

Social Psychology

DPSY670

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DPSY670 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Sr. No.	Content
Unit 1	Introduction to Social Psychology : nature, definitions, historical roots, theories, methods, scope, current trends
Unit 2	Social Cognition: Social schemas, Types of schema, Prototypes, Social encoding, Salience, Vividness, Accessibility Social inference, Heuristics, Improving social inference
Unit 3	Self and identity: Individual versus collective self, Symbolic interactionist self, Social identity and personal identity, consequences of social identity salience
Unit 4	Social Influence: attitude formation, social comparison, Obedience to Authority, Resisting Influence and Persuasion
Unit 5	Group Cohesion and Conformity: Group Cohesion , Group Structure and Goals, Roles in Groups, Conformity, Group Norms, Increasing Conformity
Unit 6	Interpersonal Relation: Formal relationship, close relationships, interdependent relationships, romantic relationships, marriage
Unit 7	Pro Social Behavior: altruism and pro social behavior, external and internal influences, theoretical perspectives, bystander intervention
Unit 8	Stereotyping, Prejudice and Discrimination: nature, origin and effects, techniques for countering effects
Unit 9	Culture: Defining culture, Rise of cross-cultural psychology, Communication, language and speech style, , cross-cultural challenge, Multicultural challenge
Unit 10	Leadership: Definition & types, Social identity and leadership, Trust and leadership, Gender gaps and glass ceilings, Intergroup leadership
Unit 11	Symbolic Communication : Nonverbal Communication, Types of Nonverbal Communication, Combining Nonverbal and Verbal Communication
Unit 12	Social Structure and Communications: Gender and Communication, Social Stratification and Speech Style, Communicating Status and Intimacy
Unit 13	Applied Social Psychology : Aggression, Personal Space, Territory and Crowd
Unit 14	Social Psychology in Action : Health, Environment and Law

Unit -I INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Learning Outcomes

1.1 Objectives

1.2 Introduction

1.3 Nature and Definitions of social psychology

1.4 Social psychology is scientific in nature

1.5. Social Psychology Studies the Experience and Behaviour of Individuals

1.6. Understand causes of social behavior and thought

1.7 Historical roots of social psychology

1.7.1 Historical developments: the emergence of modern social psychology

1.7.2 The second stage of development

1.7.3 People's psychology

1.7.4 Mass Psychology

1.7.5 Theory of instincts of social behaviour

1.8 Theories of Social Psychology

1.8.1 Middle range theory

1.8.2 Cognitivism

1.8.3 Interactionism

1.9 Scope of Social Psychology:

1.9.1 Societal level analysis

1.9.2 Individual level analysis

1.9.3 Interpersonal level analysis

1.10 Methods

1.10.1. Observational method

1.10.2 Correlation method

1.10.3 Experimental method

1.10.4 Metaanalysis

1.11 Current trends

1.11.1 Population Psychology

1.11.2 Health Psychology

1.11.3 Environmental Psychology

1.11.4 Industrial organizational psychology

1.11.5 Legal system and social psychology

1.11.6 Growing influence of cognitive perspective

1.11.7 Multicultural perspective

1.11.8 Sociobiology and evolutionary social psychology

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1.1 Objective

Objective going through this unit, you would be able to

-) To describes nature and definition of social psychology
-) To describe historical roots of social psychology
-) To explain scope of social psychology
-) To describes method of social psychology
-) To explain theories of social psychology
-) To describes current trends of social psychology

1.2 Introduction

The term is basically a combination of psychology and sociology, where these two terms emerged in the early 20th century. It is considered as modern and ultra-modern as well. It analyses the nature and the relation of man to the society. It focuses on the individuals in different social situation such as person to person interaction, or group related activities. A social psychologist uses different scientific methods to study individuals about how they react, act, or perceive the social situations. In this unit we will be dealing with definition and nature of social psychology, scope of social psychology, historical perspective of social psychology, theories, method and current trends of social psychology as associated to other disciplines.

1.3 Nature and Definitions of social psychology

As the term “social” already states that interacting with others around us, the term social psychology clearly means to analyze a person or a group of people in social settings. The demand of social psychology has increased to study different behaviors of different individuals at various social settings, like industries, educational institutes, etc. to help the individuals and their superiors have a better understanding that which social environment is better to work calmly.

1.4 Social psychology is scientific in nature

Social psychology is a science because it evaluates and provides explanations of human behaviour. It is a collection of carefully made observations. Careful observation requires gathering of information about issues and processes of interest, plus an attitude of scepticism. To test a hypothesis, social psychologists may do research that predicts behaviour using correlational studies, often conducted in natural settings. Or they may seek to explain behaviour by conducting experiments that manipulate one or more factors under controlled conditions. Once they have conducted a research study, they explore ways to apply their findings to improve people’s everyday lives.

1.5 Social Psychology Studies the Experience and Behaviour of Individuals

Social psychology typically studies and explains the human behavior, which is both observable, and the internal emotions of the individuals at different social settings. The stimulus for these situations can be a person-to-person interaction, a group interaction, or a cultural setting. "Social stimulus situation has some important capacities for change that non-social social stimulus situation lacks" (Mc David and Harari 1995: 16).

1.6 Understand causes of social behavior and thought

Social psychology not only studies the behavior, but also the theories and causes that might have led to the particular behavior or phenomena. Following are five factors have been most studies that affect the social interaction of an individual:

- J Basic cognitive processes: memory, reasoning, belief, ideas, judgements about others.
- J Ecological Variables: direct and indirect influences of the physical environment.
- J The cultural context: cultural norms, membership in various groups.
- J Biological aspects of human behaviour.
- J Genetic inheritance relevant to social behaviour.

The basic assumption behind studying and explaining the social behaviour of a person is: "Accurate and useful information about even the most complex aspects of social behaviour and social thought can be acquired through the use of basic methods of science" (Baron & Byron 1995; 13). Thus, social psychology is the scientific study of behavior of individuals in social and cultural context. It explains and analyses the causes behind behaviors which may be related to the one or

DEFINITIONS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Floyd Allport (1924) has defined social psychology as "the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, groups and culture".

Gordon W. Allport (1968) states that social psychology is a discipline "that attempts to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of an individual are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others."

more than one factors mentioned above.

1.7 Historical roots of social psychology

Just like the other sciences, the phases that occurred in the development of social psychology are similar to them. The first phase of the earliest phase in the development of a science is the arm chair phase. All the development related to the pre-conditions of social psychology is similar to that of the other sciences. Its roots began from the philosophy, and then branched its system from psychological knowledge.

1.7.1 Historical developments: the emergence of modern social psychology

- Social thought before the advent of social science

Two earlier forms of social thought are Platonic and Aristotelian.

-) Platonic: Emphasised the primacy of state over the individual who had to be educated to become truly social.
-) Aristotelian: States that human being is social by nature and nature can be trusted to enable individuals to live together and to enter personal relationships from which families, tribes and ultimately the state will naturally develop.

These two are known as socio centered approach and individual centered approach in the modern times.

-) Socio centered approach - Socio centred approach emphasises the determining function of social structures (systems, institutions and groups) for individual experience and behaviour.
-) Individual centered approach - These are said to be explicable in terms of individual processes and functions.

For Hegel (1770-1831), the German philosopher, the state is not only the ultimate form of society but the incarnation of the objective social mind of which individual minds are active participants. The notion of Group Mind is derived from Hegel's supra-individual nature.

Social psychology has been defined as the scientific study of the individual in social context. Individualism has been an inherent property of the discipline. Individualistic doctrine says that all the explanations of individual social phenomena are to be rejected unless they are expressed in terms of individual. Individualism in psychology has been characterised and criticised for the self-centred denial of the other. It has two forms in sociological thought:

-) Hedonism: People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and to avoid and reduce pain.
-) Utilitarianism: The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

Utility and satisfaction are important constructs involved in many social psychological theories.

From Machiavelli (1513) and Thomas Hobbes (1651) the concept of power and its role in social relationships returned in social psychology. The concept of social power or social influence is properly framed in social exchange theory.

In Lewinian field theory 'power' became the term for the potential to influence others while control and influence refer to the power of action. In 19th century, two major areas affected the modern social psychology, that is, sociology and theory of evolution.

1.7.2 The second stage of development

- Social psychology emerges as a discipline.

Three moments are very important in this stage, that are, (Galina Andreyeva 1990) :

- ⌋ The requirement concerning the solution of socio-psychological problems which aroused in various related sciences.
- ⌋ The processes involved in the separation of socio-psychological problems within the two parent disciplines: psychology and sociology.
- ⌋ The description of the first forms of independent socio- psychological knowledge.

Three socio-psychological theories were more important in the mid-19th century, that are:

- a) People's psychology.
- b) Mass psychology.
- c) Theory of instincts of social behavior.

1.7.3 People's psychology

It was the first form of socio-psychological theory in Germany in the mid-19th century. Renowned creators of people's psychology were Moritz Lazarus (1824-1903) and Heymann Steinthal (1823-1893).

Journal of People's Psychology and Linguistics (1859).

- ⌋ In this journal, the article by Lazarus and Steinthal entitled "Introductory Thoughts on People's Psychology" was printed.
- ⌋ The article stated that the idea, that the main force of history is the people, or the 'spirit of the whole', which can be seen in art, religion, language, myths, customs etc.
- ⌋ The individual consciousness is only its product, a link in a certain mental connection.

The task of social psychology was to understand the psychological matter of the spirit of the people and discover the laws that guide the spiritual activity of the people.

- Wilhem Wundt (1832-1920).
- ⌋ Wundt (1900) proposed that psychology consists of two parts: physiological psychology and people's psychology.
- ⌋ Physiological psychology, was an experimental discipline, but experimentation is not useful for the study of higher mental processes: thinking and language.
- ⌋ For the areas like language, myths, customs and art people's psychology need to adopt other methods.
- Criticism of Wundt's views by Vygotsky.
- ⌋ People's psychology considered language, myths, customs, art and religion as objectives of study. Vygotsky called these clots of ideology or crystals.
- ⌋ He wanted to study the crystals as well as the solution itself. He stated that social psychology should study the mentality of collective personality. The personality of the individual, he said, is also social and is therefore an object of study in social psychology.

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-) Lev Vygotsky dealt with two questions directly related to the development of social psychology. The higher mental functions (arbitrary memory, active attention, abstract thinking and volitional act) could not be considered immediate functions of the brain, roots of these functions lie in social condition.
 -) He expounded upon the idea of cultural historical determination of all mental processes.

1.7.4 Mass Psychology

This theory developed in France in the latter half of the 19th century. The creators of mass psychology were Italian Lawyer Scipio Sighele (1868-1913) and French sociologist Gustave Le Bon (1841-1931), began with Gabriel Tarde's (1843- 1904) basic ideas on the role of irrational movements in social behaviour and the role of imitation.

According to Le Bon any accumulation of people represented the idea of the mass. In the late 19th and the early 20th century, rapid social and economic changes occurred due to industrialisation and urbanisation. People's psychology did not develop within the context of academic psychology. It did not have any significant consequences as regards the future of social psychology.

1.7.5 Theory of instincts of social behaviour

McDougall's theory proposed that inborn instincts are the cause of social behaviour. In his views, tendencies of imitation and suggestion are rooted in their biological nature. In spite of great popularity of McDougall's ideas, they played a negative role in the history of science. Recognition of instincts as the motive force behind the social behaviour gave importance to the irrational and unconscious motives. Human understanding and thought processes were not given much attention. The overcoming of the theory of instincts is deemed to be an important milestone in the formation of scientific social psychology.

The beginning of experimental research

The social psychology came into experimental science in the early 20th century, after the First World War. The first study of an individual's performance is affected by the presence of others was Norman Triplett's 1897 experiment on "the dynamogenic effects of pace making".

The experimental investigations by Walter Moede in Europe and Floyd Allport in US served as a milestone in this process. Allport compared the performance of individuals working alone with that of the persons working either before an audience or in the presence of others engaged in the same activity. He found that the latter condition often improved performance. The phenomenon is known as the social facilitation effect. In 1924 Allport published the first social psychology textbook making extensive use of experimental research.

1.8 Theories of Social Psychology

Kurt Lewin is often referred to as the father of applied social psychology. He believed that significant social problems can be investigated in the laboratory with experimentation. He favoured the analyses based on individual's understanding of the situation surrounding him or her. Some main theory is related to social psychology also explain are details below:

- J Theodore Newcomb (late 1930s) assessed the social and political attitudes held by college students and demonstrated how their attitudes were modified by the views prevailing at the college (Peer influence).
- J Muzafer Sherif (1935) studied the nature and impact of social norms- rules indicating how individuals ought to behave.
- J In 1939, Dollard, Doob and Miller demonstrated the relationship between frustration and aggression.
- J Kurt Lewin, Lipitt and White (1939) carried out revealing research on the nature of leadership and related group processes. The main attention began to be focused on the small groups which facilitated experimental method.

1.8.1 Middle range theory

The idea of creating “middle range theory” was first developed by Robert Merton. Middle range theories are the theories that account for a specific aspect of social behaviour and do not try to encompass all of social life. The field theory of Kurt Lewin is often considered a model of middle range theory. The greater part of social psychological theories existing today (theories of frustration aggression, changes of attitudes, cognitive dissonance, cooperation and competition etc.) belong to the bracket of middle range theories. At present, the theories of middle range are mostly concentrated around four trends: behaviourism, psychoanalysis, cognitivism and interactionism.

Table: Major Psychological Theories and their relationship to social psychology (Source: McDavid & Harari, 1994: P.37)

Theory	Relationship to Social Psychology
Psychoanalytic	The Individual in Society Model of man: Homo valence (the striving man). Man as a creator of society, rather than its product.
Cognitive	Homo Sapiens (the thinking man). Society is represented in man’s experience as a part of his life space.
Behaviouristic	Homo Mechanicus (the reactive man). Society provides a set of stimulus conditions that operate as cues and reinforcers for behaviour.
Cognitive	Studies of attitudes and values, language and thought, group dynamics and action research.

Behaviouristic	Experimental and theoretical, Study of socialisation, social reward and punishment.
Psychoanalytic	Current Status in Social Psychology
Cognitive	Decreasing significance.
Behaviouristic	Maintaining Stable significance. Increasing significance

) Clark Leonard Hull introduced the concept of intervening variables.

-) Elaboration of the theory frustration-aggression of Norman Miller and John Dollard is the major contribution of behaviourism to social psychology. Neobehaviourism seeks to create a standard of scientific research in social psychology, involving thoroughly developed laboratory experiments
-) The Authoritative Personality (1959) is a good example of psychoanalytic contribution to social psychology. Authoritarian personality describes a cluster of traits that predispose individuals towards acceptance of extreme political ideologies such as Nazism.

1.8.2 Cognitivism

-) Cognitivism in social psychology began with Gestalt psychology and the field theory of Kurt Lewin.
-) The examination of social behaviour from the point of view of cognitive processes of the individual is its basic principle.
-) The theory of cognitive balance states that main motivating factor of individual behaviour is the demand for the establishment of a balance of his cognitive structure.
-) The theory of balanced structures by Fritz Heider, the theory of communicative acts by Theodore Newcomb, the theory of cognitive dissonance by Leon Festinger and the theory of congruence by C. E. Osgood and Tannenbaum all relate to the theory of cognitive balance.
-) Cognitivism emphasised the role of humanisation in social psychology, underlining the role and the significance of mental formations in explaining the social behaviour of the individual.

1.8.3 Interactionism

-) Interactionism includes George Herbert Mead's work on the theory of symbolic interactionism.
-) Contemporary social psychology interactionism include not only the development of Mead's ideas, but also a group of different theories combined under the one name, namely role theory and reference group theory.

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. Sheriff (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 favoring 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.
A Maturing Field: 1970s and 1980s	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)

1990s and beyond	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 behaviors.
Current Trends	Evolutionary social psychology, the changing world, technology and human social behaviour, Neurocognitive perspective and social behaviour.

1.9 Scope of Social Psychology:

1. First, it tries to understand how the thoughts, feelings and behaviors of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other(s). This includes social perception, social interaction, and the many kinds of social influence (like trust, power, and persuasion). It tries to understand the influence that individual perceptions and behaviors have upon the behaviour of groups. How does persuasion work to change group behaviour, emotion or attitudes?
2. Second, it tries to understand the influence of individual perceptions and behaviors have upon the behaviour of groups. This includes looking at things like group productivity in the workplace and group decision making.
3. Third, and finally, social psychology tries to understand groups themselves as behavioral entities and the relationships and influences that one group has upon another group.

Social Psychology and other disciplines

1.9.1 Societal level analysis

Its goal is to identify links between broad social forces and general patterns of social behaviours. This analytical approach is adopted by sociologists, economists and political scientists. These scholars attempt to understand general patterns of social behaviours.

1.9.2 Individual level analysis

This is used in clinical psychology and by the personality psychologists who explain behaviour in terms of a person's unique personality characteristics and life history. With the help of personality traits and motives the reasons of people's behaviour can be explained. At this level of analysis, violent crimes will be explained in terms of unique histories and characteristics of the criminal.

1.9.3 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. One social explanation suggests that frustrating situations make people angry and increase their tendency to act aggressively.

1.10 Methods

The difference between theoretical and applied research is not a qualitative one but rather a matter of degree (Feldman 1985: 21). Pure theoretical work in social psychology is aimed at the building of a basic body of knowledge and facts about the social world. While applied research is meant to provide immediate solutions to immediate problems. But both researches have relevance for each other.

There are 4 types of methods:

1.10.1. Observational method

Observation is to simply observe the phenomena under study as it occurs naturally (Hilgard and Atkinson 2003: 21).

) This method plays a very important role in the collection of data on overt behaviour and the actions of individuals. The main problem involved in the application of this method include, what to observe? How to fixate the observations? How to structure observation? What should be the units of observation in social psychological research, and the definite interval of time for observation.

) It proceeds in following two stages:

- i. Describing behaviour – It starts with behaviour observation in natural settings. The observation may be based on the questions like what do people do? Can various behaviours be classified in systematic ways? How do people differ in their behaviors?
- ii. From description to causes – The method of systematic observation tells us what do people do and how they differ in their behaviours. It may also be used to find out what caused the observed behaviours.

) Observational method can be relatively informal and unstructured or it can be formal and structured.

) The nature of research setting or topic dictates that observation is conducted in a relatively informal and unstructured manner with the researcher posing as a member of the group being observed.

