- Eg. Useful in marriage partners.

Interpersonal repulsion

- The desire to escape from another's presence.
- It is the opposite of interpersonal attraction.

Theories of interpersonal attraction

1, Learning Approach

- ❖ Reinforcement affect model

2, Cognitive approach

- ❖ Comparison level theories
- ❖ Equity theory
- ❖ Balance theory

Learning approach

- Liking follows the basic principles of learning embodies in classical and operant conditioning.
- The model is known as reinforcement –affect model. (Byrne & Clove, 1970),(Lott &Lott,1974).

Reinforcement –affect model.

- The model suggest that the positive emotions people experience in the presence of someone who is rewarding lead to attraction, where as negative emotions(punishment) leads to reductions in attraction.

Cognitive Level theories

- Focus on people's perceptions of relationships they hold with others. i.e. How people's thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and perceptions determine their liking for others. (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959).

- **1, Comparison level theories**

- Suggest that attraction to others is based on comparison of a relationship to some hypothetical base line.
- The baseline is known as comparison level,- is a kind of summary of the past outcomes that have been experienced or that are prominent in a given situation.
- If the rewards received from the relationship are above the person's comparison level → **satisfied with the relationship**
- Below the person's comparison level → **dissatisfied with the relationship**

- **2,Equity Theories**

- It takes comparison level theories a step further
- Suggesting that people take into account not only their own outcomes, but also the outcomes that one perceived to be attained by others.
- According to this view people try to maintain a balance between the rewards and costs they experience themselves and those experienced by a friend or partner in a relationship.

- **3, Balance theory**

- People strive for consistency or balance in their likes and dislikes (Heider, 1958).

Love

- A combination of emotions, cognitions, and behaviors that often play a crucial role in intimate relationships.

- **Passionate love** (romantic love or infatuation)
- An intense and often unrealistic emotional response to another person.
- When this emotion is experienced, it is usually perceived as an indication of true love, but to outside observers it appears to be infatuation.
 - emotionally charged
 - characteristic of earlier stages
 - preoccupation with mate
 - described as uncontrollable

Types of Love

• **Passionate love**

- extreme absorption with and desire for one another.
- intense psychological feelings
 - Little logic and reasoned consideration
- generalized physiological arousal, strong sexual desire
 - Increased heartbeat, sweating, blushing, stomach butterflies, etc.
- avoid conflict, overlook faults
- feelings of completeness
- short-lived; usually occurs early in a relationship.

- **Companionate love**

- Love that is based on friendship, mutual attraction, shared interests, respect and concern for one another's welfare.
 - practical, realistic, moderate
 - trust, caring, and tolerance of flaws
 - develops slowly

Types of Love

- **Companionate love**

- less intense
- friendly affection & deep attachment
- extreme familiarity
 - Reflected in sexual relationship; partners feel comfortable discussing what pleases one another and share familiarity and sexual trust.
- desire to overcome difficulties and work through conflicts
- more enduring than passionate love

- **Unrequited love**
- Love felt by one person for another who does not feel love in return

Love-Sternberg's (1986) Triangular Theory

- Sternberg's conceptualization of love relationships consisting of three basic components: Three components
 - **Intimacy**
 - feelings of closeness
 - can be present in all loving relationships
 - **Passion**
 - drives that lead to intense emotions
 - differs depending on type of relationship
 - **Commitment/ decision**
 - decision to love someone
 - short vs. long term

- **Intimacy**

In Sternberg's triangular model of love , the closeness felt by two people- the extent to which they are bonded.

- **Passion**

In Sternberg's triangular model of love , the sexual motives and sexual excitement associated with a couple's relationship.

- **Decision or commitment**

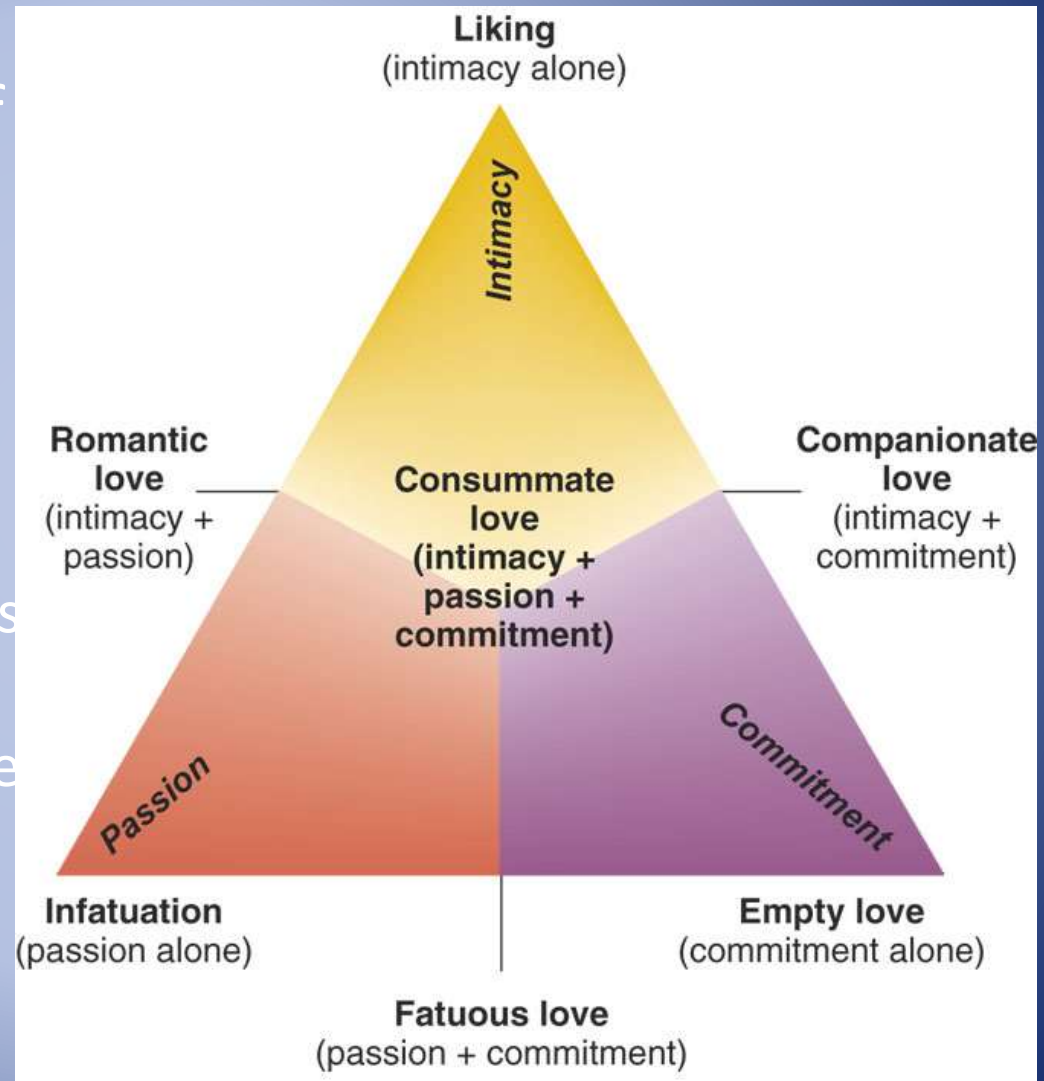
In Sternberg's triangular model of love, these are the cognitive processes involved in deciding that you love another person and are committed to maintaining the relationship.

Sternberg's Triangular Theory of Love

- All 3 components are important dimensions of loving relationship

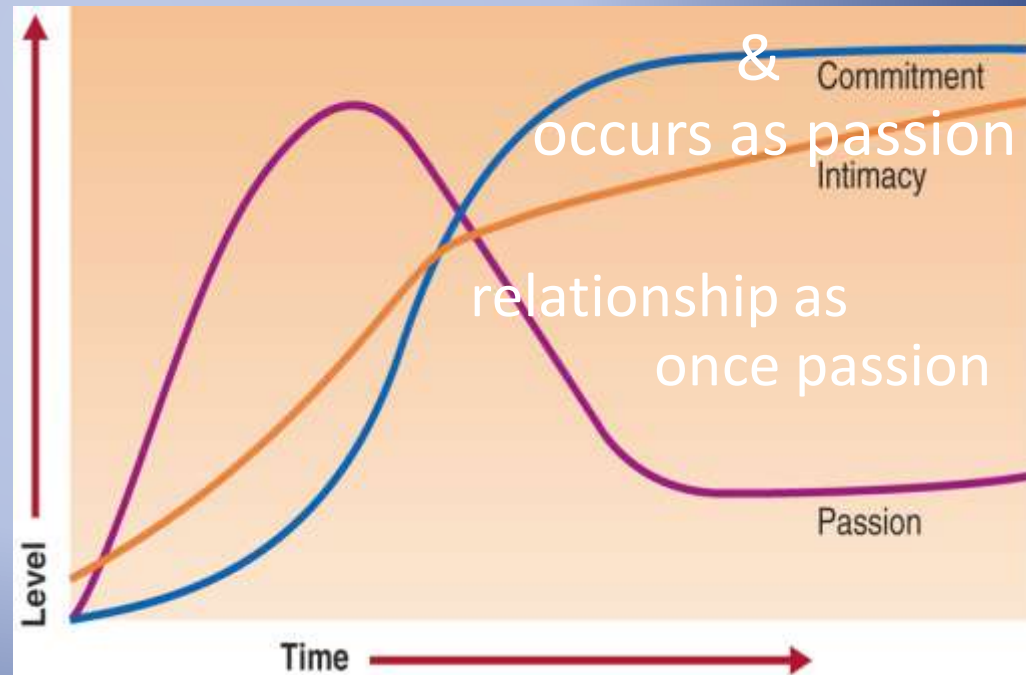
The 3 components exist in different patterns and to varying degrees

- Different combinations produce different types of love.
- Can also change over time



Sternberg's theories, (cont.)