) Formal methods of observation can be used when it is possible to record actions relevant to the research question without disturbing the occurrence of behaviour. In non-participant observation observers record people's behaviour but do not actually participate in their activities.

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-) The most formal type of observational methods is one in which the researcher uses a predetermined category system for scoring social behaviours. Such a system was developed to study interaction in small groups. The verbal exchanges between group members are coded in terms of 12 predetermined categories. The scores of group members can then be used to determine who the leader of the group is.
 -) Advantages:
 - i. They can often be made without disturbing the naturally occurring behaviours.
 - ii. Even where people know that they are being observed, enacting behavior may be quite engrossing.

Limitations:

- i. Some behaviours cannot be observed directly, or are difficult to observe.
- ii. social psychologists are often interested in measuring people's perceptions, cognitions or evaluations, none of which can be directly assessed simply through observation. For these self-report measures or other techniques are often used.

1.10.2 Correlation method

Correlation is a relationship between two (or more) variables such that systematic increase or decrease in the magnitude of one variable is accompanied by systematic increase or decrease in the magnitude of the others" (Reber&Reber, 2001: 158).

It is used to determine the relationship between two or more variables, or to find how they correlate with each other.

Types of correlation:

-) Positive correlation - where the scores move in the same direction, that is, if one falls another falls and if one rises the other rises.
-) Negative correlation - it is when the scores move in opposite direction, that is, if one falls the other rises, and vice versa.
-) The degree of relationship is assessed mathematically and is expressed as a correlation coefficient ranging from +1.00 to -1.00.
-) The plus sign indicates a positive relation and the minus sign a negative correlation. The closer a correlation value comes to positive or negative 1.00, the stronger the relationship between two variables.
-) The results in this method doesn't imply that the variables are linked casually. It even possible that some third, unmeasured and previously unconsidered variable is causing both variables to increase or decrease simultaneously.
-) For example, studying the correlation between aggression and watching tv, where the hypothesis is that people show high aggression after watching highly aggressive program.

-) Suppose the results are supportive of the hypothesis that high aggressive content is associated with high viewer aggression and that low aggressive content is associated with low viewer aggression. Drawing the conclusion that aggressive behaviour caused the aggression would be inappropriate and quite possibly inaccurate.
-) However, there are some circumstances under which we could make reasonable inferences about the causal direction (Berkowitz), but their results may be only inferences and far from conclusive. We have to turn to other methods to ascertain causal relationship. Experimental techniques are generally the preferred means of doing such research.

1.10.3 Experimental method

Experimentation has been the dominant research method in social psychology, mainly because it is without equal as a method for testing theories that predict causal relationships between variables.

-) It is when the researcher manipulates the variables or modifies some features of the environment to find out results according to the hypothesis stated.

Table: Terminology of experimental method.

Experiment	A well-controlled test of hypothesis about cause and effect.
Hypothesis	A statement about cause and effect that can be tested.
Variable	Something that can occur with different values and can be measured.
Independent Variable	A variable that represents the hypothesized cause that is precisely controlled by the experimenter and independent of what the participant does.
Dependent Variable	A variable that represents the hypothesized effect whose values ultimately depend on the value of the independent variable.
Experimental Group	A group in which the hypothesized cause is present.
Control Group	A group in which the hypothesized effect is present.
Statistics	Mathematical techniques for determining the certainty with which a sample of data can be

	used to draw generalization.
Measurement	A system for assigning numbers to different values of variables.
Random Assignment	A system for assigning participants to experimental and control groups so that each participant has an equal chance of being assigned to any group

Source: Atkinson & Hilgard et al (2003) *Introduction to Psychology 14th edition*. Wadsworth Asia Pvt Ltd.

-) There are two basic types of experiments in social psychology laboratory, natural laboratory and natural experiments have their particular rules. The laboratory experiment is of particular interest in social psychological discussions.
-) Two of the most common of these variations are the quasi-experiments and the true randomized experiments. These two methods differ with respect to realism of the setting in which data are collected, and the degree of control that the researcher has over that setting.

1.10.4 Meta analysis

In recent years statistical techniques called meta-analysis have been developed to help researchers review and synthesize empirical findings systematically. The first step is for the researcher to find as many studies as possible on the same topic. The meta-analysis uses statistical methods to pool information from all available studies. The goal is to arrive at an overall estimate of the size of the finding. In Meta-analysis, statistics are also used to test for the consistency (homogeneity) of findings across studies. When results from different studies are found to be highly consistent, researchers can have much confidence in findings. When results of studies differ, meta-analysis techniques direct researchers to look for other important factors.

It is analysis is an important tool for understanding the social psychological research, and so for understanding social behavior and social cognition.

According to Myers (1991) *“meta-analysis reviews can help counteract our tendency to be unduly influenced by the results of one or a few studies that are especially interesting or ingenious, since such reviews combine the findings of many studies by statistical formula”*.

1.11 Current trends

Social psychology as it is today with broadening its field by the research work on touching various aspects of life. Modern Social psychology has notable features such as that it has broadened its

repertoire of methods. It has become much more relevant to the understanding of everyday life with research works focused on its application in various areas.

1.11.1 Population Psychology- it focuses on the effects of the rapid expansion of the number of humans on this planet and on efforts to control this expansion. How is it that the number of human beings has grown in this fashion? Sagan (1989) explains the mathematical phenomenon in terms of the 'Secret of the Persian. Population Psychology studies the psychological consequences of population, typically in regard to high population density. Some of these consequences include individual's desires for smaller families and the impact of rapid growth on degradation of environment. Population Psychology is relevant to Sociology, History, and Political Science.

Social psychology is important in changing attitude and enhancing sensitivity. "To bring about change, it is obviously important for psychologists to help increase the quality and quantity of sex education, to bring about changes and reduce situational constraints either to modify dispositional variables or to modify educational messages and contraceptive availability to take account of individual differences" (Baron and Byron, 1994: 546).

1.11.2 Health Psychology- Health psychology is the study of psychological and behavioral processes in health, illness, and healthcare. It is concerned with understanding how psychological, behavioral, and cultural factors contribute to physical health and illness. Psychological factors can affect health directly. In a study Lieberman & Chaiken (1992) women were given bogus information about medical research that found a link between caffeine and a breast disorder. The threat was either high or low. Women for whom the threat was most relevant (regular coffee drinkers) were less likely to believe either the high threat or the low threat message than were women who did not drink coffee. The study showed that how personal relevance and self-interest interact in affecting people's response to informational messages. Health is also affected by the kind of goals for which thrive to achieve. People also differ in their characteristic feelings of pessimism and optimism. Those with a pessimistic outlook view events uncontrollable. Research indicates that people identified as Type A, compared to Type B, have higher blood pressure, produce smallest amounts of HDL-good cholesterol and are twice likely to suffer from heart disease.

A familiar concept in health psychology is the importance of social support physical and psychological comfort from friends and family. The general finding is that people who interact closely with family and friends are better able to avoid illness than those who remain isolated from others, if illness does occur, those who receive social support recover more quickly. It is because there is someone with whom one can talk about unpleasant life events rather than engaging in self-concealment.

1.11.3 Environmental Psychology- Environmental psychology is the field that deals with interaction between physical world and human behaviour. Among the environmental factors affect behaviours are environmental stress, noise, temperature, air pollution, atmospheric electricity etc. The negative effects of human actions on environment include global warming and the ever-mounting problem of waste. Studies designed to console littering suggest that pro-environmental behaviour can be increased by the use of prompts, rewards and legalizations.

1.11.4 Industrial organizational psychology – It is an application of social psychology which focuses on understanding behaviours in work settings especially within the field of industries and organizations. Work related attitudes include employees’ evaluation of jobs (job satisfaction) and of their organizations. Organisational conflicts can be reduced or resolved by such techniques as bargaining, super-ordinate goals and the induction of represses incompatible with anger and conflict.

1.11.5 Legal system and social psychology– Forensic psychology has produced ample evidence that the reality of our legal system often doesn’t live up to its ideals. Witnesses and defendants are influenced by interrogation procedures and media publicity. Eyewitness testimony is often inaccurate and the behaviours of attorneys and judges can influence verdict. Psychologists working in this area contribute to the social order by their research human cognitive system and communication patterns.

1.11.6 Growing influence of cognitive perspective

Cognitive factors – attitudes, beliefs, values, inferences, play a key role in social behaviour. Social psychologists have realized that our understanding of virtually all aspects of social behaviours could be greatly enhanced by attention to the cognitive processes that underlie them.

This approach involves efforts to many aspects of social thought and social behaviours, basic knowledge about such issue as:

- (1) how memory operates
- (2) What are human reasoning processes
- (3) how new information is integrated into existing mental formworks.

The results of research conducted within this perspective have been show that affect is an important determinant of many forms of social behaviours ranging from helping on the one hand, through aggression and conflict on the other.

1.11.7 Multicultural perspective

Multicultural diversity was the need of the hour for social psychology to really be social. The questions were: can the findings of the studies (usually conducted in the U.S.) be generalized to other cultures? Are the principles of behaviours established in the U.S. universally applicable?

Many social psychologists now believe that cultural factors and forces are so powerful that they can influence even the most basic aspects of social behaviours. It is increasingly becoming clear that cultural difference is an important topic in their own right and should receive careful attention in social psychological research.

1.11.8 Sociobiology and evolutionary social psychology

Many social psychologists today believe that our preferences, behaviours, emotional reactions and cognitive abilities are affected to some extent by our biological inheritance (Buss 1990, Nisbett 1990).

Socio-biology a discipline that is based on the thought that many aspects of social behaviours are the result of evolutionary processes in which patterns of behaviours that contribute to reproduction are strengthened and spread throughout a population.

Evolutionary social psychology suggests that social tendencies toward behaviours that are most adaptive from the point of view of survivals increase in strength over time within a given population. But it is also recognised that such tendencies change in response to environmental and social conditions. Tendencies in social behaviours should exist because they are the result of a long evolutionary processor is also rejected.

1.12 Summary

Social psychology is the scientific study of the experience and behaviour of individuals in relation to other individuals, group and culture. The socio-psychological ideas originally took shape within the realm of philosophy and then gradually branched off from the system of psychological knowledge. The first forms of socio-psychological were most: people's psychology, mass psychology and the theory of instincts of social behaviour. Experimental works due to the efforts of Kurt Lewin put social psychology as a science in a more advantageous position. The social psychological method differs from disciplines that study big scale societal problems and from those that focus on the individual. In social psychology numerous methods are used dictated by our problem of investigation. Methods of data collection are observations, the study of documents, questionnaire, interviews, testing and experiment etc. Observational method is mostly used for data collection, correlational method is an analytic method whereby the relationship between two or more variables is assessed. Experimental method is the preferred method to study cause and effect relations between the independent variable and dependent variable. currently meta-analysis is used to synthesize the findings of many researches on a topic.

1.13 Keywords:

Social psychology, Nature, History, theories, Method, Experimental Method, Observational method, correlational method, meta-analysis, Scope and Currents trends

1.14 Review Questions

What is social psychology? Explain nature and definition.

What are historical roots of social psychology?

What is scope of social psychology? Explain

What is method? Explain

What are current trends in social psychology?

1.15 Self-Assessment Questions



1. social psychology clearly means to analyze in social settings.

a. A person

-
- b. a person or a group of people
c. A group of people
d. None of these
2. Social psychology is evaluating and provides explanations of
a. Animals behaviour
b. Rat behaviour
c. Cat behaviour
d. Human behaviour
3. Social psychology explain behaviour by conducting experiments.
a. True
b. False
4. Social psychology explain behaviour by non-experiments.
a. yes
b. no
5. The term of group interaction is related to.
a. Cognitive psychology
b. Positive psychology
c. Social psychology
d. All of the above.
6. Socio centred approach emphasises the determining function of social structures for individual experience and behaviour.
a. true
b. False
7. Individual centred approach are said to be inexplicable in terms of individual processes and functions.
a. True
b. False
- 8:Emphasised the primacy of state over the individual who had to be educated to become truly social.
a. Aristotelian
b. Platonic
c. Allport
d. All of the above
9. People act in order to secure and maintain pleasure and to avoid and reduce pain related to
a. Hope
b. Hedonism
c. Wellbeing
d. None of these
10. The doctrine that advocates the pursuit of the greatest happiness of the greatest number.
a. Utilitarianism
b. Hedonism

- c. Wellbeing
 - d. None of these
11. The creators of mass psychology were Lawyer Scipio Sighele and Gustave Le Bon .
- a. True
 - b. False
12. Basic ideas on the role of irrational movements in social behaviour and the role of imitation is related to:
- a. Utilitarianism
 - b. Hedonism
 - c. Wellbeing
 - d. Mass psychology
13. Contemporary social psychology interactionism include not only the development of Mead's ideas, but also a group of different theories combined under the one name, namely role theory and reference group theory.
- a. True
 - b. false
14. Observational method can be relatively informal and unstructured or it can be formal and structured.
- a. True
 - b. False
- 15.....in social psychology began with Gestalt psychology and the field theory of Kurt Lewin.
- a. Interactionism
 - b. Contemporary
 - c. Cognitivism
 - d. All of the above

Ans. 1. b.2.d 3. a.4.a 5.c 6.a 7.b 8.b 9.b 10.a 11.a 12. D 13. a14. a 15. c



1.16 Suggested readings

Text Books

Nyla R Baranscombe, Robert A Baron &PreetiKapur. (2017). Social Psychology, 14th edition. By Pearson Education India

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UNIT-2 SOCIAL COGNITION

Learning Outcomes

2.1 Objectives

2.2 Introduction

2.3 Social Cognition

2.4 Schemas: Holding our Impressions Together

2.4.1 Types of schemas

2.4.1.1 Person schemas

2.4.1.2 Social schemas

2.4.1.3 Self-schemas

2.4.1.4 Event schemas

2.4.2 The Impact of Schemas on Social Cognition: Attention, Encoding, and Retrieval

2.4.2.1 Attention

2.4.2.2 Encoding

2.4.2.3 Retrieval

2.5 Prototypes

2.6 Social encoding

2.7 Salience

2.8 Vividness

2.9 Accessibility

2.10 Social inference

2.11 Heuristics: How we reduce our effort social cognition

2.11.1 Judgments under Sub optimal Conditions

2.11.2 The Representativeness Heuristic

2.11.3 Anchoring and Adjustment

2.12 Improving social inference:

2.13 Summary

2.14 Keywords

2.15 Review Questions

2.16 Self-Assessment Questions

2.17 Suggested readings

2.1 Objectives

-) To explain social cognition
-) Understand what are schemes and how they influence us
-) Know the concept of priming
-) Acquire knowledge about heuristics, its types and ways in which they influence us
-) To explain Prototypes
-) To know the concept social encoding

-
-) Understand about Salience and Vividness
 -) To explain Accessibility
 -) To know the concept of social inference and how to Improving social inference

2.2 Introduction:

The major focus of social psychologist is how people process, understand and apply the information about others and themselves. The way people process information, make judgments about others and how they explain the cause of the behaviour which have an influence on their own behaviour makes the topic critical for social psychologist to understand the social behaviour. Moreover, in this unit we discuss how social psychologist comes to an understanding about how people perceive and evaluate their own and other behaviour which provides a clear basis for day-to-day problems ranging from insomnia to poor school performance.

The unit first discusses about the person perception and social cognition: how people process, store, organise, apply and make sense about the information they have about the others. Then the unit further discuss about the schemas, social encoding, salience vividness, accessibility and inference, improving social inference and heuristic which encompasses how people explains the causes of their own behaviour and of others.

2.3 Social Cognition

In general, social cognition deals with how people interpret, analyze, remember and the use of information about the people in a social situation. Social cognition attempts to understand how an individual thinks and understand about the social world. Social cognition studies the way in which how people process the social information, particularly encoding, storage, retrieval and application to social situations. It implies the application of knowledge and methods of cognitive psychology and information processing theory to the field of social psychology. For example, if we want to buy a new mobile in a buy-back offer, we neither meticulously, mathematically compare the price of the old and the new phone nor we probability calculation to maximise the profit. We make a rough estimate of prices and accept bargain more or around that price. From this example, we can understand few interesting things about our mind.

- a) Once we have framework developed from the past experience (often called 'schema') regarding the selling and buying, we propose a lower price to buy and higher price to sell our expectations.
- b) The mental processes we carry out throughout this process are faster, automatic and are quick.
- c) During this process, the mental frameworks are prone to systematic errors and biases while making the decision.

In this chapter we will discuss some of these aspects of social information processing.

"Social cognition refers to the ways in which individuals interprets, analyse, remember and use information about social world"

Harold Kelly (1950) conducted a research to study on person's perception. He gave two descriptions about the lecturer to a group of students whom they never met. Then the students were made to attend the lecture. In one condition the students were told that the lecturer was a warm person. Industrious, critical, practical and determined and in the second condition, it was said that the lecture was rather a cold person, industrious, critical, practical and determined. The crucial difference was the substitution of the word warm for cold in the second description. It was surprising to see that the substitution of word made a drastic change in the way the students perceive the lecturer in the two conditions. Although the behaviour of the lecturer tend to be invariant in the two conditions, after the discussion, students who were told that the lecturer was cold, rated him less positively than the students who were told than the lecturer was warm. The experiment conducted by Kelly illustrates the early view of person perception is concentrated on the way in which the individual focus on the particular traits when forming the overall impression of the others. According to this perspective, certain traits play a major role in determine the overall impression of others. These traits are known as the central traits. Central traits serve as to organise the impression about others and also provide a framework for interprets the information which is served subsequently.

Solomon Asch (1946) suggested that the meaning of the additional descriptive traits is altered by the presence of the central trait. The word 'determined' was perceived as different by the individual depending upon whether it is preceded by the word "warm" or "cold". Social cognition is a reaction against the machine-like models of the person in the social learning theory and information processing approaches. The intention of social learning theory was to reconstruct the psychology's image of people. Social cognition views themselves as active, purposive thinkers who thrive to make sense of their social world and interpret it. This was a very significant shift from the image we can trace back to William McDougall to the one proposed by William James.

2.4 Schemas: Holding our Impressions Together

People tend to encounter diverse of people and setting in everyday life. The individual gets overwhelmed with a sheer quality of information relating to what are other like. In order to avoid being overwhelmed, people use schemas to organize their impression about others. Schemas are organized bodies of information stored in memory. Schemas are mental framework which represents our knowledge and assumption about the world. People use the information in the schemas which provides a representation of ways the social world operates and also allows us to categorize and also interpret new information related to schemas.

We all hold schemas relating to everyday objects in our environment. for instance, we hold schemas for automobiles such a s we have an idea of what automobiles look like, what they can do for us and how to differentiate them from other vehicles such as buses, horse and buggy. From a social psychological perspective, we hold a schema for a particular people (one's mother, girlfriend, boyfriend, brother, or sister) and of classes of people playing a given role (mail carriers, teachers, or librarians). Each of the schemas provides a way of organizing behavior into meaningful wholes.

The use of schemas as a basic concept was first used by a British psychologist named Frederic Bartlett as part of his learning theory. Bartlett theory suggested that through network of abstract mental structures, the understanding of the world is formed.

Theorist Jean Piaget introduces the word schema in his work. According to cognitive development theory suggested by Jean Piaget, children undergo a series of stages of intellectual growth. Piaget view schema as both category of knowledge and also process of acquiring information. He believed people take in new information; learn things by constantly adapting to the environment.

2.4.1 Types of Schemas

Schemas are mental representation of class of people, object, event or situation. Piaget suggested that all people possess schemas and the schemas continues to form and change throughout life.

For example: object schemas are schemas that focus about what an inanimate object is and how it works. So, people from industrialized nations have schemas for what a car is, how it works and all. Schemas might include subcategories such as people can have subcategories for different types of cars based on compact car, sedan or sports car.

Other types of schemas that people often possess include:

2.4.1.1 Person schemas: focuses on specific individuals and also helps us to understand specific people. For example: your schema for your friend might include the information about her appearance, behaviour, personality and her preferences.

2.4.1.2 Social schemas: include general knowledge about how people behave in certain social situations. It also helps us to understand how to behave in different social setting.

2.4.1.3 Self-schemas: help us to understand the knowledge about yourself. They focus on what you know about your current self as well as ideas about your idealized or future self.

2.4.1.4 Event schemas: called as scripts focuses on patterns of behavior that should be followed for certain events. This acts much like a script informing you of what you should do, how you should act, and what you should say in a particular situation.



How are schemas applied every day?

2.4.2 The Impact of Schemas on Social Cognition: Attention, Encoding, and Retrieval:

Schemas influence the social cognition by acting on three basic cognitive processes: Attention, Encoding and Retrieval.

2.4.2.1 Attention: is a cognitive process in which certain stimuli or information are selected while ignoring the others. Schemas works as mechanism that helps individuals to focus attention on specific aspects of environment. People easily notice stimuli which are coherent to their existing

schemas than the stimuli that are not fitting in the stimuli (unless the stimuli have high strength of attracting information). While watching the cricket match we tend to quickly notice then happening in the ground as compared to the noise in the background.

2.4.2.2 Encoding: is storing information in the memory. Information which is consistent with the existing schemas is more likely to be saved in long-term memory than the one that is inconsistent. We remember the situation where a person agrees with us than the one which they disagree. In contrast people remember the situation do not fit at the schemas at all. For example: if one goes to government office and if the work is done in 5 minutes, people remember the instance because it was contradictory to the expectation.

2.4.2.3 Retrieval: is recovering information from the memory. The relationship between retrieval and schemas is a complex one. Research finding have shown that the information which are consistent with the schemas are better retrieved. On contrast, some research also shows that information which are inconsistent to the schemas are also easily stored in memory and retrieved.

2.5 Prototypes

Prototypes are the personality types that one derived in case of person perception which are organized into schemas. Prototypes are schemas that organize a group of personality traits into a meaningful personality type. Nancy cantor and Walter Mischel (1979) suggest a frequently held prototype concerns a person labeled on a general level as committed.

The most specific level is known as the subordinate level. The prototype consists of different types

of committed people. For example  monks, nuns and activists. At the middle level, there are basic classes of individual such as devotee or social activist. The subordinate and middle levels of specificity are subsumed under the broader super ordinate level which encompasses the prototype as a whole.

The importance of prototypes lies in three directions  :

- i. Prototypes helps people to recall, recognize and categorize the information about others. It is seen that through the use of prototypes, information processing capabilities are enhanced.
- ii. Prototypes help the people to organize the social world around them. We are able to analyze and categorize people behavior just by observing them which inturn later allows us to form expectations about the other's behavior.
- iii. Prototypes allow people to plan behavior more steadily in a social setting.

2.6 Social encoding:

Social encoding refers to the process whereby external social stimuli are represented in the mind of the individual (Bargh, 1984). There are four stages to social encoding. Social encoding heavily depends on what captures our attention.

-) **Pre-attentive analysis** is the general, automatic and non-conscious scanning of the environment.

-
-) **Focal attention** is once the stimulus is noticed, stimulus is consciously noticed, identified and categorized.
 -) **Comprehension** is giving semantic meaning to the stimulus.
 -) **Elaborative reasoning:** the semantically represented stimulus is linked to the existing knowledge to allow for complex inferences.

2.7 Salience:

Salience stimuli are attention capturing stimuli. In social cognition, salience refers to the property which captures attention from another stimulus in a particular context. Few examples are: a single female is said to be salient in all female-group but not in salient in sex-balanced group. The women in late stage of pregnancy are salient in most context but not in obstetrician's clinic and a person wearing a yellow t-shirt in funeral is salient but not salient in beach. People can be salient because they are novel (single man, pregnant women), figural (bright T-shirt) in an immediate context. (McArthur & Post, 1977) believed in ways that do not fit in prior expectations of them as individual, as member of particular social category or as people in general. (Jones & McGillis, 1976); or the stimulus are important to your specific or more general goals, they dominate your visual field, or you have been told to pay attention to them (Erber & Fiske, 1984; Taylor & Fiske, 1975).

Salient people tend to attract attention and tend to be considered as more influential person in the group than the non-salient people. A salient person tends to be personally responsible for the behavior, less influenced by the situation and generally evaluated more extremely than others (McArthur, 1981; Taylor & Fiske, 1978). People pay more attention to salient person; they dominate our thoughts and also increase coherence (i.e. organization and consistency). People do not necessarily remember more about the salient people rather they find it easier to access the coherent impression of the people. For example: if a person do not like tall man and the person goes to party. The person saw a tall man in the party who particularly stand out, the person is likely to feel negative about the people such as the person thinks that the tall man dominated in his conversation and are uninfluenced by the people in the party. The person does not remember much information about the behavior of tall man but forms a fairly coherent impression of him as a person.

2.8 Vividness:

Vividness is the intrinsic property of the stimulus itself. Vivid stimuli are emotionally interesting (eg. Violent crime), concrete and image-provoking (eg. Agony and detailed description of the violent crime) or close in time and place (eg. Violent crime happened yesterday in the neighborhood). (Nisbett & Ross, 1980). Vivid stimuli attract the people just like the salience stimuli and also have similar social cognitive effect. But the research has not confirmed this information (Taylor & Thompson, 1982). Vividly presented information such as people directly experience the stimuli or colorful or language accompanied by pictures and videos may be more entertaining than the pallidly presented stimuli but vivid stimuli is not more persuasive than the pallidly presented information. Apparently, the effect of vividness can often be attributed to other factors which co-occur with the vivid stimuli. For examples, vivid image may convey more information and may be the information is one that influences the social cognition not the social cognition.

2.9 Accessibility:

Attention is not only directed by the properties of the stimulus but also by the accessibility, or ease of recalling the information of categories or schemas which exist already in the brain (Higgins, 1996). To make sense of intrinsic ambiguous nature of social information, accessible categories are readily and automatically primed by feature of the stimulus domain. Accessible categories are categories that we recently used or often used and are consistent with the person's current goals,

needs and expectation (Bruner, 1957, 1958). For example,  let say sex discrimination is the accessible category, so people who are concerned about the sex discrimination, may see sexism almost everywhere. From this example we can see that the accessible category is readily primed and used to interpret the social world. Some categories are chronically accessible and are habitually primed in many contexts and this can have pervasive effect (Bargh, Lombardi & Higgins, 1988). Bargh and Tota (1988) finding suggest that depression may be attributed to chronic accessibility of negative self-schemas.

Research was conducted on accessibility which exposes people to cues that primes particular categories. The experiment was conducted in such a way that people do not consciously detect the cue/category link. Then, the participant interpreted ambiguous behavior (Higgins, Bargh & Lombardi, 1985). Then, the participant was exposed to words such as 'reckless' or 'adventurous' and then asked to interpret the behavior such as 'shooting rapids in a canoe' depending upon the category primed by the cue word, the interpretation of the behavior would be different. For example, studies in the United States have shown that racial categories can be primed by the word relating to African Americans. White participant so primed interpreted the ambiguous behavior as aggressive and hostile which shows consistent with racial stereotypes (Devine, 1986).

When the information is primed, a category tends to encode the stimuli by assimilating them into the primed category which is interpreting them in a category-consistent manner which is true with the unambiguous stimuli. People often contrast stimuli with the category when people become aware that the category is primed and interpret them in the category-incongruent manner (Herr,

Sherman & Fazio, 1983; Martin, 1986). For example,  gender is an accessible category which is readily primed and used to interpret the information of the others (Stangor, 1988); but if individual become aware that the gender has been primed, they tend to make a special effort to interpret behavior in a non-sexist way.

2.10 Social inference

Social inference is the core of the social cognition. Social inference addresses the inferential processes (quiet and abstract or intuitive and concrete) that the person uses to identify sample and combine information to form information and make judgments. The person process social information in two distinct ways:

-) The person can automatically rely on general schemas or stereotypes in a top-down deductive fashion

) The person can rely on specific information like bottom-up inductive fashion.

This distinction in relying of information is a theme that runs through social cognitions and surfaces in different disguises.

Brewer (1988, 1994) proposed a dual-process model which contrasts automatic category-based processing of social information with more deliberate and personalized attribute-based processing. A continuum model (Fiske and Neuberg's 1990; Fiske & Dépret, 1996) which makes similar distinction data-based and schemas-based inferences. Petty and Cacioppo's (1986b) elaboration likelihood model distinguish between central route processing where people deliberately and carefully consider the information and peripheral route processing where people tend to make quick top-of-the-head decision based on the stereotypes, schemas and other cognitive short-cuts. The model which is almost identical Chaiken's heuristic-systematic model (Bohner, Moskowitz & Chaiken, 1995; Chaiken, Liberman & Eagly, 1989). The theory emphasis that people automatically rely on cognitive heuristics or they process information systematically and carefully.

In general, social cognition researcher studied the inferential processes in comparison with the ideal processes called the normative models. These models induce the best possible inferences. Collectively these normative models are known as behavioral decision theory (Einhorn & Hogarth, 1981). The intuitive strategies of social inferences involve a wide range of biases and error, which further produce suboptimal inferences which fall short of those dictated by the principle of behavioral decision theory (e.g. Fiske & Taylor, 2008; Nisbett & Ross, 1980).

2.11 Heuristics: How we reduce our effort social cognition

The discovery of heuristic is found to have profound impact on social psychology. A heuristic is a mental shortcut that allows people to solve problems and make judgments quickly and efficiently. Heuristics are the rule of thumb strategies which reduce the decision-making time and also allows people to function efficiently without constantly stopping to think about the next course of action. Heuristics are strategies of simplified judgments that allow the individuals to make decision under suboptimal circumstances.

2.11.1 Judgments under Sub optimal Conditions

The traditional theories of human decision making neglected the context in which judgment occur and primarily focused on normative aspects of valid judgments. The heuristic approach has directed their focus on psychological processes which enable individuals to make judgments and decision based on situational, motivational, and relying on cognitive conditions which are less than optimal conditions such as under time pressure and distraction. When decisions are made typically in the state of uncertainty, researcher tries to identify the strategies that the individual actually use to arrive to the solution which is not the best solution but meet certain criteria. Tversky and Kahneman (1974) studied these simple rules of thumb, which is called 'judgmental heuristic' the specific mechanism is limited because the concept of heuristic is similar with author and application is often limited to the specific mechanism that the researcher identified. However, the

logic of heuristic processing also applies to other strategies in which the purpose is to simplifying the human judgment and making them achievable under suboptimal conditions (Kahneman, 2003).

Heuristics are the strategy to make judgment based on how easily information can be retrieved from the mind. While assessing the frequency or probability of an event (or co-occurrence of several events) individual often engage in strategy that is based on which bits of information can be

retrieved or generated from the memory. For example,  if an employee wishes to measure the rate of unemployment in their community, the employee may go through the trouble of obtaining the relevant information from the official sources. If the employee is not motivated to search the relevant information from the official sources, he can think of other ways such as contacting the unemployed friends or acquaintances. Tversky and Kahneman (1973) called this judgment strategy the 'availability heuristic'.

2.11.2 The Representativeness Heuristic

The strategy in which judgment is made based on the extent to which the current stimuli or event is similar to other stimuli. In other words, The Representativeness Heuristic refers to people tendency

to simply the categorical judgment based on similarities. For example,  a person who wants to determine the profession of another person, he may use the similar quality of the targeted person to the typical member of the profession.

2.11.3 Anchoring and Adjustment

Anchoring and Adjustment describes the phenomena that judgments are assimilated toward a

value that was initially considered. For example,  if a person wants to estimate the proportion of the African nations in the United Nations, he may arrive at a higher proportion if has been exposed previously to a higher rate than a low standard of comparison. The influence would be surprising is the anchor is offered a piece of information that is relevant to the judgment in question. Tversky and Kahneman (1974) showed that even relevance was ruled out, the resulting assimilation effect occurred by presenting the anchor as the outcome of the probability process.

2.12 Improving social inference:

Social inferences are not optimal, people are biased, misinterpret people or event and tend to make mistake. However, many of these shortcomings may be more apparent than real (Funder, 1987). even though lot of social cognition experiment is conducted, the inferences process is not well suited. For example, when encountering a Pit Bull Terrier in the street, it might be adaptive to rely on availability (media coverage of attacks by Pit Bull Terrier) and to flee from the place without giving much thinking or adopting more time-consuming normative procedures. The error occurred in laboratory does not need to happen in field.

Inferential error can sometimes have serious consequences. For example,  negative stereotyping of minority groups and suboptimal group decisions may be partly caused due ti

inferential error. In order to improve the social inferences, there will be something to gain by considering ways. The basic principle is when people less rely on their intuitive inferential strategies, the social inference will improve. This can be achieved through formal education in scientific and rational thinking as well as in statistical techniques (Fong, Krantz & Nisbett, 1986; Nisbett, Krantz, Jepson & Fong, 1982).

2.13 Summary:

In this unit, we discussed the social cognitive process in which individual comes to understand about themselves and others. Social cognition the way in which how people process the social information, particularly encoding, storage, retrieval and application to social situations. Schemas are organized bodies of information which allow us to organize and interpret information. Schemas related to personality traits are called prototypes. Prototypes are mental framework of qualities one assign to group or category. Salience refers to the property of a stimulus that makes it stand out relative to other stimuli. Vividness is an intrinsic property of the stimulus itself. Accessible categories are readily and automatically primed by features of the stimulus domain to make sense of the intrinsically ambiguous nature of social information. Social inference is, in many respects, the core of social cognition. It addresses the inferential processes (which can be quite formal and abstract, or intuitive and concrete) that we use to identify, sample and combine information to form impressions and make judgments. A heuristic is a mental shortcut that allows people to solve problems and make judgments quickly and efficiently. The basic principle is that social inference will improve to the extent that we become less reliant on intuitive inferential strategies. Research on person perception revealed that we view ourselves as social object in a way that is compared to what we do when perceiving others. Weiner's theory of achievement-related attributions suggested that people explain success and failure by the means of two independent dimension: internal or external and stable or unstable causes. The factors are assumed to affect both affective reactions and expectations for future success.

2.14 Keywords

Social Cognition, Schemas, Attention, Encoding Retrieval, Prototypes, Social encoding, Salience, Vividness, Accessibility, Social inference, Heuristics, Judgments under Sub optimal Conditions, Representativeness Heuristic, Anchoring and Adjustment and Improving social inference

2.15 Review Questions

- What is social cognition?
- What are schemas? What is an example of schemas?
- What are prototypes? How many directions in prototype?
- What is example of salience?
- What is vividness? Explain
- What is Accessibility? Explain
- What is social inference. Give example
- What are heuristics? How many types of heuristics?
- How can improve social inference skill?

2.16 Self-Assessment Questions

1. Injury to which of the following part of the brain affects social judgement and interactions?
 - a. Frontal lobe
 - b. Occipital lobe
 - c. Prefrontal cortex
 - d. Temporal lobe
2. Which of the following is/are the key aspect of social cognition?
 - a. Schemas
 - b. Heuristics
 - c. Automatic and controlled processing
 - d. All of the above
3. Neeti tastes her food, and then salts it. You assume that the food needed salt, therefore, you attribute her actions to a(n)
 - a. internal cause
 - b. external cause
 - c. setting
 - d. situational demand
4. Solomon asch's classic experiment (in which subjects judged a standard line and comparison lines) was arranged to test the limits of
 - a. social perception
 - b. indoctrination
 - c. coercive power
 - d. conformity
5. The manner in which we interpret, analyze, remember, and use the information about the world is known as
 - a. social psychology
 - b. Schemas
 - c. social cognition
 - d. social influence
6. Group's reward members with _____ and _____ for conformity.
 - a. unanimity; power
 - b. power; authority
 - c. legitimacy; power
 - d. approval; acceptance
7. Teenagers often believe that eating greasy potato chips will give them greasy, acne-prone skin. What may account for this erroneous belief?
 - a. primacy effect
 - b. representativeness heuristic
 - c. planning fallacy

-
- d. external circumstances
8. Studies of conformity indicate that people are more apt to be influenced by others if they
- a. is concerned about the approval of others
 - b. has low needs for certainty and structure
 - c. is in temporary rather than established groups
 - d. is in very large groups
9. The process of changing your behavior to match that of others in a group is
- a. norming.
 - b. forming a social contract.
 - c. conformity
 - d. standardization
10. A sub topic of social psychology that focuses on how people, store and apply information about other people and social situations.
- a. Schemas
 - b. Heuristics
 - c. Social perception
 - d. Social cognitions
11. Group's reward members with approval
True/ false
12. Group's reward members with approval for conformity
True/false
13. Salience stimuli are ----- capturing stimuli
- a. attention
 - b. perception
 - c. schemas
 - d. none of the above
14. The importance of prototypes lies in ----- directions.
- a. one
 - b. two
 - c. three
 - d. none of the above
15. Social inference is the core of the -----
- a. social cognition
 - b. social conformity
 - c. social perception
 - d. all of the above

Ans. 1 a2.d3.b 4. d5 c.6.d 7.b8.a 9. c10. d11. true12. true 13. a 14.c 15. a
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2.17 Suggested readings

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UNIT 3 SELF AND IDENTITY

Learning Outcome

3.1 Objectives

3.2 Introduction

3.3 Self and identity:

3.4 Individual versus collective self

3.4.1 Collective self

3.5 Symbolic interactionist self

3.6 Social and Personal identity

3.7 Consequences of social identity salience

3.8 Summary

3.9 Keywords

3.10 Review Questions

3.11 Self-Assessment Questions

3.12 Suggested readings

3.1 Objectives:

-) Know about the various aspects of self and identity
-) Learn about Individual versus collective self
-) Learn about social identity, social categorization and their implications
-) Understand the Symbolic interactionist self
-) Learn about Consequences of social identity salience

3.2 Introduction:

Our wallet will consist of several items that have our mark on it, can be a driving license or our personalized diary, maybe an old photo that your mother gave you to remind you of how beautiful hair you had as a kid. When we meet someone based on the social interaction and communication, we begin to find points that match, it can be regarding where a person works, where he or she belongs to, their favourite restaurant or even the school or college they went to. In more formal contexts, people sometimes display their identity through uniforms, name/role badges and business cards.