- Passion component of love peaks early in a relationship, and then declines.
- Intimacy and commitment components build gradually over time.
- Conceptual basis for transition from passionate to companionate love.
- Growth in intimacy commitment grows weaker
 - Can sustain a difficulties arise fades



Lee's Styles of Loving

- **Romantic (*eros*):** a passionate physical love based on physical appearance and beauty
- **Game-playing (*ludus*):** love is played as a game; love is playful; often involves little or no commitment and thrives on “conquests”
- **Possessive (*mania*):** highly emotional love; unstable; the stereotype of romantic love; its characteristics include jealousy and conflict.
- **Companionate (*storge*):** an affectionate love that slowly develops, based on similarity and friendship.
- **Altruistic (*agape*):** selfless altruistic love; spiritual
- **Pragmatic (*pragma*):** inclination to select a partner based on practical and rational criteria where both will benefit from the partnership

PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

- *A helpful action that benefits other people without necessarily providing any direct benefits to the person performing the act, and may even involve a risk for the person who helps.*

Altruism

- Behavior that is motivated by an unselfish concern for the welfare of others.
- Interchangeably used with prosocial behaviour

Responding to Emergency

- Assistance to a stranger in danger
- Extremes from heroism to apathetic indifference
- Heroism: actions that involve courageous risk taking to obtain a socially valued goal
- Some one who engages in risky behaviour is not a hero

- Saving ones own life may be valuable ,but not heroic
- Nursing some one is a prosocial act but not heroism
- Eg: 1900's Carnegie Hero Medal for those who saved other's life ,risking thei own life.
- Orld war II ,those who saved Jews from the Nazi threat.

- Becker and Eagly (2004) used the term hero to those individuals who take risks in less dangerous and dramatic ways- donating kidney, joining doctors to treat victims of the natural disaster

- Event of murder in 1960's in New York City
Ms. Catherine Genovese
One person tried to stab her
People from the apartments overlooked the
event without providing help, not even
calling the police (Rosenthal, 1964)

More witness, more help???

- What will happen if some emergency IN PUBLIC PLACE?

- Darley and Lantane (1968)

Diffusion of responsibility: the amount of responsibility assumed by bystanders to an emergency is shared among them.

If only one bystander is there the responsibility is centered on one.

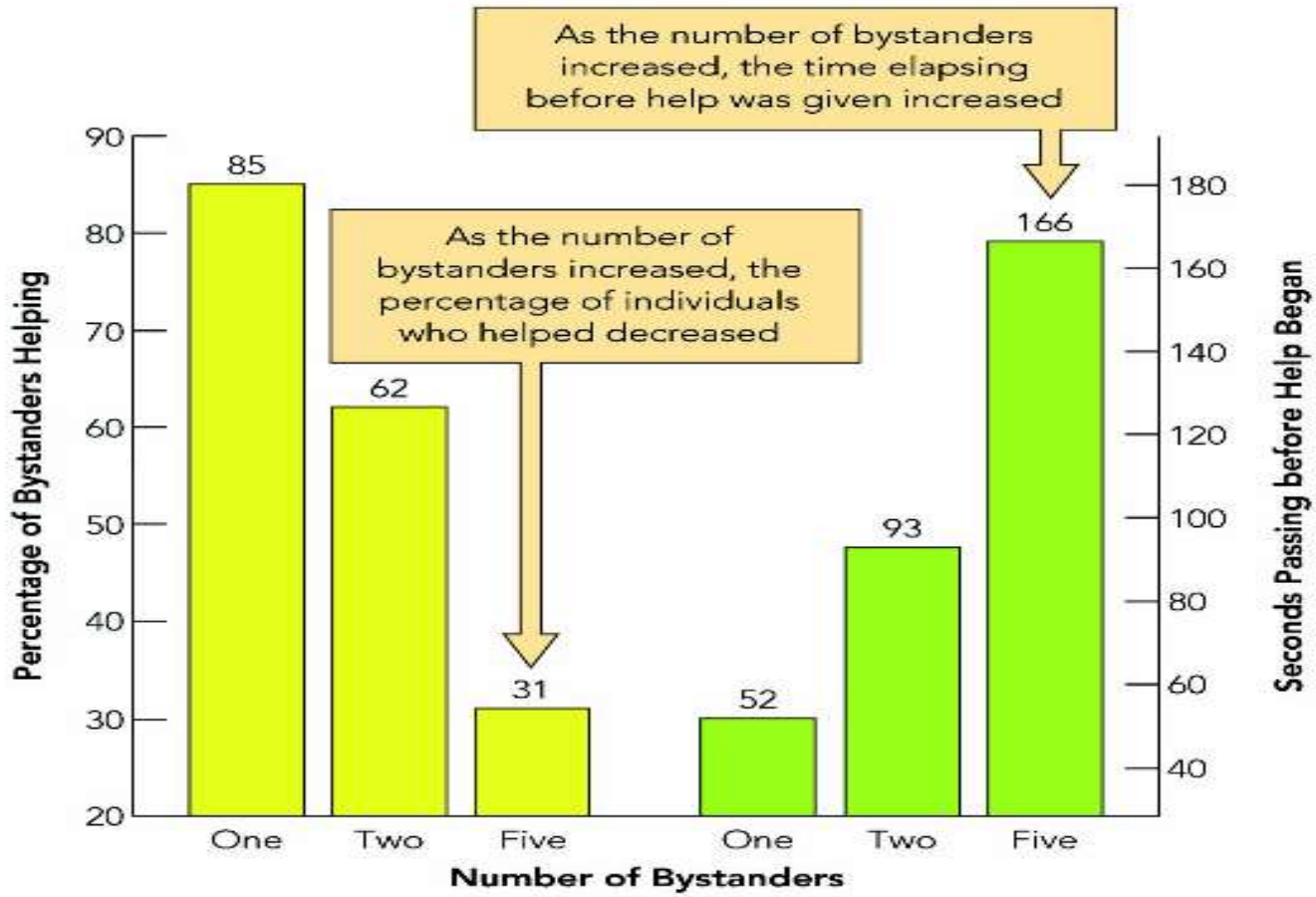
- Bystander effect:

the fact that the likelihood of a prosocial response to an emergency is affected by the number of bystanders who are present.