Social interaction, and social existence itself, depends on people knowing who they are and who others are. The building blocks of identity is based on the knowledge we hold of ourselves and of others around us. Understanding our role amidst others helps us to explore what we can be, who we can develop into and give more meaning to our very existence. Humans have a highly developed sense of self and identity and it doesn't come with a surprise that social psychologists, have always been intrigued by the self.

Exploring where does 'self' as a concept comes from, what it looks like and how it influences thought and behaviour.

Self and identity are cognitive constructs that influence social interaction and perception, and are themselves influenced by society.

3.3 Self and identity:

The self is, historically, a relatively new idea. Baumeister (1987) paints a picture of medieval society in which social relations were fixed and stable and legitimized in religious terms. Identities were mapped out by visible ascribed attributes such as family membership, social rank, birth order and place of birth. In many ways, what you saw was what you got, so the idea of a complex individual self-lurking underneath it all was difficult to entertain and probably superfluous.

All this started to change in the sixteenth century, and the change has gathered momentum ever since. The forces that brought change were- the idea that fulfilment occurs in the afterlife was replaced by the idea that you should actively pursue personal fulfilment in this life-Secularization. Industrialization where people were units of production that would move from place to place to work, and thus would have a portable personal identity that was not locked into static social structures such as the extended family. Enlightenment - people felt that they could organize and construct different, better, identities and lives for themselves by overthrowing orthodox value systems and oppressive regimes (e.g. the French and American revolutions of the late eighteenth century). Finally, Psychoanalysis - Freud's (e.g. 1921) theory of the human mind crystallized the notion that the self was unfathomable because it lurked in the gloomy depths of the unconscious.

Psychoanalysis has probably done most to problematize self and identity, because it attributes behaviour to complex dynamics that are hidden deep within the person's sense of who they are. Together, these and other social, political and cultural changes caused people to think about self and identity as highly complex and problematic. Theories of self and identity propagated and flourished in this fertile soil.

3.4 Individual versus collective self:

Freud, like many other psychologists, viewed the self as very personal and private - the apotheosis of individuality: something that uniquely describes an individual human being. When someone

says  'I am . . .' they are describing what makes them different from all other human beings. But think about this for a moment. 'I am British', 'I come from Bristol', 'I am a social psychologist' - these are all descriptions of myself, but they are also descriptions of many other people's selves (there are 60 million Britons, 400,000 people currently living in Bristol, and many thousands of social psychologists). So, the self can also be a shared or collective self - a 'we' or 'us'.

Social psychologists have argued long and hard for more than a century about whether the self is an individual or a collective phenomenon.

3.4.1. Collective self:

Wundt was the founder of psychology as an experimental science, and he proposed that social psychology was the study of:

"Those mental products which are created by a community of human life and are, therefore, inexplicable in terms merely of individual consciousness since they presuppose the reciprocal action of many. (Wundt, 1916, p. 3)".

Wundt's social psychology dealt with collective phenomena, such as language, religion, customs and myth, that, according to Wundt, could not be understood in terms of the psychology of the isolated individual. Durkheim (1898), one of the founding fathers of sociology, was influenced by Wundt's interest in collective life and also maintained that collective phenomena could not be explained in terms of individual psychology.

McDougall, in his book *The Group Mind* (1920), argued that out of the interaction of individuals there arose a 'group mind', which had a reality and existence that was qualitatively distinct from the isolated individuals making up the group. There was a collective self that was grounded in group life. Although phrased in rather quaint old-fashioned language, this idea has a direct line of descent to subsequent experimental social psychological research which confirms that human interaction has emergent properties that endure and influence other people: for example, Sherif's (1936) research on how norms emerge from interaction and are internalised to influence behaviour, and some of Asch's (1952) research on conformity to norms.

Since the early 1980s there has been a revival of interest in the notion of a collective self; largely initiated by European research on the emergence of social representations out of social interaction (Farr & Moscovici, 1984; Lorenzi-Cioldi & Clémence, 2001) and on the role of social identity in group

processes and intergroup behaviour (e.g. Tajfel & Turner, 1979; also see Hogg, 2006; Hogg & Abrams, 1988; discussed).

3.5 Symbolic interactionist self:

People do have a sense of 'me', and according to symbolic interactionism the self-arises out of human interaction (Mead, 1934; Blumer, 1969). Mead believed that human interaction is largely symbolic. When we interact with people it is mainly in terms of words and non-verbal cues that are rich with meaning because they are symbolise much more than is superficially available in the behaviour itself. Mead believed that society influences individuals through self-conception, and that self-conception arises and is continually modified through interaction between people. This interaction involves symbols that must have shared meaning if they are to be communicated effectively. Effective interaction also rests on being able to take the role of the other person; which of course entails 'looking in from outside' and seeing oneself as others do – as a social object, 'me', rather than social subject, 'I'. Because others often see us as category representatives, the 'me' is often viewed as a collective 'me' – we might even think of it as an 'us'. The way that society views the world is negotiated and traded through symbolic interaction. In order to do this effectively, we need to take the role of the other, and thus we see ourselves as others (ultimately society) do. In this way, we construct a self-concept that reflects the society we live in; we are socially constituted.

Symbolic interactionism offers quite a sophisticated and complex model of self-conception. Nevertheless, it generates a very straightforward prediction. Because self-conception comes from seeing ourselves as others see us (*the idea of the looking-glass self*), there should be a strong correlation between how we rate ourselves and how others rate us. Shrauger and Schoeneman (1979) reviewed sixty-two relevant empirical studies to see whether this was true. What they found was that people did not tend to see themselves as others saw them but instead saw themselves as they thought others saw them.

So, for example, Tice (1992) had participants provide information that indicated that they were emotionally stable or emotionally responsive to different situations – in other words, this is how they thought others would see them. They provided this information under private conditions in which they believed no one was watching them or under public conditions in which they believed a graduate student was closely monitoring their behaviour – the latter condition would engage the looking-glass self.

3.6 Social and Personal identity:

Social identity theorist (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) have argued that there are two broad classes of identity that define different types of self:

- (i) social identity, which defines self in terms of group memberships;
- (ii) personal identity, which defines self in terms of idiosyncratic traits and close personal relationships.

Brewer and Gardner (1996) have argued that there are three types of self: (1) the individual self, defined by personal traits that differentiate the self from all others; (2) the relational self, defined by dyadic relationships that assimilate the self to significant other persons; and (3) the collective self, defined by group membership that differentiates 'us' from 'them'.

More recently it has been proposed that there are four types of identity (Brewer, 2001; also Chen, Boucher & Tapias, 2006): (1) person-based social identities emphasise the way that group properties are internalised by individual group members as part of their self concept; (2) relational social identities define the self in relation to specific other people with whom one interacts in a group context – this corresponds to Brewer and Gardner's (1996) relational identity and to Markus and Kitayama's (1991) 'interdependent self'; (3) group-based social identities are equivalent to social identity as defined above; and (4) collective identities refer to a process whereby group members not only share self-defining attributes but also engage in social action to forge an image of what the group stands for and how it is represented and viewed by others.

The relational self is interesting. Although in one sense it is an interpersonal form of self, it can also be considered a particular type of collective self – some groups and some cultures, notably collectivist cultures, define groups in terms of networks of relationships or place greater importance on relationships as a defining feature of group membership (Yuki, 2003). Not surprisingly, there is evidence that women, who tend to be more collectivist than men, place greater importance on the

relational self in their group memberships (Baumeister & Sommer, 1997; Cross & Madson, 1997; Seeley, Gardner, Pennington & Gabriel, 2003).

Shows one way in which different types of self and self-attributes could be classified according to level of identity (social versus personal) and type of attributes (identity defining versus relationship defining).



Self and self-attributes as a function of social versus personal level of identity, and identity versus relationship types of attribute

	Identity attributes	Relationship attributes
Social identity	<p>Collective self</p> <p>Set of attributes shared with others and contrasted with a specific outgroup or with outgroups in general.</p>	<p>Collective relational self</p> <p>set of attributes specifying the relationship between self as an ingroup member and specific others as ingroup or outgroup members.</p>
Personal identity	<p>Individual self</p> <p>Set of attributes unique to self and contrasted with specific other individuals or with other individuals in general.</p>	<p>Individual relational self</p> <p>Set of attributes specifying the relationship between self as a unique individual and others as individuals</p>

Social identity is associated with group and intergroup behaviours such as ethnocentrism, ingroup bias, group solidarity, intergroup discrimination, conformity, normative behaviour, stereotyping and prejudice. Personal identity is associated with positive and negative close interpersonal relationships and with idiosyncratic personal behaviour. We have as many social identities as there are groups that we feel we belong to, and as many personal identities as there are interpersonal relationships we are involved in and clusters of idiosyncratic attributes that we believe we possess. Social identity can be a very important aspect of our self-concept. For example, Citrin, Wong and Duff (2001) describe a study in which 46 per cent of Americans reported that they felt being an American, a social identity, was the most important thing in their life.

Over the past thirty-five years, social identity theory has grown to be a major influence on how social psychologists conceptualise the relationship between social categories and the self-concept (Abrams & Hogg, in press; Hogg, 2006; Hogg & Abrams, 1988, 2003). Because this theory addresses a wide range of social psychological phenomena, aspects of social identity theory.

Social identity theory has its origins in the work of Henri Tajfel on social categorisation, intergroup relations, social comparison, and prejudice and stereotyping (e.g. Tajfel, 1969, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) – often called the social identity theory of intergroup relations – and in later theorising by John Turner and his associates on the role of self-categorisation in generating group behaviour associated with collective self-conception (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) – called the social identity theory of the group, or self-categorisation theory.

3.7 Consequences of social identity salience:

When a categorisation becomes psychologically salient, people's perception of themselves and others becomes depersonalised. What this means is that people no longer consider themselves or others as unique multidimensional persons but as simple embodiments of the category prototype – they are viewed through the relatively narrow lens of a group membership that is defined by the specific ingroup or outgroup prototype. In addition to the transformation of self-conception into social identity, people also think, feel, believe and behave in terms of the relevant prototype.

The actual nature of the behaviour (what people think and do) depends on the specific content of the relevant prototype, and on people's beliefs about the status of their group in society and about the nature of the relations between groups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Ellemers, 1993; Hogg & Abrams, 1988). Group status is important because groups define social identity and social identity defines our self-concept; thus, the evaluative implications of a specific group (the status, prestige and

regard in which it is held) reflect the esteem in which others hold us, and influence the esteem in which we hold ourselves, our self-esteem (Crocker & Major, 1994).

Thus, people strive for membership in prestigious groups, or strive to protect or enhance the prestige and esteem of their existing group. How they go about this is influenced by their understanding of the nature of the status relations between their group and a specific outgroup – is it permeable, is it stable, is it legitimate? If the group’s evaluation in society is generally unfavourable and you feel you can pass into a more prestigious group, you might try to leave the group entirely; however, this can often be very difficult, because in reality the psychological boundaries between groups can be impermeable or impassable.

3.8. Summary

Social identity is part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from their membership in social groups. Social identity is used by individuals to divide, categorize, and order their social environment. Social categorization lies at the center of the social identity approach. Norms describe and prescribe the behavior of in-group members. A social categorization produces normative behavior only when it is psychologically salient. The central process in social identity theory is depersonalization wherein the self is viewed as an embodiment of the ingroup prototype and not as a unique individual. The outcomes of the social identity approach are in-group favoritism effect, automatic schema activation, accentuation, illusory correlation effects, ethnocentrism, descriptive and injunctive group norms.

3.9 Keywords

Self and identity, Individual versus collective self, Symbolic interactionist self, Social and Personal identity, Consequences of social identity salience

3.10 Review Questions

What is self and Identity and difference between self and identity?

How can explain your identity?

What is individual versus collective self? Explain

What is social and personal identity?

What is consequence of social identity salience.

3.11 Self-Assessment Questions

1. This term refers to the system of shared meanings, perceptions, and beliefs held by person belonging to some group.

- a. Culture
- b. Norms
- c. Rules
- d. Values

2. Who felt that the state controlled the individual and encouraged social responsibility through social context?

- a. Aristotle
- b. Plato
- c. Herbert Spencer
- d. Hippocrates

3. Define social identity-----

- a. individual

-
- b. society
 - c. current social context
 - d. all of the above
4. Which of the following theories best describes intergroup conflict that arises from disputes over monetary resources?
- a. social identity theory
 - b. Self-categorization theory
 - c. social dominance theory
 - d. Realistic group conflict theory
5. Who has father of sociology?
- a. McDougall
 - b. Durkheim
 - c. Freud
 - d. all of the above
6. Durkheim is fathers of sociology.
True/ false
7. ----- collective life and also maintained that collective phenomena could not be explained in terms of individual psychology.
- a) Wund's
 - b) Mc Dougall
 - c) Freud
 - d) none of the above
8. When making the "attribution error," we tend to overestimate the importance of _____ in judging the behavior of others.
- a. personal factors
 - b. situational factors
 - c. intelligence
 - d. motivation
9. Social identity theorist _____ have argued that there are two broad classes of identity.
- a. Tajfel & Turner
 - b. Mc Dougall
 - c. both
 - d. None of the above
10. Social psychologists have made a number of inferences from the relatively. _____ Is the process of making inferences about behavior
- a. Proxemics
 - b. Attribution
 - c. Cohesiveness
 - d. Stating
11. One of the negative effects of Schemas which refers to the predictions that in a sense make themselves true is known as
- a. Self-fulfilling prophecy
 - b. Fundamental attribution error
 - c. Cognitive Dissonance
 - d. None of the above
12. Set of attributes shared with others and contrasted with a specific outgroup or with outgroups in general----

- a. Individual self
b. Collective self
c) both
d) none of the above
13. Set of attributes unique to self and contrasted with specific other individuals or with other individuals in general-----
- a. Individual self
b. Collective self
c. both
d. none of the above
14. When a person has greater dispositional empathy they are _____ to help.
- a. Equally likely
b. Less likely
c. More likely
d. None of these
15. Diffusion of responsibility
- a. Spread of responsibility for helping
b. Absorbing the responsibility to help
c. Explains helping rather than not helping
d. Operates when there is a single witness.

1. a 2. b 3. d 4. d 5. b 6. true 7. a 8. a 9. a 10. b 11. a 12. b 13. a 14. c 15. a

3.12 Suggested readings



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UNIT 4 SOCIAL INFLUENCE

Learning outcomes

4.1 objective

4.2 Introduction

4.2.1. The Desire to Be Liked: Normative Social Influence

4.2.2. The Desire to Be Right; Informational Social Influence

4.3 Attitude Formation

4.3.1. Evaluating different sources of information

4.3.2. Resolving ambiguity and inconsistency

4.3.2.1 The functions of attitudes

4.3.2.2 Object appraisal function

4.3.2.2.1 Instrumental function

4.3.2.2.2 Social identity function

4.3.2.2.3 Self-esteem maintenance function

4.3.2.2.4 Variations in the salience of functions

4.3.2.2.5 Cultural differences

4.4. Social comparison

4.4.1. Downward Social Comparison

4.5 Obedience to authority

4.5.1. Destructive Obedience: Its Social Psychological Basis

4.5.2. Destructive Obedience, Resisting Its Effects

4.6. Resistance Influence

4.6.1 Locus of control

4.7 Persuasions

4.7.1 Increasing Resistance to Persuasion

4.7.2 Decreasing Resistance to Persuasion

4.8 Summary

4.9 Keywords

4.10 Review Questions

4.11 Self-Assessment Questions

4.12 Suggested reading

4.1 Objective

-) Understanding the social influence phenomenon.
-) Studying attitude formation
-) Understanding why we conform and why sometimes we resist.
-) Understanding the compliance.
-) Understanding tactics used to achieve compliance from others.
-) Understanding Obedience behaviour.

4.2 Introduction:

The term "social influence" refers to when other people have an influence on an individual's ideas or actions. Social influence is defined as one or more people's attempts to change the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, or behavior of others. Colleagues, for example, have a big influence on one's job, whilst friends have a big influence on one's everyday life. Implausible our impulses to conform to others, follow social rules, and obey authority figures are all examples of social influence. Implicit and explicit expectations are the two types of social influence. Unspoken regulations are what we call expectations. Implicit expectations are imposed by group conventions, much like the unwritten laws of middle school. Example: No one needs to tell you that attending a formal religious function is likely to need you to dress differently than attending a throwback grunge rock performance. Implicit expectations are classified into two categories. The first is conformity, which occurs when you consciously adjust your conduct in order to imitate your peers' conduct. You'll probably look back on a current photograph of yourself in twenty-five years and wonder how you could have made such poor fashion choices back then. You were most likely dressed similarly to everyone else at the time.

Social roles, or group expectations about how specific people should look and behave, are a second sort of implicit social influence. We all have preconceived notions about how elementary school teachers, rock artists, clergy, and presidential candidates interact with other people in public. While everyone knows the "rules," they aren't often written down or institutionalized.