Experiment designed to check bystander effect by Darley and Latane (1968)

In a college fellow student called for a medical emergency.

- Each research participant believed himself to be either the only bystander aware of the emergency, one of two or one of five
 - 1) As the number increased the % of individuals who tried to help decreased.
 - 2) Also the greater the delay before the help was initiated.

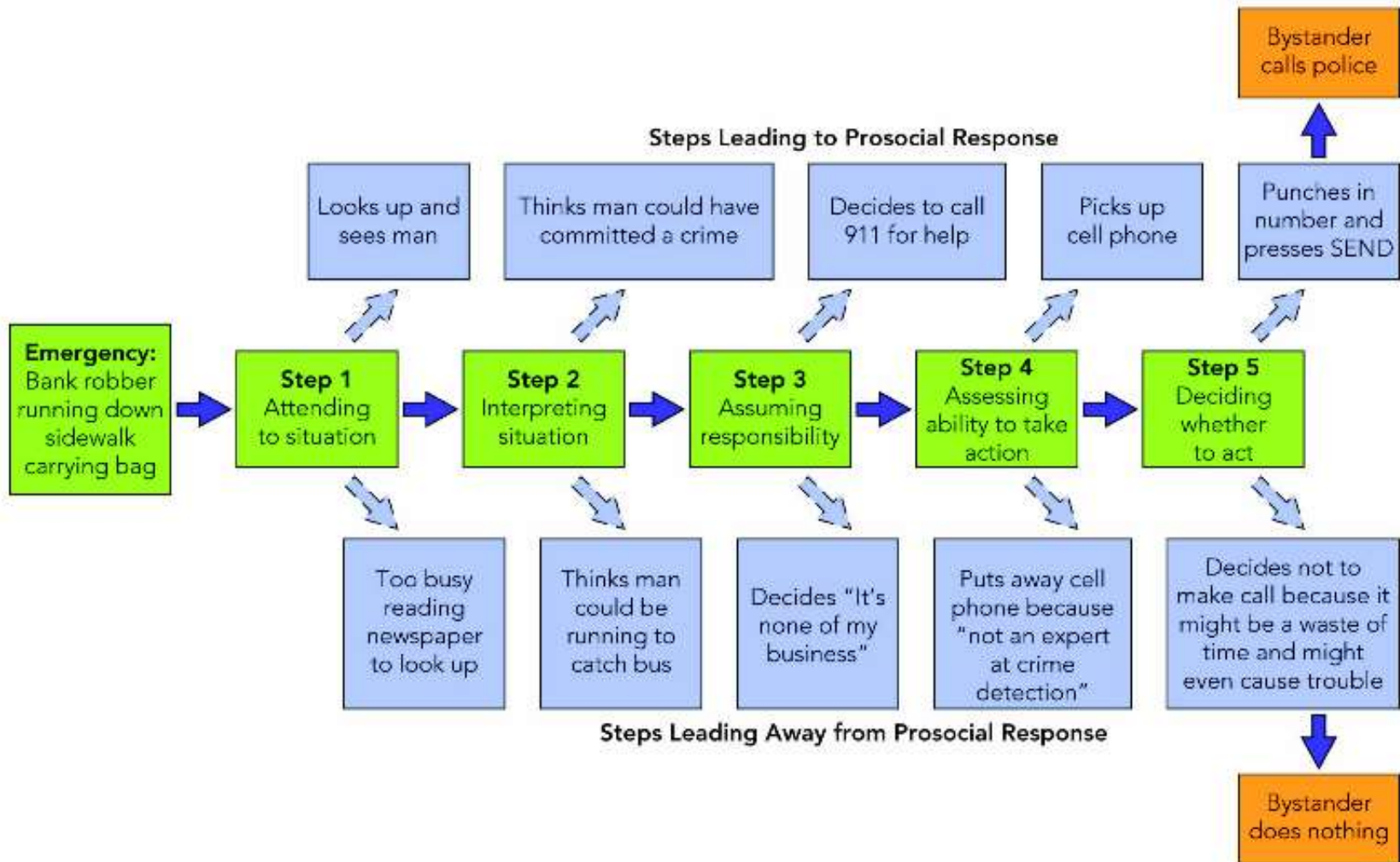


5 crucial steps determine HELPING Vs not Helping

– Correctly interpret that event is an emergency

- When information is ambiguous, people accept a comforting explanation that an emergency is not occurring.

– And, if others are present, may use them as a guide regarding what is happening.



Responding to an Emergency

Step 1: noticing or failing to notice something unusual is happening

When individuals are preoccupied with personal concerns, the prosocial behaviour is reduced

Darley & Boston (1973) study with clergy

Step 2: correctly interpreting the event as an emergency

Whenever potential helpers are not completely sure about what is going on they tend to hold back and wait for further information

Most people are inclined to accept a comforting and undemanding and usually accurate interpretation that indicates no need to take action. (in the kitty murder case- two people are in verbal dispute or argument with boy friend etc)

Pluralistic Ignorance—tendency of bystanders to rely on what other bystanders do and say, even though none of them is sure about what is happening or what to do about it and this “information” is used to justify the failure to act

- » Latane and Darley’s (1968) smoke-filled room experiment showed that people will risk harm to themselves rather than possibly look foolish.