Unlike implicit expectations, explicit expectations are stated plainly and formally – they are not veiled in any way. Compliance and obedience are two other types of clear expectations. When you act in response to a direct or indirect request, you are said to be complying. Milgram and Sabini (1983) found that when healthy graduate students requested commuters on a New York City subway to give up their seat, nearly two-thirds of the riders agreed (Milgram & Sabini, 1983). When it comes to compliance, there isn't always a danger of punishment if the conduct isn't followed – its request, not a demand. In this unit, the obedience discuss is used.

4.2.1 The Desire to Be Liked: Normative Social Influence

One of the most effective strategies is to try to appear as similar to others as possible. We learn as children that agreeing with others and acting in the same way they do makes others like us. One of the most fundamental reasons we comply is that we learn that doing so will result in the approval and acceptance we desire. This type of social influence – especially when it comes to conformity – is

known as normative social influence, because it entails persuading others to change their behaviour to suit our standards.

4.2.2 The Desire to Be Right; Informational Social Influence

Many things or topics elicit a great desire to be accurate or proper, such as queries like which colour of dress best suits you? Whether or if you're political and social beliefs are correct? or Which of the following hairstyles is most appropriate for you? However, finding a system that will provide us with precise answers to these questions is tough. However, the answer to these questions is self-evident: you must approach other people to get answers to these inquiries. We follow their lead in terms of opinion and behaviour. Their vocal and nonverbal reply greatly aids us in answering the previously mentioned question. Obviously, such reliance on others can lead to conformity, because other people's behaviours and beliefs shape our social reality in a significant way. This type of social influence is referred to as informational social influence since it is based on our proclivity to rely on others for knowledge on a variety of social issues. As a result, we accept other people's feedback because no alternative way exists to obtain answers to some of the more common questions or subjects stated previously.

4.3 Attitude Formation

People create their attitudes by gaining information, which is almost a truism. When we think about where the information comes from, it becomes a lot less clichéd. Informational resources some information may be instinctual, such as a disgusting reaction to the smell and taste of putrefaction, which has an obvious evolutionary advantage. According to evolutionary psychologists, people are born with predispositions to various viewpoints (Tesser 1993). Men are naturally drawn to women with waists roughly one-third slimmer than hips, according to one theory (Singh 1993).

Direct experience - an experience in which an attitude objects is accompanied by a strong emotional response - most clearly informs the emotional component of attitudes. One of my pals despises coffee, which he attributes to a stomach-ache he experienced after drinking it with sour milk. He now avoids any place where coffee is being made or consumed. Emotional information has a tendency to take precedence over cognitive data. People who have strong negative emotional reactions to seeing blood, for example, are considerably less inclined to donate blood, even if they know it is a good thing to do, according to Breckler and Wiggins (1989).

Direct experience has an impact on the cognitive aspects of attitudes. They are, however, primarily the result of external sources of information such as conversations with others, what individuals read in books and newspapers, and what they see on television, among other things (Fishbein and Ajzen 1975). Experiential information is frequently overshadowed by external data particularly that gained from hearsay (Millar and Millar 1996).

Information regarding one's previous behaviour gives rise to behavioural aspects. For example, Fazio and Zanna (1981) found that when persons have donated to a charity on a regular basis for several years, their approval of that charity is higher than if they have only recently donated. As we'll see, behavioural intention is also a valuable source of data.

4.3.1 Evaluating different sources of information

Attitudes will be formed based on a variety of sources of data in many, if not all, circumstances (Breckler and Wiggins 1989). The question then becomes, "How is the data combined?" Two primary strategies have been presented by theory and research in this topic. The first is a type of cognitive algebra in which all relevant information is weighed according to its importance and value, and then a computation is performed to arrive at an overall assessment of the attitude object. For example, Fishbein (1967) proposed a mathematical formula that was quite precise. The alternative is a more holistic assessment, in which the "whole" is more than "the sum of the parts." Here, information sources are interpreted in relation to one another in order to generate a unified, overall impression (Hamilton and Zanna 1974). Knowing that someone is a brilliant artist, for example, their excessive rudeness can be taken as a facet of their "artistic temperament" and so dismissed in comparison to their colourful personality and genius.

4.3.2 Resolving ambiguity and inconsistency

Both of these tactics would be effective in situations where people's sentiments toward a specific thing are quite stable. People might have ambiguous attitudes toward objects, evaluating them both favourably and negatively. This is reflected in the tagline "naughty yet nice," which is used to market cream cakes.

People's opinions toward their vices – food, drink, laziness, and so forth – are frequently ambiguous. They have both cognitive and emotional information about the dangers they represent. The urge for consistency is a major force on cognition, according to experimental social psychology, which has proposed three primary psychological processes that allow people to resolve inconsistencies in the knowledge they have about a certain item.

-) Prioritizing specific information sources might be done based on social judgments. People, for example, are more likely to trust information from sources that are more familiar (Zajonc 1968b), attractive (Insko 1981), or credible (Hovland and Weiss 1951).
-) Priming can help future information have a greater impact. Information is often evaluated in light of previous knowledge and is influenced by factors such as a mind-set created by a particular activity. For example, before analysing individuals' political sentiments, Tourangeau and Rasinski (1988) primed them by asking a series of sharp and biased questions. Priming bias was evident in the attitudes presented.
-) Increasing the depth of processing can increase the importance of data. The level to which information is attended to and understood is determined by the depth of processing. Information that is processed intentionally and actively has a greater impact on attitudinal evaluation than information that is handled automatically (Hovland et al. 1953). People, for example, pay attention to the information that is most personally meaningful to them. These processes have gotten the greatest attention in studies on attitude change.

4.3.2.1 The functions of attitudes

The functions of attitudes have been the subject of extensive experimental social psychology research and theorization (see, for example, Smith et al. 1956; Shavitt 1989). Four major types of function have been identified, based on a variety of theoretical frameworks:

4.3.2.2 Object appraisal function

An object-appraisal function (also known as a knowledge function) is thought to exist in attitudes, which facilitates information processing and directs attention to certain characteristics of the attitude object. For example, if the mere thought of eating raw fish makes you gag (assessment), you probably despise not only sushi but also Mexican ceviche and Swedish gravlax, as raw fish is a major element in all three. Smith et al. (1956) used information processing theory to see attitudes as bringing together disparate aspects into a connected whole, making it easier to quickly categorise and hence respond to – people, things, ideas, and events. Recent research based on the social cognition paradigm (for example, Judd and Kulik 1980) argues that attitudes serve as schemas.

4.3.2.2.1 Instrumental function

Attitudes are thought to have an instrumental function (also known as a utilitarian function) that aids in the direction of functional behaviour. This theory, which is based on the concepts of social learning theory, sees attitudes as allowing people to pursue positive outcomes while avoiding negative ones. If someone knows they despise shopping, for example, they are more likely to take steps to avoid going shopping.

4.3.2.2.2 Social identity function

Because attitudes allow us to convey values (Katz 1960), they enable a person to identify with and be identified by others who share similar beliefs. The importance of belonging to an in-group in developing a positive identity is emphasised by social identity theory.

4.3.2.2.3 Self-esteem maintenance function

People can adopt certain attitudes in order to remove themselves from persons who threaten their self-image and connect themselves with those who help them improve it. Katz (1960) saw this as an ego-defence strategy, based on psychodynamic theory. Cialdini et al. (1976), based on social identity theory, asserted that belonging to a prestigious in group enabled people to "bask in reflected glory." As a result, they hypothesised that favourable views toward in groups help people boost their self-esteem while negative attitudes toward out groups help people separate themselves from groups that threaten their self-esteem.

4.3.2.2.4 Variations in the salience of functions

Attitudes, according to Shavitt (1989), fulfil a variety of purposes at the same time. Other research indicates that the importance of these functions varies by person. Snyder and DeBono (1987), for example, have received evidence for their hypothesis that people vary in their level of self-monitoring. Those who closely observe their behaviour in order to modify it to varied events and conditions are more likely to utilise attitudes to establish social identity. Those who engage in less self-monitoring, whose behaviour mostly reflects their own emotions and disposition, on the other hand, tend to utilise their attitudes to communicate their values.

4.3.2.2.5 Cultural differences

A study comparing commercial advertisements used in the United States and Korea provides evidence of cultural differences in attitudes (Han and Shavitt 1993). Individualism was emphasised in advertising slogans in the United States – ‘the art of being unique,’ ‘you, only better,’ and ‘A leader among leaders.’ Korean advertising slogans emphasised happy relationships: ‘we have a knack of bringing people together,’ ‘Sharing is beautiful,’ and ‘we devote ourselves to our contractors.’ Han and Shavitt demonstrated that the two types of slogans elicited distinct responses in US and Korean volunteers. The ones that emphasised individual ideals were favoured by the Americans, while those that emphasised harmonious relationships were favoured by the Koreans. In a study of political commercials, same inequalities were also discovered (Tak et al. 1997). These findings call into question experimental social psychology’s theory of attitude functions, which tends to overemphasise functions that benefit self-esteem while underemphasizing those that benefit group esteem. As a result, I believe that defining attitudes in terms of the four functions listed below is more useful:

- **An organisational function**, in which attitudes serve as guides to help people as individuals and collectively attend to, understand, and feel about items in the social world by categorising them along evaluative dimensions.
- **An instrumental function**, in which people’s attitudes drive them to act in the social world in ways that help them achieve their individual and communal goals
- **An expressive role**, in which attitudes allow people and groups to communicate their views, ideas, and values and, as a result, identify with people who share them.
- **An esteem function**, which allows individuals and groups to earn and maintain status, respect, and honour.

Attitude formation and impression management are two issues that are intertwined and have a lot of practical application in our daily lives. We form rapid impressions of persons we encounter. We also try to make a good impression on people in order to acquire something from them, such as an interview, an assignment, or getting our work done. We also try to sway how people perceive us and build opinions about us. We’ll talk about how impressions are created and how we might influence others’ perceptions of us in this unit.

4.4. Social comparison

Athletes can watch and compare their own performance to that of their competitors while competing in a race. Similarly, in the course of daily life, everyone inevitably compares themselves to others. Our motivation and mood may be affected by these assessments. This subject will teach you about the social comparison process, including its definition, repercussions, and influencing factors.

Even when it comes to the most minor of situations, social comparison impacts our views, memories, and behaviour. We’ll look at why we make social comparisons and what happens when we do. In 1954, psychologist Leon Festinger proposed the social comparison theory, which claimed that people had an inbuilt desire to evaluate themselves in comparison to others. People make many types of judgements about themselves, and social comparison, or examining oneself in relation to others, is one of the most common ways we do so.

Social comparison can be classified into two types: upward and downward. Example: Consider a high school student who has recently enrolled in a clarinet lesson. She'll compare her performance to that of other students in the class as she assesses her skills and growth.

She can begin by comparing herself to the other clarinetists in the section, noting who is better and who is worse. She might also compare her skills to those of other students who play different instruments. A music student, for example, might make a comparison to the class's top performer. She may be motivated to achieve more and enhance her abilities if she discovers that her abilities fall short of those of her peers.

Upward Social Comparison: This occurs when we compare ourselves to individuals we believe are superior to us. The drive to better our existing status or level of skill is often at the centre of these upward comparisons. We may compare ourselves to someone who has it easier and seek out strategies to get similar achievements.

4.4.1. Downward Social Comparison

This happens when we compare ourselves to people who are in worse situations than we are. Such negative comparisons are frequently made in order to make ourselves feel better about our abilities or characteristics. We may not be exceptional at something, but we are certainly superior to others.

People's judgments of themselves, as well as their behaviour, are influenced by social comparison. Consider how both upward and downward social comparisons could affect your self-belief, confidence, motivation, and attitude as you compare yourself to others, and be aware of any negative sentiments that may arise as a result of this process.

4.5 Obedience to authority

The subjects of Stanley Milgram's famed obedience studies were far from the only ones who were duped.



Source pacific Standard, June 14, 2017

During WWII, and particularly during the Holocaust, psychologists looked at the phenomena of human obedience. Early attempts to explain the Holocaust relied on the concept that the Holocaust was possible because of something unique about German culture.

Stanley Milgram set out to see if "Germans are different?" was true, but he immediately discovered that we are all shockingly submissive to those in positions of authority.

Milgram (1963-74) established in one of the most renowned sets of psychological experiments that most people would deliver a defenceless victim deadly electric shocks if they were told to. Milgram went on to conduct a number of modifications on the basic study in order to learn more about the specific elements that influence compliance.

When people obey others' directives or directions to do something, they are said to be obeying them. Even those with authority and control prefer to exercise it through velvet glove-through pleas rather than direct orders, so obedience is less common than conformity or compliance. Parents, police officers, and sports coaches, to name a few, seek to influence others by issuing orders to their subordinates; military officers issue orders that they expect to be followed without question; and business executives, military officers, and military officers, to name a few, seek to influence others in the same way.

4.5.1. Destructive Obedience: Its Social Psychological Basis

Why is it that certain people are so willing to obey in such a damaging way? Why were individuals in many tests, as well as many people in catastrophic situations outside the lab, so receptive to this potent form of social influence?

1. Transfer of responsibility is the underlying issue in many life circumstances. Many people defend themselves by saying, "I was merely following orders." Given this, it's understandable that many people chose to comply; after all, they aren't held accountable for their acts.
2. People in positions of leadership frequently wear badges or other obvious symbols of their authority. Special clothes, badges, titles, and other emblems are among them. Most individuals find it difficult to reject such blatant reminders of who is in authority when confronted with such blatant reminders.
3. If it is expected that the targets of influence will resist, the authority figure's directives will be gradually increased. Initially, the order or request is for a relatively little activity, but as time goes on, the scope of the command or request expands, and harmful or undesirable behaviour is expected. Potential victims, for example, are first questioned, threatened, or arrested by police. Demands gradually escalate to the point when these people are ordered to kill defenceless individuals.
4. In many circumstances involving harmful compliance, events move swiftly: protests swiftly evolve into riots, or arrests swiftly turn into mass beatings – or murders. The swift tempo of such events leaves little time for reflection: individuals are told to comply, and they almost always do so.

4.5.2. Destructive Obedience, Resisting Its Effects

How might such social influence be countered? Several measures appear to aid in the reduction of obedience inclinations.

1. Individuals can be reminded that they, not the authorities, are responsible for the harm caused by obeying demands. This will foster a sense of personal accountability for one's actions, including decisions to obey authority directives. Sharp decrease in the inclination to obey has been reported under these settings.
2. Individuals can be given a clear sign that submitting to damaging directives without question beyond a certain point is improper. Exposing people to the behaviours of disobedient models – those who refuse to obey an authority figure's commands – is one technique that has proven to be quite effective in this regard. According to research, these types of models can significantly reduce blind obedience.
3. Individuals who doubt authority persons' skills and motives may find it simpler to reject their influence. Are authoritative figures in a better position to determine what is and is not appropriate? What are the motivations driving their commands – socially good objectives or self-interested gains? People who would ordinarily obey may find encouragement for independence rather than submit by asking such questions.
4. Simply being aware of authoritative persons' ability to elicit mindless loyalty could be beneficial in and of itself.
5. Furthermore, some research findings imply that when people learn about the findings of social psychology study, they may adjust their behaviour to reflect this new information. It is hoped that understanding this process may help people fight it more effectively.

4.6. Resistance Influence

If they have the backing of a dissenter, they may be able to resist pressures to conform or obey (someone who disagrees with the majority or refuses to obey). This relieves the individual of the need to conform or comply, allowing them to act on their own. This was proved in the Asch study of majority unanimity, as well as Milgram's variant, in which a rebellious confederate refused to obey at a specific point (obedience from the real participant fell to 10 percent).

4.6.1 Locus of control

This is a notion proposed by Rotter that measures how much a person believes they have influence over what happens in their lives on a scale of high internal to high external. Internals believe they have a lot of control over their lives and blame themselves for their triumphs and failures (for example, "I failed the exam because I didn't study hard enough"). Internals are less inclined to follow the crowd or mindlessly accept an order they believe is incorrect, so they are more inclined to oppose influence and display independence. Externals believe that many events are outside their control, and they credit their achievements and failures to luck, fate, or other external factors (for example, "I failed the exam because the questions on the paper were unfair"). Externals are less resistant to influence because they are less likely to take personal responsibility for their actions and have a greater desire for social approval.

Allen and Levine (1971) discovered that putting a dissenter into an Asch-style study dramatically reduced conformity levels, even if the dissenter wore thick glasses and claimed to have impaired eyesight, indicating that having social support enhances resistance to social influence. Another research discovered In a Milgram-type study, Holland (1967) discovered that 37% of "internals" refused to obey to the maximum shock level, compared to 23% of "externals," demonstrating a relationship between locus of control and resistance to compliance. However, according to Twenge et al. (2004), Americans have gotten more resistant to compliance while also becoming more external in their centre of power over time. This casts doubt on the idea that having an internal centre of control leads to social influence resistance.

4.7 Persuasions

Persuasion requires resistance. Persuasion isn't required if there is no opposition. When non-smokers consistently resist marketing and peer pressure encouraging them to smoke, for example, resistance to persuasion can be beneficial. Resistance, on the other hand, can be a negative trait, such as when smokers resist the numerous powerful messages pushing them to quit smoking and live longer.

Effective resistance can keep unwanted persuasion at bay, but ineffective resistance can keep a person from making significant improvements. Skepticism, reactance, and inertia are three different types of resistance that limit persuasion in distinct ways. Persuasion resistance can be increased or decreased in a variety of ways.

Persuasion in Three Forms Impediment

Persuasion resistance is a multi-faceted phenomenon. Three types of resistance are encountered: Skepticism is an opposition to the message's content. Skepticism focuses on the logic and evidence of the message's claims, prompting a desire to critically assess and dispute them.

-) Scepticism: Scepticism is a reaction to the message's content. Skepticism focuses on the logic and evidence of the message's claims, prompting a desire to critically assess and dispute them. Scepticism, reactance
-) Reaction: refers to people's negative reactions to others instructing them what to think or do. The term "reaction" refers to a person's reaction to an attempt to influence them. Reactance's contrariness causes people to reject persuasion, regardless of its message, and reclaim their freedom of thought by selecting the opposite.
-) Inertia: is a natural aversion to change, regardless of the change proposed. People are oblivious to the message because of inertia. They don't want to change. They simply want things to remain unchanged, and inertia.

4.7.1 Increasing Resistance to Persuasion

It's sometimes a good idea to boost one's or someone else's resistance to unwelcome seduction. Skepticism can be bolstered by (a) enhancing a person's motivation to investigate the message and (b) accumulating the information and skills needed to evaluate a message properly. Knowing that persuasion is on the way will energise both sides of scepticism. Also, thinking about how this topic affects you personally will boost the amount of energy you have to critically and carefully evaluate a message or suggestion.

Focusing on how persuasion is deceptive and aimed at limiting freedom can improve receptivity. When the unwanted influence is directed toward more significant ideals and acts, as well as when the unwanted influence is more intrusive and offensive, the reaction is stronger. The reactance form of resistance is increased by thoughts that emphasise these features of the effect.

4.7.2. Decreasing Resistance to Persuasion

When a person encounters resistance to a proposal, even his or her own, he or she may believe it is unfounded and that it hinders a recommendation or change from being realistically considered. In these situations, the person may find it beneficial to consider techniques to limit or lessen resistance. Most individuals believe that the best way to overcome resistance is to engage in conversation and explain why opposition is illogical or unneeded. This strategy rarely works and almost always results in retaliation. However, there is other more subtle and effective strategies to reduce resistance.

Skepticism is normally a positive trait, but when it is abused, it can obstruct decision-making. A subtle technique to reduce scepticism is to offer a guarantee, which removes the need for scepticism and investigation by promising that a bad outcome will be corrected. When a guarantee isn't possible, encouraging the individual (or oneself) to think about the suggestion in the future – for example, "What if you were a nonsmoker next year at this time?" – can help to lessen doubt. When evaluating a plan in the future (next week, next month, next year), the impact of costs is reduced and the advantages are more clearly examined.

Different ways of framing proposals can have a big impact on how they're seen. Listen to these two approaches to framing a request, as well as their outcomes: Pat asked her father if she may watch TV while doing her homework, to which he replied, "Certainly not!" Pat's sister requested if she could complete her homework while watching TV, and her father answered, "That would be terrific!" It was considerably more beneficial to frame this case as a request to change one's TV viewing habits rather than as a request to change one's schoolwork habits.

Reactance can be reduced by reducing the request's pushiness or offensiveness. This can be accomplished by submitting a modest request, which may be followed by a larger request later. Making the request in a respectful manner can also help to reduce resentment. "I know you may not want to, but would you..." rather than simply "Would you..." enhances persuasion significantly. Another strategy for reducing reactance is to weave the message into a tale about

someone who did something specific and got a specific result. The moral in a tale isn't "you should...", but rather "Jesse did, and it worked for her." People are more interested in what happens next in a story than they are in a direct message, therefore they are less likely to analyse or contest what happens.

The intriguing aspect of inertia is that it is impervious to influence. Persuasive messages are tuned out. To overcome inertia, something must be done to get the recipient to pay attention to the message. Many television commercials are built on the premise that they must first grab the attention of the viewers before they can hear the message. Advertisements utilise a variety of techniques to overcome inertia, such as bright lights, loud sounds, humour, perplexing start, and unexpected happenings.

4.8 Summary

Human being is always involved in social relations. he/she affects or gets affected by social situations. We conform because of two social motives: the need to be liked and the need to be right. Even, there are strong tendencies to conform; individuals often resist social pressure because there is wish to maintain individuality. Compliance involves efforts by one or more individuals to change the behaviour of others. Mainly there are six principles to gain compliance: friendship/liking, commitment/consistency, scarcity, reciprocity, social validation, and authority. The most visible form of social influence is obedience following direct orders from another person. This obedience occurs because of factors as authority figures gradually escalate the scope of their orders, they have visible signs of power, and there is little time for target persons to consider their actions in details.

4.9 Keywords

Normative Social Influence, Attitude Formation, ambiguity and inconsistency, Self-esteem, salience, cultural differences, obedience to authority, destructive Obedience, resistance Influence, locus of control and persuasions.

4.10 Review Questions

What are social influences. How can influence in daily life?

What is cause of social influence? Explain

What is attitude formation? Explain

What is social comparison. Is Social comparison good or bad explain?

How can obedience to authority influence our behavior?

What is building up resistance to persuasion attempts called?

4.11 Self-Assessment Questions

1. When soldiers in the military comply with the commands of their superiors they are displaying?
 - a. conformity
 - b. obedience

- c. aggression
- d. groupthink

2. Which individual investigated under what conditions individuals would obey an authority figure?

- a. Milgram
- b. Skinner
- c. Asch
- d. Bandura

3. In his study, Milgram wanted to explore how situational factors shape an individual's willingness to obeying of authority figure. What did he believe was necessary to accomplish this research?

- a. conformity
- b. deception
- c. groupthink
- d. individuals who could handle anxiety producing situations

4. What was one criticism of Milgram's original study that contemporary psychology is currently addressing?

- a. the use of deception and research
- b. conducting research in laboratory settings
- c. the use of numerous conditions
- d. the use of a WEIRD sample

5. Milgram did not anticipate how measuring responsibility after the actual experiment would affect his outcomes. Unanticipated factors that might influence a study's findings are:

- a. confounding factors
- b. conformity factors
- c. independence factors
- d. dependent factors

6. Twenge argued that one of the difficulties with Burger's findings was that:

- a. Burger and Milgram used similar end points for maximum shock levels
- b. Burger and Milgram used participants from similar generations
- c. Burger used only Asian participants from California

-
- d. Burger's participants were less accepting of violence than Milgram's were
7. Meeus and Raaijmakers designed a clever way to study obedience in the Netherlands. They created a scenario that involved;
- a. delivering shocks to the participant
 - b. interrupting a job applicant who needed to take a test for the posted position
 - c. asking individuals to problem solve collaboratively
 - d. a panel discussing an applicant's qualifications
8. Which of the following **IS TRUE** regarding Meeus and Raaijmaker's study on obedience?
- a. they use similar situational factors as Milgram
 - b. they found no gender differences
 - c. their participants were very comfortable with the task
 - d. their participants transferred responsibility to the experimenter similar to Milgram's participants
9. Bass performed a meta-analysis on Milgram's findings and those that created Milgram's experiment. Which of the following **IS TRUE**?
- a. Bass found extreme differences in participant obedience levels
 - b. Bass found no cultural differences in obedience levels
 - c. Bass found sex differences to be significant
 - d. Bass found that participant obedience levels were similar across different countries
10. When a group exerts pressure on its members, members change their perceptions, emotions, opinions, and actions. This is an example of:
- a. obedience
 - b. conformity
 - c. aggression
 - d. peer pressure
11. Conformity is a type of:
- a. social influence
 - b. obedience
 - c. aggression
 - d. social loafing

12. Which individual conducted a study that explored how groups influence our behavior?
- a. Milgram
 - b. Skinner
 - c. Asch
 - d. Bandura
13. The belief that other group members must be right about a particular topic or subject is:
- a. social influence
 - b. informational influence
 - c. conformity
 - d. obedience to authority
14. Like conformity, peer pressure is a form of;
- a. obedience
 - b. informational influence
 - c. aggression
 - d. social influence
15. The direct or indirect encouragement from one's own age group to participate in activities or behave in expected ways is:
- a. peer pressure
 - b. obedience
 - c. conformity
 - d. informational influence

1. b 2. a 3. b 4. d 5. d 6. c 7. b 8. d 9. d 10. d 11. a 12. c 13. b 14. d 15. a

4.12 Suggested readings

Myers, D. G. (2010). *Social Psychology*, 10th Ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Vincent van Veen, Marie K Krug, Jonathan W Schooler & Cameron S Carter (2009). Neural activity predicts attitude change in cognitive dissonance. *Nature Neuroscience* 12, 1469 - 1474 (2009).
Published online: 16 September 2009



UNIT 5 GROUP COHESION AND CONFORMITY

Learning outcomes

5.1 Objectives

5.2 Introduction

5.3 Group Cohesion

5.4 Group structure

5.4.1 Roles in groups

5.5 Conformity

5.5.1 Types of Conformity

5.5.1.1 Compliance

5.5.1.2 Internalization

5.5.1.3 Identification

5.6 Groups Norms

5.7 Increasing Conformity

5.8 Summary

5.9 Keywords

5.10 Review Questions

5.11 Self-Assessment Questions

5.12 Suggested readings

5.1 Objective

-) Understand various forms of group cohesion
-) Study of group structure
-) Identify reasons as to why people conform and the ways of resisting conformity.
-) Analyze the concept and techniques of conformity.
-) Learn about group norms.

5.2 Introduction

Social influence is a component of our everyday life. People influence other people's behaviour, ideas, and attitudes in a variety of ways. It investigates how people are affected by the presence of other people in their life, whether real or imagined. Social influence can happen between individuals as well as within social groups. Most human beings have had both appropriate and terrible experiences from collaborating in such organization paintings. One critical element that impacts one's organization work experience is cohesion. Cohesion has dimensions: emotional (or personal) and task-related. In few companies certainly does it manifest that each one participant is equal, carry out equal sports or talk freely with one another. Conformity is a sort of social influence involving a alternate in notion or conduct with a view to healthy in with a set. This alternate is in reaction to real (regarding the bodily presence of others) or imagined (regarding the stress of social norms / expectations) organization stress.

5.3 Group Cohesion

Group cohesion is a social technique that characterizes agencies whose participants have interaction with every different and refers back to the forces that push group participants nearer collectively. A lot of work in recent times is achieved in groups. Most human beings have had both appropriate and terrible experiences from collaborating in such organization paintings. One critical element that impacts one's organization work experience is cohesion. Cohesion has dimensions: emotional (or personal) and task-related.

The emotional issue of cohesion, which become studied extra often, is derived from the relationship that participants experience to different group participants and to their group as a whole. That is, how plenty do participants want to spend time with different group participants? Do they stay up for the following group meeting? Task cohesion refers back to the degree to which group participants share group goals and work collectively to fulfil those goals. That is, is there a sense that the group works easily as one unit, or do different people pull in different directions?

One of the maximum fundamental houses of a collection is its cohesiveness (solidarity, esprit de corps, team spirit, morale) - the manner it 'hangs collectively' as a tightly knit, self-contained entity characterized via way of means of uniformity of behavior and mutual assist among participants. Cohesiveness is a variable assets: it differs among groups, between contexts and throughout time. Groups with extraordinarily low levels of cohesiveness appear to be infrequently groups at all, so the time period might also seize the very essence of being a group - the mental technique that transforms an aggregate of individuals into a group. Cohesiveness is for that reason a descriptive time period, used to outline a assets of the organization as a whole. But it's also a mental time period to characterise the man or woman mental technique underlying the cohesiveness of agencies. In this feel it's miles pretty carefully associated with the assets of entitativity possessed via way of means of categories, which we mentioned at the start of this chapter. But, importantly, it's also a mental time period to explain the man or woman mental technique underlying the cohesiveness of agencies. Herein lies a problem: it makes feel to mention that a collection is cohesive, however now no longer that an man or woman is cohesive.

After almost a decade of informal usage, cohesiveness was formally defined by Festinger, Schachter and Back (1950). They believed that a field of forces, primarily based totally at the elegance of the institution and its participants and the diploma to which the institution satisfies person goals, acts upon the person. The resultant valence of those forces of appeal produces cohesiveness, that is liable for institution club continuity and adherence to institution standards.

Hogg (1993) indicates that a difference ought to be made among private appeal (proper interpersonal appeal primarily based totally on near relationships and idiosyncratic preferences) and social appeal (inter-person liking primarily based totally on perceptions of self and others in phrases now no longer of individuality however of institution norms or prototypicality). Personal appeal is not anything to do with groups, whilst social appeal is the 'liking' factor of institution club. Social appeal is simply one in every of a constellation of effects (ethnocentrism, conformity, intergroup differentiation, stereotyping, ingroup solidarity) produced through the system of self-categorisation laid out in self-categorisation theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987).

This analysis has at least two major advantages over the traditional model:

- 1 It does not reduce group solidarity and cohesiveness to interpersonal attraction.
- 2 It is as applicable to small interactive groups (the only valid focus of traditional models) as to large-scale social categories, such as an ethnic group or a nation (people can feel attracted to one another on the basis of common ethnic or national group membership).

Group (or team) cohesion was studied substantially and has acquired a brilliant deal of interest withinside the social sciences, as evidenced with the aid of using the masses of articles posted withinside the beyond 50 years in numerous domains, such as sports, education, and work (a brief Google seek found out that there are greater than 278,000 hits for "organization cohesion" and almost 120,000 hits for "organization cohesiveness").

5.4 Group structure

Cohesiveness, socialisation and norms refer in particular to uniformities in groups. However, we've simply visible how there also can be a degree of patterning and differentiation of norms inside companies. Here we increase this theme. In few companies certainly does it manifest that each one

participants are equal, carry out equal sports or talk freely with one another. Group shape is really contemplated in roles, reputation family members and conversation networks. Groups also are dependent in phrases of subgroups and in phrases of the critical or marginal group membership credentials of particular members.

5.4.1 Roles in groups

Roles are just like norms in up to now as they describe and prescribe behaviour. However, even as norms observe to the group as a whole, roles observe to a subgroup of humans in the group. Furthermore, even as norms might also additionally distinguish among groups, they're usually now no longer deliberately derived to gain the framework of organizations in a society. In contrast, roles are especially designed to distinguish among humans withinside the group for the extra true of the groups as a whole.

Roles aren't people however behavioural prescriptions which are assigned to humans. They may be casual and implicit (e.g. in groups of friends) or formal and explicit (e.g. in plane flight crews). One pretty well-known function differentiation in small groups is among venture specialists (the 'ideas' humans, who get matters done) and socioemotional specialists (the humans all people likes due to the fact they cope with relationships withinside the group) (e.g. Slater, 1955). Roles might also additionally emerge in a set for some of reasons:

- They represent a division of labour; only in the simplest groups is there no division of labour.
- They furnish clear-cut social expectations within the group and provide information about how members relate to one another.
- They mould members with a self-definition and a place within the group.

Clearly, roles emerge to facilitate institution functioning. However, there may be proof that rigid function differentiation can once in a while be damaging to the institution. Gersick and Hackman (1990) located that inflexible function differentiation referring to pre-flight exams through the flight crew of a passenger airliner induced the crew to fail to interact a de-icing device, with the tragic effect that the aircraft crashed rapidly after take-off.

Roles can once in a while additionally be related to large class memberships (e.g. professional groups) out of doors the particular task-orientated groups, wherein case the task-orientated institution can grow to be a context for function struggle this is virtually a manifestation of wider intergroup struggle. A correct instance of this is probably intergroup struggle in a clinic among docs and nurses.

Although we have a tendency to undertake a dramaturgical attitude while we talk of humans 'acting' or 'assuming' roles, we're likely most effective in part correct. We can also additionally count on roles similar to actors taking special parts, however many humans see us most effective particularly roles and so infer that this is how we definitely are. Professional actors are without problems typecast in precisely the equal way – one motive why Paul Greengrass's 2006 film, *United 93*, approximately the eleven September 2001 terrorist assaults at the United States, is so surprisingly effective is that the actors aren't high-profile people who've already been typecast.

5.5 Conformity

Conformity is a sort of social influence involving a alternate in notion or conduct with a view to healthy in with a set. This alternate is in reaction to real (regarding the bodily presence of others) or imagined (regarding the stress of social norms / expectations) organization stress.

Conformity also can be actually described as "yielding to organization pressures" (Crutchfield, 1955). Group stress can also additionally take one-of-a-kind forms, for instance bullying, persuasion, teasing, criticism, etc. Conformity is likewise referred to as majority have an impact on (or organization stress).

The term conformity is regularly used to suggest an settlement to the bulk position, introduced approximately both through a choice to 'healthy in' or be liked (normative) or due to a choice to be correct (informational), or actually to comply to a social role (identification).

Jenness (1932) changed into the primary psychologist to study conformity. His test changed into an ambiguous state of affairs regarding a pitcher bottle full of beans.

He requested members personally to estimate what number of beans the bottle contained. Jenness then positioned the organization in a room with the bottle, and requested them to offer a set estimate thru discussion.

Participants had been then requested to estimate the quantity on their personal once more to discover whether or not their preliminary estimates had altered primarily based totally at the have an impact on of the bulk.

Jenness then interviewed the members personally once more, and requested in the event that they would love to alternate their unique estimates, or live with the organization's estimate. Almost all modified their person guesses to be in the direction of the organization estimate.

However, possibly the maximum famous conformity test changed into through Solomon Asch (1951) and his line judgment test.

5.5.1 Types of Conformity

Kelman (1958) distinguished between three different types of conformity

5.5.1.1 Compliance

This occurs 'while a man or woman accepts affect due to the fact, he hopes to obtain a good response from every other man or woman or organization. He adopts the prompted conduct due to the fact...he expects to advantage particular rewards or approval and keep away from particular punishment or disapproval by conformity' (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

In different words, conforming to the majority (publicly), no matter now no longer absolutely agreeing with them (privately). This is visible in Asch's line experiment.

Compliance stops while there aren't anyt any organization pressures to conform, and is consequently a transient conduct change

5.5.1.2 Internalization

This occurs 'when an individual accepts influence because the content of the brought about behavior - the thoughts and actions of which it is composed - is intrinsically rewarding. He adopts the brought about behavior due to the fact it is congruent [consistent] together along with his value system' (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

Internalization constantly includes public and private conformity. A person publicly changes their behavior to match in with the institution, even as additionally agreeing with them privately.

This is the inner most level of conformity had been the ideals of the institution turn out to be a part of the individual's very own perception system. This method the alternate in conduct is permanent. This is visible in Sherif's autokinetic experiment.

This is most in all likelihood to arise whilst the majority have more understanding, and participants of the minority have little knowledge to challenge the majority

5.5.1.3 Identification

This occurs 'when an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain agratifying self-defining courting to some other man or woman or group' (Kelman, 1958, p. 53).

Individuals agree to the expectancies of a social role, e.g. nurses, police officers. It is much like compliance as there does now no longer need to be a alternate in non-public opinion. A properly instance is Zimbardo's Prison Study

Deutsch and Gerrard (1955) recognized motives because humans conform:

Normative Conformity

- Yielding to institution stress due to the fact someone desires to in shape in with the institution. E.g. Asch Line Study.

- Conforming due to the fact the individual is afraid of being rejected via way of means of the institution.
- This form of conformity commonly entails compliance – in which someone publicly accepts the perspectives of a set however privately rejects them.