» This is less likely to happen when people are friends rather than strangers, living in a small town versus a big city, or drinking alcohol. Inhibiting effect is less in these situations

Step 3: Deciding to take responsibility

If responsibility is not clear People may think that the person in the leadership role assumes all responsibility.

Step 4: Deciding that one has the necessary knowledge and/or skills to act

- If special skills are required, not everyone can help. Eg: medical emergency

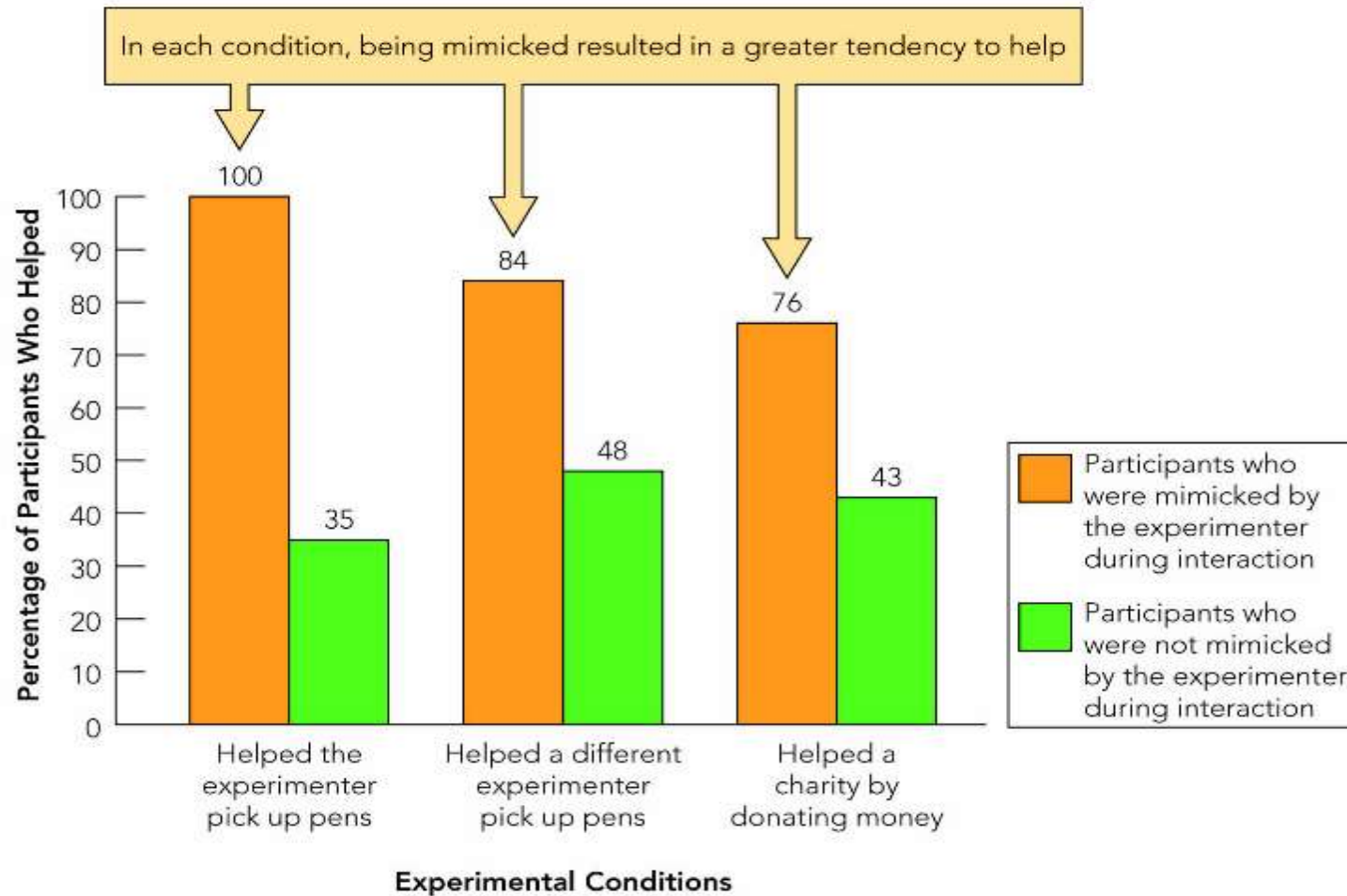
Step 5: Making the final decision to help

- Thoughts of negative consequences can inhibit some people from helping.

External and Internal Influences

- Situational Factors that Enhance or Inhibit Helping
 - People tend to help others they like
 - People are more likely to help someone they know and also someone who is similar to them.
 - Attractive victims receive more help than do unattractive ones.
 - Men help women more than they do other men.
 - People tend to help others who mimic them
 - *Mimicry—the automatic tendency to imitate those with whom one interacts, and results in the increase in one's prosocial tendencies*

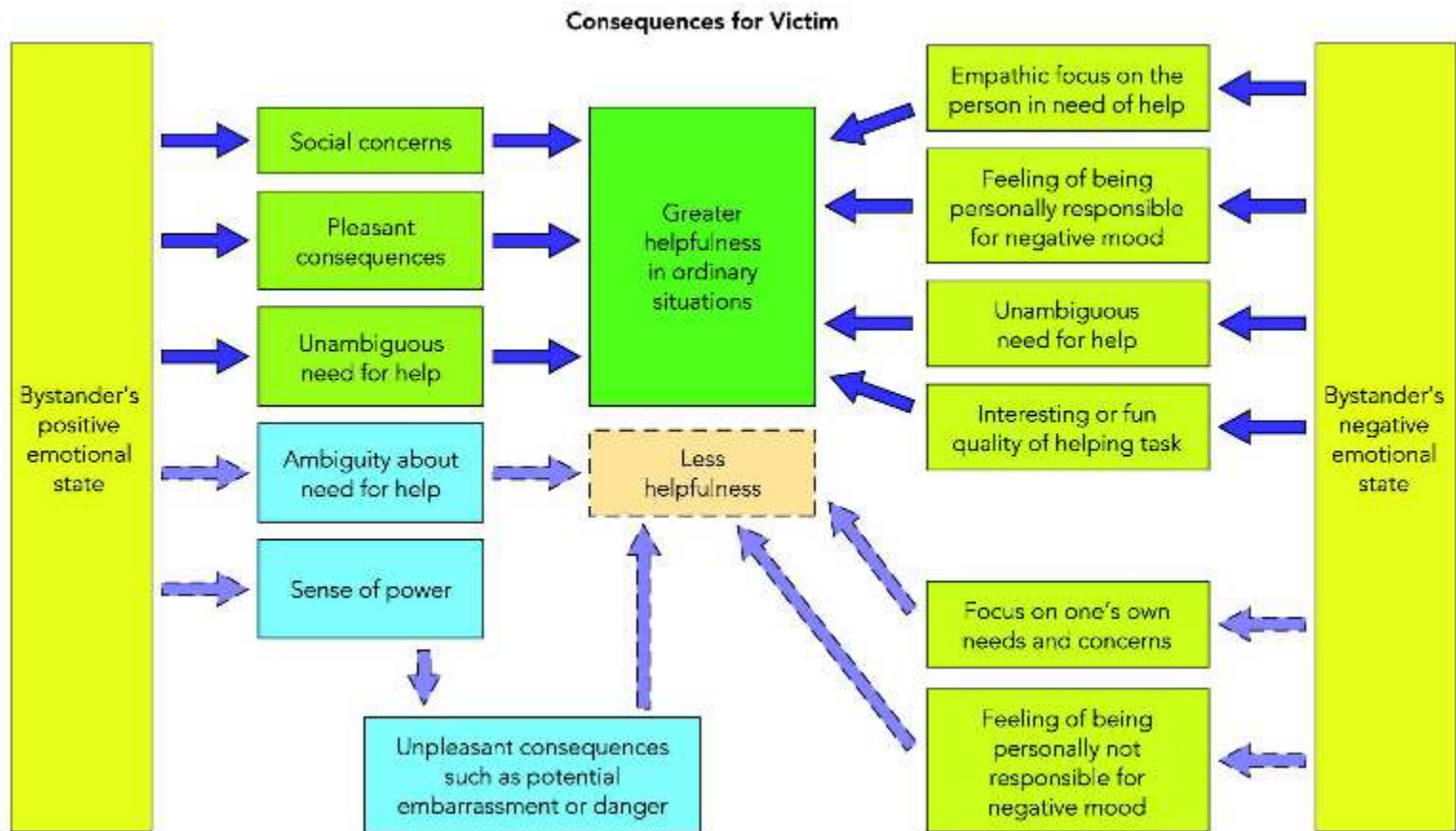
External and Internal Influences



External and Internal Influences

- People tend to help those who are not responsible for their problem
 - People are more likely to help if they think that the victim is not to blame for his or her circumstances.
- People tend to help when exposed to prosocial models
 - The observance of someone else helping increases the likelihood that a person will help.
 - Helpful models in one's environment and in the media help to promote a social norm that values prosocial behavior.

- Emotions and Prosocial Behavior
 - Positive emotions and prosocial behavior
 - In general, people are more helpful when they are in a good mood.
 - Negative emotions and prosocial behavior
 - If the act of helping can improve one's mood, a person may help.



- Empathy and Other Personality Dispositions Related to Helping
 - ***Personality Dispositions—behavioral tendencies based on genetics, learning experiences, or both, which tend to be stable over time and across situations***
 - ***Empathy—complex affective and cognitive response to another person’s emotional distress***
 - Feeling the other person’s emotions, feeling sympathetic, trying to solve the problem, and taking the perspective of others

» Three types of perspective taking have been identified: imagining how the other person perceives an event and how he or she must feel as a result, imagining how one would feel if one was in that situation, identifying with fictional characters.

– How does empathy develop?

» Genetic factors play a role in the affective components of empathy.

» Environmental factors include a secure attachment style and exposure to empathic parental, media, and peer models.

- Women express higher levels of empathy compared to men.
- Empathy is increased when the victim is similar and if one has experienced the same negative event.
- Empathy is related to a sense of well-being, achievement motivation, sociability, and a consistently positive emotional state.