Informational Conformity

- This generally happens while someone lacks information and appears to the group for guidance.
- Or while someone is in an ambiguous (i.e. unclear) scenario and socially compares their conduct with the group. E.g. Sherif's Study.
- This sort of conformity generally entails internalization – in which someone accepts the perspectives of the groups and adopts them as an individual.

5.6 Groups Norms

Many years in the past Sumner (1906) pointed out norms as 'folkways', which means routine customs displayed with the aid of using a set due to the fact that they'd at the start been adaptive in assembly simple needs. Later Sherif (1936) defined norms as 'customs, traditions, requirements, policies, values, fashions, and all different standards of behavior which can be standardized resulting from the touch of people' (p. 3). Although norms can take the shape of express policies which might be enforced with the aid of using law and sanctions (e.g. societal norms to do with personal property, pollutants and aggression), maximum social psychologists trust Cialdini and Trost (1998) that norms are policies and requirements which might be understood with the aid of using individuals of a set and that manual and/or constrain social behaviour with out the pressure of laws. These norms emerge out of interaction with others; they'll or might not be said explicitly, and any sanctions for deviating from them come from social networks, now no longer the prison system. (p. 152).

Garfinkel (1967) targeted very a lot on norms because the implicit, unobserved, taken-forgranted heritage to regular existence. People generally count on a exercise is 'natural' or simply 'human nature' till the exercise is disrupted with the aid of using norm violation and those unexpectedly recognise the exercise is 'merely' normative. Indeed, Piaget's influential concept of cognitive improvement describes how kids simplest slowly start to recognise that norms aren't goal facts, and indicates that even adults locate it tough to return back to this realisation (Piaget, 1928, 1955).

Garfinkel devised a methodology, referred to as ethnomethodology, to locate those heritage norms. One approach worried the violation of norms to be able to entice human beings's interest to them. For example, Garfinkel had college students act at domestic for fifteen mins as though they had been boarders: this is, be polite, communicate officially and simplest communicate while spoken to. Their households reacted with astonishment, bewilderment, shock, embarrassment and anger, sponsored up with fees of selfishness, nastiness, rudeness and shortage of consideration! An implicit norm for familial interplay turned into revealed, and its violation provoked a sturdy reaction.

Group norms could have a effective impact on human beings. For example, Newcomb (1965) carried out a traditional observe of norms withinside the Thirties at a small American university referred to as Bennington. The university had innovative and liberal norms however drew its college students from conservative, upper-middle-magnificence households. The 1936 American presidential election allowed Newcomb to behavior a private ballot. First-12 months college students strongly favoured the conservative candidate, whilst third- and fourth-12 months college students had shifted their vote casting choice closer to the liberal and communist/socialist candidates (see Figure 8.15). Presumably, extended publicity to liberal norms had produced the extrade in political choice.

Norms serve a feature for the individual. They specify a restricted variety of behaviour this is perfect in a positive context and for this reason they lessen uncertainty and facilitate assured

preference of the 'correct' direction of action. Norms offer a body of reference inside which to find our very own behaviour. You will remember that this concept turned into explored with the aid of using Sherif (1936) in his traditional experiments coping with norm formation. Sherif confirmed that after human beings made perceptual decisions alone, they depended on their very own estimates as a reference body; however, after they had been in a set, they used the organization's variety of decisions to converge fast at the group mean.

Norms are inherently immune to extrade – after all, their feature is to offer balance and predictability. However, norms to start with rise up to address precise occasions. They bear so long as the ones occasions be triumphant however in the end extrade with converting occasions. Norms range in their 'range of perfect behaviour': a few are slim and restrictive (e.g. army get dressed codes) and others wider and much less restrictive (e.g. get dressed codes for college lecturers). In general, norms that relate to organization loyalty and to significant components of organization existence have a slim range of perfect behaviour, whilst norms referring to extra peripheral functions of the organization are much less restrictive. Finally, positive organization individuals are allowed a more range of perfect behaviour than others: better-popularity individuals (e.g. leaders) can break out with extra than lower-popularity individuals and followers. Norms are the yardstick of organization behavior, and it is thru norms that agencies impact the behaviour in their individuals.

5.7 Increasing Conformity

A wide variety of things are recognised to growth the probability of conformity inside a set. Some of those are as follows:

Group size – large groups are much more likely to comply to comparable behaviors and mind than smaller ones.

Unanimity – people are much more likely to comply to group selections while the relaxation of the group's reaction is unanimous.

Cohesion – agencies that own bonds linking them to each other and to the group as an entire have a tendency to show extra conformity than agencies that don't have the ones bonds.

Status – people are much more likely to comply with high-popularity agencies.

Culture – cultures which might be collectivist show off a better diploma of conformity than individualistic cultures.

Gender – women are much more likely to comply than guys in conditions related to surveillance, however much less probable while there may be no surveillance. Societal norms set up gender variations that have an effect on the approaches wherein women and men agree to social impact.

Age – more youthful people are much more likely to comply than older people, possibly because of loss of enjoy and popularity.

Importance of stimuli – people may also conform much less often while the project is taken into consideration important. This turned into recommended with the aid of using a observe in which individuals had been instructed that their responses might be used withinside the layout of plane protection signals, and conformity decreased.

Minority impact – minority factions inside large agencies have a tendency to have impact on basic organization selections. This impact is normally informational and relies upon on regular adherence to a position, the diploma of defection from the majority, and the popularity and self-self-assurance of the minority individuals.

5.8 Summary

Social influence refers to the phenomena by which people induce changes in others. There are many forms of social influence, such as group cohesion and conformity. Conformity is the tendency to change one's beliefs or behavior to match the behavior of others. It occurs due to the influence of norms and information. There are many factors that determine how much compliance occurs, such as group size, cohesion, consensus, etc. Resistance to compliance comes from: strong personal need, strong need for control, etc. Compliance refers to a change in behavior in response to someone else's request. There are many different tactics people use to achieve it, such as those based on taste, reciprocity, commitment and consistency, and so on.

5.9 Keywords

Group Cohesion, Group structure, Conformity, Compliance, Internalization, Identification and Groups Norms

5.10 Review Questions

What is group cohesion?

What is group. Can you explain how to develop group structure?

What is conformity? Explain simple word in present time?

What is group norms? Explain with example

How can increase conformity?

5.11 Self-Assessment Questions

1. The effect of family, friends and groups in protecting people from the adverse consequences of stress is called:

- a. social support
- b. social comparison
- c. the MUM effect
- d. health promotion

2. The direct or indirect encouragement from one's own age group to participate in activities or behave in expected ways is peer pressure

True/ False

3. peer pressure is a form of;

- a. obedience
- b. informational influence
- c. aggression
- d. social influence

4. it helps us develop our identity and sense of self about peer pressure-----

True/false

5. _____ is a change in behavior or belief as a result of group pressure.

- a. Cohesiveness
- b. Conformity
- c. Compliance
- d. Obedience

6. Publicly acting in accord with social pressure while privately disagreeing is called

- a. acceptance
- b. compliance
- c. reactance
- d. interaction

7. How social pressure may lead us to perform immoral acts is best illustrated by studies of

- a. psychological reactance
- b. spontaneous self-concept
- c. obedience to authority
- d. informational influence

8. Normative influence is to informational influence as _____

- a. autokinetic effect
- b. compliance
- c. conformity
- d. acceptance

9. _____ is based on a person's desire to be correct.

- a. Indirect influence
- b. Nominal influence
- c. Normative influence
- d. Informational influence

10. Normative influence is to informational influence as _____

- a. cohesiveness
- b. acceptance
- c. reactance
- d. all of the above

11. Which of the following is true regarding individual differences in conformity?

- a. females conform slightly more than males
- b. French participants conform slightly more than Norwegian participants
- c. people's self-esteem test scores are excellent predictors of conformity
- d. American participants conform slightly more than German participants

12. Publicly acting in accord with social pressure while privately disagreeing is called compliance.

True/false

13. Solomon asch's classic experiment (in which subjects judged a standard line and comparison lines) was arranged to test the limits of

a. social perception

b. indoctrination

c. coercive power

d. conformity

14. Groups reward members with approval for conformity.

True/ false

15. Groups reward members with acceptance for conformity

True/ false

1. a 2. true 3. d 4. true 5. b 6. b 7 c 8 b 9 d 10 b 11. a 12 true 13. d 14. true 15. True

5.12 Suggested readings

Nyla R Baranscombe, Robert A Baron & Preeti Kapur. (2017). Social Psychology, 14th edition. By Pearson Education India



<https://courses.lumenlearning.com/suny-realworldcomm/chapter/13-3-small-group-dynamics/>

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UNIT-6 INTERPERSONAL RELATION

Learning outcomes

- 6.1 Objectives
- 6.2 Introduction
- 6.3 Interpersonal Relation
- 6.4 Formal relationship
- 6.5 Close relationships
- 6.6 Interdependent relationships
 - 6.6.1 Relationships with other family members
 - 6.6.2 Relationships between and among siblings
 - 6.6.3 Friendships
- 6.7 Romantic relationships
 - 6.7.1 Criteria for mate selection
 - 6.7.2 Males
 - 6.7.3 Females
 - 6.7.4 Passionate love
 - 6.7.5 Companionate love
 - 6.7.6 Functions of romantic love
- 6.8 Marriage
 - 6.8.1 Minding relationships
- 6.9 Summary
- 6.10 Keywords
- 6.11 Review Questions
- 6.12 Self-Assessment Questions
- 6.13 Suggested readings

6.1 Objectives

-) To describes interpersonal relationship
-) To explain formal relationship
-) To Learn about the various types of close relationships
-) To describes interdependent relationship
-) To learn about romantic and marriage relationship

6.2 Introduction

With the evolution of human beings, it has been frequently addressed that man is a social animal. And with the word social what we mean here is interpersonal relationships. Interpersonal relationship is a bond that is being shared by two individuals, so it has been very important in the growth and well-being of an individual and is being referred as a central trait to the human behavior. Due to its important influence in human behavior, it has been growing as an important area of research for the researchers.

Relationships are categorized as in different types such as close or romantic relationships and the other ones that are not so close or nonromantic relationships. The interest of researchers is more in

close/romantic relationships which are also termed as interdependent relationships. But decades ago, interests were not the same as they are now, like in 70's and 80's focus was more on relations in strangers and the development and maintenance of romantic relationships.

6.3 Interpersonal relations

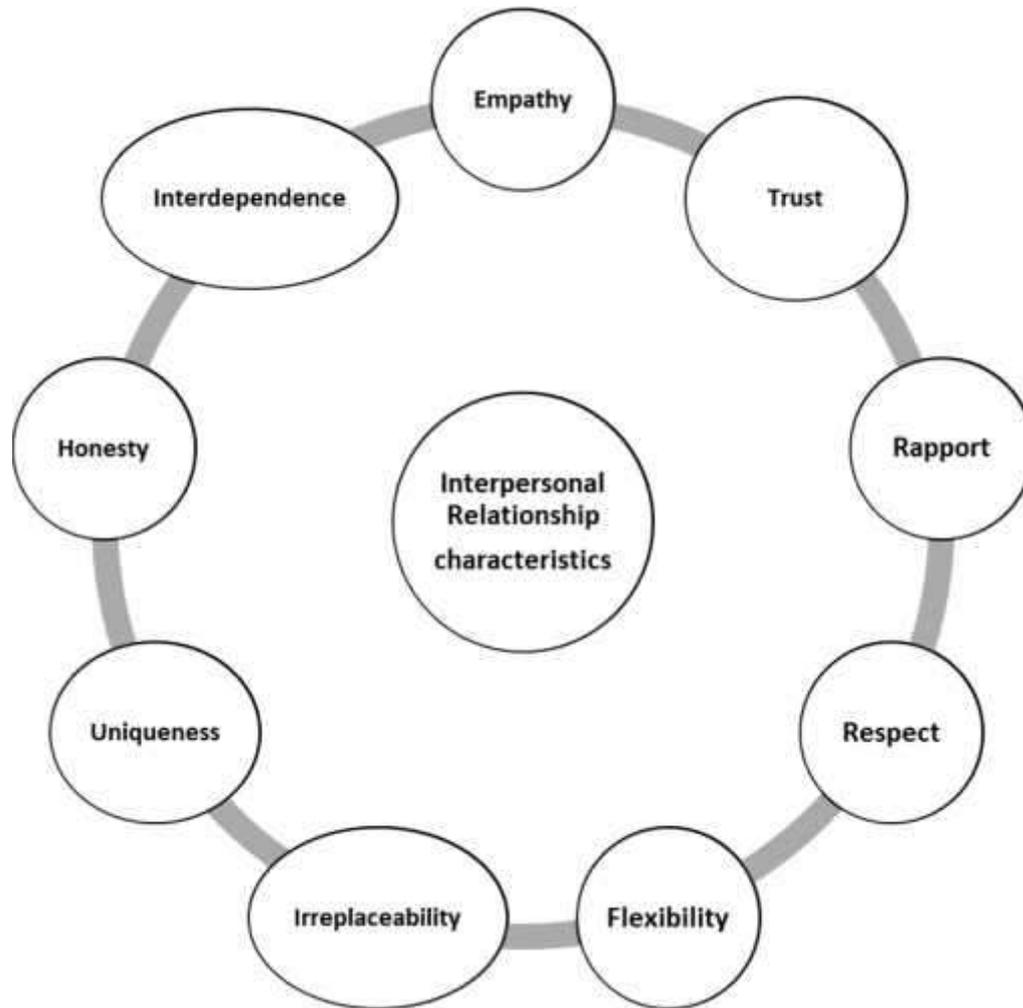
An interpersonal relationship is a connection between two or more people, the relationships can range from short timed one to a long lasting one. The basis of this relation can be anything from school mates to office buddies and neighbors, business parts or can be in other social settings. Interpersonal relationships are often regarded as close relations but close relations are the one which are confined to family members or a small group of people that are very close to you. Interpersonal relationships provide the utmost level of satisfaction and joy but are most difficult to maintain i.e., they require a lot of effort.

There are many contexts in which a relation can be made like social, cultural, economic, geographical and many other similar areas in which a regulation can be done for both the parties under law, mutual group or any habit or underlying feature that is being shared by both. Interpersonal relationship can be of different types like it can be an individual-individual type in which the relation is between two friends and it can be parent-child type relationship. It can be between groups of people like people in a society having a relationship with the ones in other society.

A relation is like a continuously changing system as we can call it dynamic system, like in a dynamic system a relationship has stages too. For ex. First a bond is shared between two people, then the bond turn to a friendship and then to a strong relationship and with the further progress in life the bond gets weakened when the person moves over different relationships when he meets with different people in his life.

An interpersonal relationship has following characteristics -

-) **Empathy** - The art of understanding other person's emotions and feelings is called as empathy.
-) **Trust** - The feeling where you know that you can depend on other person and can expect support from him/her.
-) **Rapport** - How strong the bond is being made between the two people is known as rapport, the greater is the rapport higher is the trust.
-) **Respect** - Giving respect is the basis of any relationship, any person old or young demands respect from other person.
-) **Flexibility** - Life is not always the same as you want it to be, so being flexible or turning to circumstances is needed by the relationships from time to time.
-) **Irreplaceability** - The position of one another can't be replaced by someone else in an in good interpersonal relationship.
-) **Uniqueness** - Each and every relation is different in its own.
-) **Honesty** - Having nothing to hide and communicating freely and openly, accepting mistakes that have been done is must in a good relationship.
-) **Interdependence** - It states that whatever is happening in another person's life is affecting the individual.



6.4 Formal relationship

A formal relationship is the one which is structured one. A structured relationship is one in which a format is being made/governed by the government or the organization, all the people in that relationship have to act according to the law. On the other hand, an informal relationship is one which has no structure and is not being controlled by any organization. For ex. The relationship in a boss and his employees is a formal relationship. Because no matter how close the relation between them the employee has to act respectfully in front of the boss. This respecting nature and accumulation of behaviors shows that the employee is being governed and hence is in a formal relationship.

6.5 Close relationships

Close relationships on the other hand are same/universal. Most of the relations are undermined by cultural factors I.e., culture determines everything in these relationships like expectations and obligations are composed by cultures. The limit as is seen is that even our perceptions are determined by culture. The role of culture is so much that each and all romantic relations are composed of cultural factors that is culture determines how a relationship is going to be. It is generally seen that romantic relations are of individualistic culture rather than collectivistic culture that's why most romantic relations are easily acceptable in American culture rather than other collectivistic cultures such as India and China.

Close relationships are meant for a host of strong emotions (Fitness, Fletcher & Overall, 2003). According to the emotion-in-relationships model, relationships depend on strong, well-established and wide-ranging expectations about a partner's behavior (Berscheid & Ammazza Iorso, 2001). Generally, people who express their emotions are valued in their groups (Feeney, 1999). There is,

however, a caveat. Fitness (2001) has reported that when a person increases his tendency to feel all emotions it makes easy to understand and manage the emotions in close relationships especially negative emotions. If anyone is trying to hide the negative emotions in a relationship from his/her partner than the relationship might not be a long lived one. Not only showing emotions is important but managing them how to show is equally important.

6.6 Interdependent relationships

An important need and feature of close relationships is interdependence. Interdependence is defined as an interpersonal coalition between two individuals whose lives are consistently being influenced by one another. According to Ryff and Singer (2003), "quality ties to others are universally endorsed as central to optimal living."

In a family the parent child interaction is of utmost importance because a child's first contact in family are parents. A new positive experience for the baby and the parents emerges when reciprocal interaction is formed. Close relationships are also important since they influence the nature interpersonal relationships.

Bowlby (1969) studied the relationship between mothers and their children and developed the concept of attachment style. According to him the individual acquires two basic attitudes in his first interactions, first is the concept of self-esteem, the kind of behavior that is provided to him by the primary caregivers and family and friends and the second attitude is interpersonal trust which states that whether or not the caregiver is person on which the baby can trust or he/she is just doing the job. On the basis of these attitudes, different attachment styles have been developed by the person which can be as follows-

(i) Secure attachment style- A person having secure attachment style is high in both self-esteem and interpersonal trust. Such individuals are able to form satisfying and long-lasting relationships throughout their lives.

(ii) Fearful-avoidant attachment style- A person having fearful-avoidant attachment style is low in both self-esteem and interpersonal trust. People having this type are unable to make relationships and even if they make relationships, they end up in being the unhappy ones.

(iii) Preoccupied attachment style - A person having preoccupied attachment style has low self-esteem and high interpersonal trust. People having this attachment style make relationships very easily because they are afraid of getting rejected because of their negative self-image/self-esteem.