- Other personality variables associated with helping
 - Interpersonal trust
 - *Altruistic Personality—combination of dispositional variables associated with prosocial behavior*
 - Empathy (feel what the other person feels)
 - Belief in a just world (good deeds get rewarded)
 - Social responsibility (it is one's duty)
 - Internal locus of control (in control of one's outcome)
 - Low egocentrism (not self-absorbed)

Long-Term Commitment to Helping

- *Volunteering*
 - People spend many hours engaging in voluntary acts that help others.
 - Volunteering involves the same steps as does responding to an emergency.
 - Noticing the problem, interpreting it accurately, assuming responsibility, deciding how to act, and engaging in the behavior

– Volunteering differs by ethnic group in the United States

- Whites tend to help animals, the environment, and emergency personnel.
- African Americans tend to help homeless or hungry people, groups fighting for civil rights, and religious institutions.
- Asian Americans tend to help museums and other artistic and cultural institutions.
- Hispanics tend to help immigrants and people in other countries

– Motives for volunteering

- Strong motivation to help others (especially in cases like helping victims of AIDS)

1. Personal values, 2. to understand more about a situation, 3. to enhance personal development, 4. to gain experience in a career, 5. to improve personal relationships, 6. to reduce guilt or escape from personal problems

- Most success in recruiting a volunteer happens when recruitment message matches a person's motives
- Motives are related to turnover
 - Those who continue to volunteer usually are motivated to increase understanding, self-esteem, and personal development

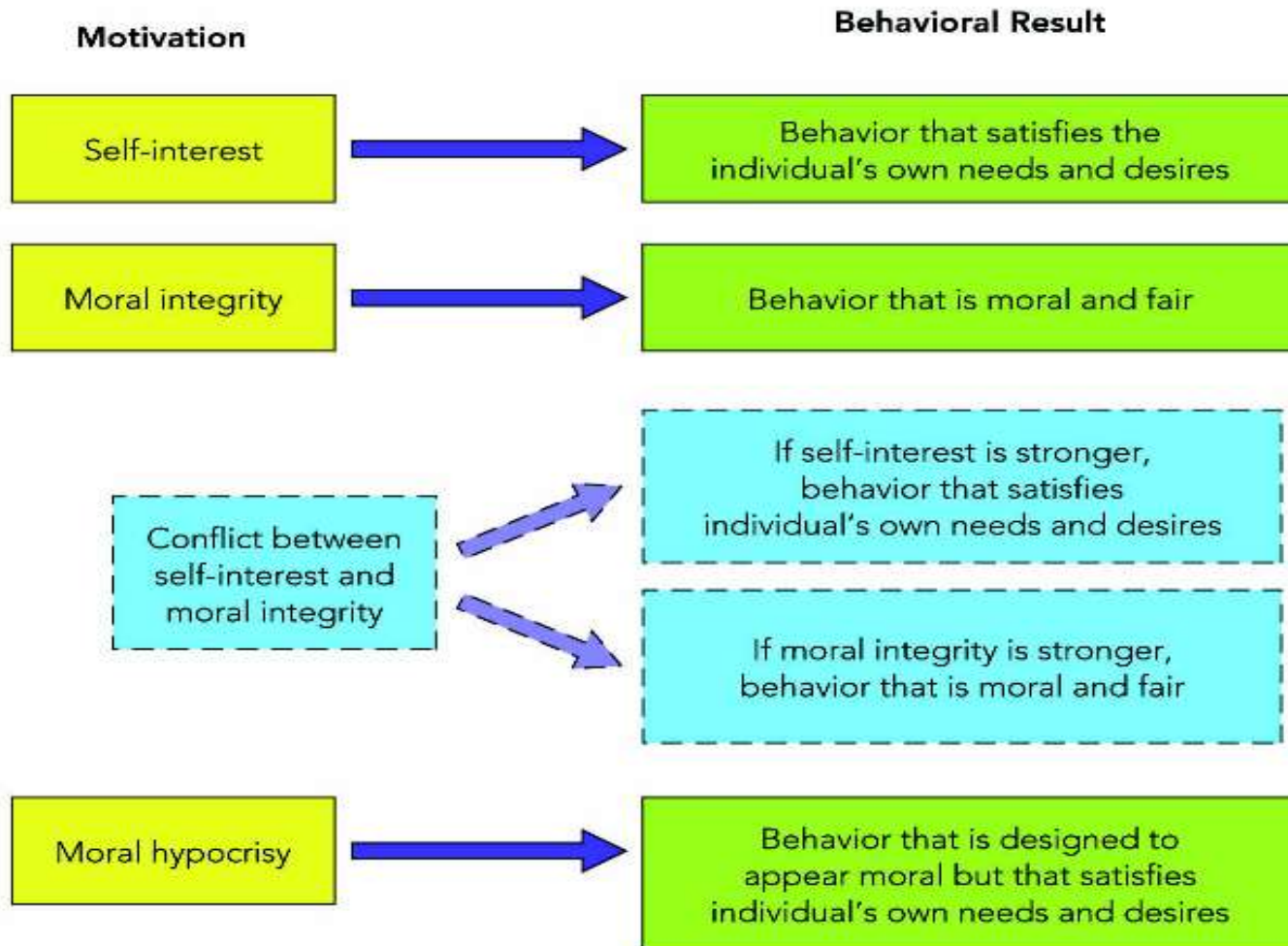
- Volunteering because of mandates, altruism, or generativity
 - Requiring people to volunteer can decrease interest in volunteering in the future.
 - Volunteers have similar dispositional traits as do people who engage in other forms of altruistic behavior.

- *Generativity—**an adult’s commitment to the well-being of future generations***
 - High generativity is associated with volunteerism.

- Self-Interest, Moral Integrity, and Moral Hypocrisy
 - People tend to overestimate how often they act morally and believe that they are more likely to engage in selfless acts than are most other people.
 - Motivation and morality
 - Three major motives that affect how someone acts when faced with a moral dilemma are self-interest, moral integrity, and moral hypocrisy.

- **Self-Interest** — *motivation to engage in whatever behavior provides the greatest satisfaction for oneself*
 - » **Egoism** — *exclusive concern with one's own personal needs rather than with the needs of others*

- **Moral Hypocrisy**— *motivation to appear moral while doing one's best to avoid the costs involved in actually being moral*
- **Moral Integrity**— *motivation to be moral and actually to engage in moral behavior*



– Making morality more salient

- May increase the motive to act based on moral integrity

– However, some people will act in their own self-interest even when they know that it is less fair and less moral.

» Others only appear to act morally and will cheat to hide their egoistic motives.

- How Does It Feel to Be Helped?
 - Being helped can be unpleasant
 - Self-esteem may suffer
 - More likely when the person who helps is similar to the receiver and the offer is perceived as patronizing or expressing superiority.

- Helpers are liked when receivers believe help was offered because of positive feelings toward them.
 - Evokes the reciprocity norm
- When help is unpleasant, it can motivate self-help
 - Self-help can decrease feelings of dependency.

The Basic Motivation for Helping

- Why Would Anyone Ever Help?
 - Empathy-Altruism: It feels good to help others
 - ***Empathy-Altruism Hypothesis*** (Batson et al., 1981)—***prosocial behavior is motivated solely by the desire to help someone in need***
 - People are more likely to help others for whom they feel much empathy.

– Negative-State Relief: Helping makes one feel better

- ***Negative-State Relief Model*** (Cialdini et al., 1981)—***prosocial behavior is motivated by the bystander's desire to reduce his or her own uncomfortable negative emotions***

- Empathic Joy: Helping as an accomplishment
 - *Empathic Joy Hypothesis* (Smith et al., 1989)—*prosocial behavior is motivated by the positive emotion a helper anticipates experiencing as the result of having a beneficial impact on the life of someone in need*
 - Feedback about the impact of the act needs to be given.

– Genetic Determinism: Helping as an Adaptive Response

- *Genetic Determinism Model* (Pinker, 1998)—
behavior is driven by genetic attributes that evolved because they enhanced the probability of transmitting one's genes to future generations

- Greater genetic similarity between two organisms is associated with an increased likelihood that one will help the other.
- ***Inclusive Fitness—concept that natural selection applies not only to individuals, but also involves behaviors that benefit other individuals with whom genes are shared (kin selection)***
 - » People are more likely to help a close relative and to help young relatives rather than old relatives.

- *Reciprocal Altruism*—cooperative behavior among unrelated individuals that benefits both individuals because when A helps B, B is motivated to reciprocate at some point by helping A, which also benefits the larger group to which both A and B belong
- Helping others appears to lead to a specific reaction in the brain.

Theoretical Explanation for Prosocial Behavior

Motivation for Helping

Reason That Helping Occurs

Empathy-Altruism Hypothesis

Person observes emergency



Empathy is aroused



Person provides help simply because victim needs help and because it feels good to provide help

Negative-State Relief Model

Person observes emergency



Negative affect is aroused by the emergency situation, or person is experiencing negative affect based on something else



Person provides help in order to reduce own negative affect and make the helper feel better

Empathic Joy Hypothesis

Person observes emergency



Situation leads to desire to act and to have a positive effect on the victim



Person provides help in order to engage in an activity that has a successful outcome, making the helper feel good

Genetic Determinism Model

Person observes emergency



Unconscious desire to help occurs if the person perceives the victim to be genetically similar to himself or herself



Person provides help in order to maximize the chances of survival of genes that are like those of the observer

	External Situation	Bystander's Genetically Influenced Responses	Bystander's Cognitive, Affective, and Dispositional Processes	Behavioral Responses to Person in Need	Effects on Bystander
Negative Influence on Prosocial Response	<p>Multiple bystanders Ambiguous emergency Presence of person with responsibility Cues to dislike: dissimilarity, unattractiveness Absence of prosocial model</p> <p>Person in need of help →</p>	<p>Underlying genetic propensity to avoid or attack unfamiliar humans</p>	<p>Unaware of emergency Misinterpret emergency accurately Failure to assume responsibility Lack of necessary skills Considerations of potential negative consequences Negative affect Assumes victim is responsible for problem Motivated by self-interest Aggressive Machiavellian Egocentric</p>	<p>→ Failure to respond →</p>	<p>Either no effect or guilt</p>
Positive Influence on Prosocial Response	<p>Being the only witness Cues to attraction: similarity, attractiveness Presence of prosocial model Exposure to prosocial models in media</p>	<p>Underlying genetic propensity to like familiar humans</p>	<p>Aware of emergency Interprets emergency Assumes responsibility Possesses necessary skills Decision to help Personal experience with similar emergency Assumes victim is not responsible for problem Positive affect: pleasant smell being mimicked Empathy Sense of well-being Achievement oriented Sociable Interpersonal trust Motivated by moral integrity Generativity</p>	<p>→ response →</p>	<p>Brain reaction indicating pleasure Empathic joy Helper's high Less negative mood Positive affect Sense of achievement</p>