(iv) Dismissing attachment style- A person having dismissing attachment style are high in self-esteem but are low in interpersonal trust. They have issues in making relationships with others as they think that the other individual is not that good for them and they might deserve something better than that.

An attachment is said to be permanent throughout the life. But some researches have suggested that some different kind of relationship experience might lead to a change in attachment style.

6.6.1 Relationships with other family members

Other than having an important relation with mother and father, relationship with other family members is also important such as with grandmother, father and grandfather etc. Researches have shown that other family members such as father and grandfather can have impact on the individual like a good relation with other elders can lead to a significant increase in his/her interpersonal skills. Other family members in a family can affect the individual in many ways such as teaching some good life lessons about relationships and many other things.

6.6.2 Relationships between and among siblings

Siblings are an important part in an individual's life because of their same age group, like mindedness and all. Almost everyone in a populous country like India has siblings. Siblings cause a great impact on an individual's lifestyle, they affect a lot of behaviors such as behavior, learning, interpersonal skills such as love, bravery, hostility. Some studies have proved that kids with no siblings are more aggressive than the peers having siblings which shows the lack of interpersonal learning experience.

6.6.3 Friendships

Closeness in individuals during the childhood results in casual friendships, this casual friendship in long term sometimes led to a mature close friendship. A close friendship is a relationship in which

two individuals spend a lot of time together and provide mutual emotional support to each other. Women generally have more close friends as compared to men.

6.7 Romantic relationships

Looking at different emotions in the life, love is one of the most important emotions in our life. The basic feature that differentiates between love and friendship is sexual attraction or physical intimacy. The basis of romantic relationships is affiliation, once affiliation meets with proximity and mutual liking it blooms as a romantic relationship. Another important feature of romantic relationships is that one person is easily aroused in presence of other person having same strong attraction that is in the case of love and sex.

6.7.1 Criteria for mate selection

Certain personality characters are important in determining how strong an interpersonal relationship would be, like certain people look at the second persons personality characters (physical attractiveness, bodily characters) while doing mate selection. Like in childhood interaction reciprocity also plays an important role in mate selection because almost each and every relation involve exchange of resources. Reciprocity too plays a role in mate selection not only with respect to mutual liking but in the sense that every relationship involves an exchange of thoughts and resources because with proper exchange of information, thoughts the partners are seem to be happiest. With time, men and women are having different choices to what kind of traits they would like to have in a partner. Some researchers have also said that the different types of socialization of both males and females lead to these differences.

6.7.2 Males

Males are sexually attracted to the beauty of female as it is associated with fertility. Other than beauty, men are also attracted to characteristics that indicate youth and health of the female counterpart. Some of the important examples that impresses men are a woman's hair; a face having bilateral symmetry as well as bodily symmetry.

6.7.3 Females

Females also pay attention to physical as well as mental characteristics while seeking a romantic partner, but more attention of all the characteristics/resources of a man, has been given to economic and interpersonal power. The more mature and more prosperous an individual is the more chances are there that heshe can keep the newborn safe and sound hence the reproductive success is automatically enhanced.

6.7.4 Passionate love

When each and every response given to the partner is positive, intense feelings are shared and unrealistic emotional reaction is given to the other person. The person is consumed with thinking about that person and nothing else. According to Myers and Berscheid (1997), sexual attraction is a necessary but not sufficient condition for being in love with another person. Other than sex, strong emotional reactions, physical closeness and a love of highest intensity has been demanded. According to Hatfield and Walster (1978), three factors should be must present in the passionate love-

1. Exposing to the movies, song and unrealistic media motivates the individual to experience the same kind of love that is being seen.
2. Something that is to be loved must be present with the individual.
3. An arousal is sometimes interpreted as love, but it is just an arousal. It is an overwhelming feeling that cannot be maintained for long.

6.7.5 Companionate love

Companionate love refers to a variety of love that is durable, fairly slow to develop, and characterized by interdependence and feelings of affection, intimacy, and commitment. Companionate love is also known as affectionate love, friendship-based love, or attachment. A long lasting and durable relationship is generally seen in this type of love.

Sternberg (1986) provided a triangular model of love. According to this model, a relationship is made up of three basic components which vary in different couples-

1. Intimacy – the closeness and the strength of relationship between the partners. Partners high on this component care for, value and understand each other.

2. Passion – this component is based on romance and sexual attraction.

3. Commitment – after making a commitment to the partner the decisions that are being taken to maintain or regulate a relationship comes under commitment.

Balancing in all the three components is termed as ideal kind of love that is consummate love. Consummate love is the complete form of love, representing the ideal relationship toward which many people strive but which apparently few achieve. Sternberg cautions that maintaining a consummate love may be even harder than achieving it.

6.7.6 Functions of romantic love-

Romantic love is recently being described as a universal phenomenon and it has been seen that it plays an important role in adapting to reproductive success. Romantic relationship involves mutual support and respect, sexual reproduction and caring of the offspring. Therefore, it can be said that romantic love accumulates three functions

1. love as attachment

2. love as caregiving

3. love as sexual attraction.

6.8 Marriage

Involving a commitment to stay in a single relationship, marriage is termed as one of the most important events in the lives of people. Marriage is being regarded as an institution so being such a vast topic it is of a great interest to the researchers. Factors affecting marital happiness are-

1. Similarity – one factor that is must in fostering and making a marriage durable is similarity. The couple must have some sort of similarity in their interests, choices and backgrounds. Having more similarities, more are the chances of being happily married.

2. Personality factors- personality factors also seem to affect marital happiness.

Attachment styles have also been found to affect marital happiness. For ex. Individuals that are having avoidant attachment style are less committed in relationships rather than people who are having secure attachment styles.

In some collectivistic cultures the concept of arranged marriages is very much popular because parents try to find out suitable partners for their children. Looking from the durability point of view arranged marriages are very successful as they fulfil many requirements for an ideal family like having children, extending the family, caring for parents and extending the community.

Several studies have been done on arranged marriages in India, one of these is in which mutual love was rated lower by arranged couples than by 'love' couples – at first (Gupta & Singh, 1982). Over time, this trend reversed. In a second study, female students preferred the idea of an arranged marriage, provided they consented to it; but they endorsed the 'love marriage' provided their parents consented (Umadevi, Venkataramaiah & Srinivasulu, 1992). In a third study, students who preferred love marriages were liberal in terms of their mate's sociocultural background, whereas those who preferred arranged marriages would seek a partner from within their own kin group (Saroja & Surendra, 1991).

Looking at whether or not there is any difference exist in love and arranged marriage, an anthropologist De Munck (1996) investigated love and marriage in a Sri Lankan Muslim community. In that community despite the romantic love contributed to final decision, arranged marriages were generally preferred. This showed that despite selecting partner on the basis of connections, elders were still preferred in finalizing the matchmaking process. However, in the western world there is a little to no consideration of arranged marriage, consequently it is being seen that dating sites and marriage match agencies are growing in the western world therefore, reducing the opportunities for making people to meet in the natural environments rather than an artificially cultured one.

6.8.1 Minding relationships

Minding the relationship refers to a theory of relationship maintenance and satisfaction. The name of the theory, "minding," emphasizes that relationship satisfaction is primarily a matter of how partners accept a relationship; happiness in an exceedingly relationship is formed within the minds of the partners. The elements of minding are knowing and being known, achieved through reciprocal self-disclosure; attribution that's realistic about causality, however that conjointly offers one' partner the advantage of doubt in questionable circumstances; acceptance of what one discovers in the knowing method and respect for one' partner. The minding theory of relationships (Harvey et al, 2002) states how can the relationship might be enhanced. Knowing each other and getting to know each other's feelings, thoughts and behaviors of the other individual is called as minding.

6.9 Summary

Interpersonal relationships are central and very much important to the lives of individuals. Significant developments have been made in the area of interpersonal relationships, which are role of social cognition and emotions, role of attachment and how attachment plays a role in adult relationships and the role of evolutionary psychology and how it is impacting relations in the modern era. The role of culture in perceiving and maintaining the relationships. It has also shown that how interdependence is impacting the close relationships. Close relationships within the family are important because they improve the closeness in the family and affect the nature of relationships in the family. Also, the type of attachment style that has been developed in the relationship affects the relationships in the longer run. A healthy and close relationship is one in which two individuals spend long and happy time together.

6.10 Keywords

Interpersonal Relation, Formal relationship, Close relationships, Interdependent relationships, Family members, Siblings Friendships, Romantic relationships, Mate selection, Passionate love, Companionate love, Romantic love, Marriage, and Minding relationships.

6.11 Review Questions

- What are interpersonal relations. Why interpersonal relationships are import in your life?
- How is develop good interpersonal relationship?
- Explain interpersonal relations characteristics
- What is love? Why is love important in your life?
- Can love important for Indian society? Why
- Can love remove barrier of caste and religion?
- Love can remove dowry hoax in India?
- Is marriage important in your life?

6.12 Self-Assessment

1. Interpersonal relationship is very important in the growth and well-being of an individual.
 - a. True
 - b. False
2. An interpersonal relationship is a destruction between two or more people.
 - a. Ttrue
 - b. False
3. Interpersonal relationships provide the utmost level of satisfaction and joy.
 - a. True
 - b. False

-
4. There are many contexts in which a relation can be made like Interpersonal relationship which includes.
- Social,
 - Cultural,
 - Economic,
 - All of the above
5. Empathy
- The art of understanding other person's emotions and feelings is called as empathy.
 - The feeling where you know that you can depend on other person and can expect support from him/her.
 - How strong the bond is being made between the two people is known as rapport, the greater is the rapport higher is the trust.
 - Giving respect is the basis of any relationship, any person old or young demands respect from other person.
6. The feeling where you know that you can depend on other person and can expect support from him/her is related to.
- Empathy
 - Trust
 - Rapport
 - Respect
7. Each and every relation is different in its own.
- Empathy
 - Trust
 - Rapport
 - Uniqueness
8. Giving respect is the basis of any relationship, any person old or young demands respect from other person.
- Trust
 - Flexibility
 - Rapport
 - Respect
9. Life is not always the same as you want it to be, so being flexible or turning to circumstances is needed by the relationships from time to time is related to.
- Trust
 - Flexibility
 - Rapport
 - Respect
- 10 Companionate love is also known as
- Affectionate love,
 - Friendship-based love,
 - Attachment

- d. All of the above
11. provided a triangular model of love.
- a. Myers
 - b. Berscheid
 - c. Sternberg
 - d. All of the above
12. Which is not term of a triangular model of love.
- a. Intimacy
 - b. Passion
 - c. Commitment
 - d. Respect
13. Romantic love accumulates three functions of love as attachment, love as caregiving, love as sexual attraction.
- a. true
 - b. False
14. Factors affecting marital happiness are-
- a. Similarity
 - b. Personality Factor
 - c. Minding relationships
 - d. All of the above
15. When each and every response given to the partner is positive, intense feelings are shared and unrealistic emotional reaction is given to the other person related to.
- a. Companionate love
 - b. Affectionate love,
 - c. Passionate love,
 - d. Friendship-based love,

Ans. 1. a 2. b 3. a 4. d 5.a 6. b 7. d 8.d 9 .b 10. d 11.c 12. d 13 a 14. d 15. C

6.13 Suggested readings

Arun kumar Singh (2019). Social Psychology, PHI, Delhi

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UNIT 7 PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

Learning outcomes

7.1 Objectives

7.2 Introduction

7.3 Prosocial behaviour

7.4 Altruism

7.4.1 Negative State Relief Model

7.4.2. Empathic Joy

7.4.3 Competitive Altruism

7.4.4 Kin Selection Theory

7.5 Internal and external factors determine helping behaviour

7.5.1. Helping those who mimic us

7.5.2 Helping those who are not responsible for their problem

7.5.3 Exposure to prosocial model increases prosocial behaviour

7.5.4 Emotions and prosocial behaviour

7.5.5 Prosocial behaviour and Positive emotions

7.5.6 Negative Emotions and Prosocial behaviour

7.6 Theoretical perspectives

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7.1 Objectives

-) Understanding about prosocial behavior and Bystander Intervention
-) Learn about altruism
-) Learn the various motives underlying prosocial behavior
-) Identify the determinants of prosocial behavior and
-) Understand how prosocial behavior can be enhanced

7.2 Introduction

People engage in different forms of helping behavior. We donate to charity, help family and friends in need and also participate in volunteer work. The importance of such socially beneficial acts is also emphasized in our religious and social systems and our education. Many people like Mother Teresa, Mahatma Gandhi and Nelson Mandela have spent their lives working for the good of others. Social behavior includes behaviors that are intended to benefit others - behaviors such as helping, comforting, sharing, cooperating, reassuring, protecting, and showing interest (Schroeder, Penner, Dovidio & Piliavin, 1995). There are several key characteristics of this definition: It includes the intention to help others, so unintentional acts do not count. However, actions intended to help, but which may not actually help, are included. Socially, which constitutes the benefit of others.

7.3 Prosocial behaviour

Prosocial behavior includes behaviors which intend to benefit others - behaviours such as helping behaviour, comforting behaviour, sharing attitude, cooperation, reassurance, defending, and showing concerns (Schroeder, Penner, Dovidio & Piliavin, 1995). There are several chief characteristics of this definition: It is the willingness to help others, therefore if we are not willing to

help such acts won't be taken into consideration. But the acts which an individual intends to help, but may actually fail to help, are included. What contributes to benefiting another person is socially defined.

Hope we can relate to the day of 26h July when Mumbai city faced deluge. So many residential areas and roads were under water due to heavy rains. At this time, so many unnamed people volunteered to help those who were stuck up in the heavy rains. There was a policeman and some others who had lost their lives while helping save other people's lives.. Such actions are described as prosocial behaviour. It refers to actions by individual that help others with no immediate benefit to helper; such actions are very common in our social life. People who engage in such behaviours do not gain anything in return. In this chapter we will try to understand the reasons as to why people help each other. What are the motives behind such behaviours and in which situations they are more likely to help? When do they help? When are conditions under which such helping behaviour occurs? Why some people are more helpful in comparison to others? In this unit we will understand: why people help? The following are the different views that explain helping behaviour.

7.4 Altruism

It refers to putting oneself in other's shoes. Understanding the situation from other's perspective. According to this perspective we help others because we experience empathy towards them; we want their plight to end. Batson, Duncan Ackerman Buckley and Birch (1981) gave the Empathy Altruism Hypotheses to explain prosocial behaviour. They suggested that at least some prosocial acts are motivated only by the desire to help someone in need. If such motivation is strong, the helper is willing to engage even in dangerous and life threaten-ing activity (Batson & Batson et al 1995).

Batson and his colleagues conducted an experiment to test this view of helping behaviour. The participants were divided into two groups. One group of participants was told that victim is similar to themselves. The other groups were hold that a victim is not similar to themselves. The participants were presented with an opportunity to help victims. They were given a role of observer who watched fellow student on T.V. monitor as she performed a task while receiving electric shock (victim was actually a research assistant recorded on videotape) As a task was underway research assistant confided that she was in pain and in childhood had traumatic experience with electricity. But she said if it was required, she would continue the experiment. Now experimenter asked participants if they were willing to exchange the victims place in the experiment. The result showed that when participants were dissimilar (low empathy) they preferred to end the experience rather than engaging in painful prosocial act.

Similar participant who had high empathy, were more likely take to victims place and receive shocks. It is difficult to experience empathy when there are many victims who are in the need of help. This is the reason why many charitable institutions mention the existence of large number of people in the need of help; they feature the photo of single child who is in the need. This allows individual for selective altruism, where helping one child may involve ignoring several others (Batson Ahmed et al 1999).

7.4.1 Negative State Relief Model (Cialdini, Baumann & Kenrick 1981)

According to this model we help either because our actions allow us to reduce our own negative feelings. These negative feelings are not necessarily aroused by emergency situation. We engage in prosocial act as a way to improve our own negative mood. In such cases unhappiness leads to prosocial behaviour. In such situation's empathy may be there or not.

7.4.2. Empathic Joy

Helping behaviour has been explained by Empathic Joy Hypothesis (Smith, Kealing & Stotland 1989). This theory suggests that helper responds and helps victims not because of empathy but because he wants to accomplish something and doing so is rewarding to the person. The argument goes like this if we help people only for empathy, then they would not be concerned about response. To test this hypothesis Smith Keating and Stotland conducted an experiment. In this experiment female student said that she might stop her studies because she felt isolated and stressed. She was described as similar to one group and dissimilar to another group. After viewing the videotape, the participants were asked to give beneficial advice. Some were told that they would be given a feedback of effectiveness of their advice others were told that they would not come to know what student decided to do. Results showed that participants were cooperative only if there was high empathy and feedback regarding the advice.

7.4.3 Competitive Altruism

According to this view people help others because in doing so their status and reputation is enhanced. Thus, the benefits got are larger than the cost of the prosocial behaviour.

Those people who help others get higher status because society will always favour to have people who engross in prosocial behaviour. If helping person has higher status then such a person may be well rewarded for engrossing in prosocial action. They are not only treated as a star but they may have entire buildings named after them. The best example is dead diction centre at Poone, Yerwada, named after P.L. Deshpande, the famous Marathi author. Hardy and Van Vugt performed an interesting study (2006). In this study partakers engaged in a public good dilemma. In this game, players could earn money for themselves or for the entire group. At the beginning of the game, partakers were given 100 Pence and they were told that they could donate any amount to a private fund, which they could keep as individuals, and any amount they wished to group fund. This could be divided equally among three group members. In one situation the participants were informed how other members donated to public and private fund. In another situation, the partakers were given information on other's contribution to the public and private fund and were told that information about their donations would be also revealed to other partakers. This was a reputation condition where by donating to group would bring enhanced reputation and status to donors. In other situations, participants did not receive any information regarding the player's choices. Those acting in prosocial behaviour would not receive any information regarding other player's choices and thus it would not necessarily increase the donor's reputation. When later were asked to estimate each member's status, the results offered clear support for Altruism Hypothesis. In reputation condition when prosocial actions were acknowledged to others the players donated more generously. The more one donated, higher was the status. Hardy and Van Vugt (2006) found that the greater, the cost involved in behaving in prosocial manner, greater the gains in status to people who behave in this way. Additional studies also suggest that people engage in prosocial behaviour as a way of boosting their social status. In general, helping others is an indicator to others that doing so would augment their position. The advantages that are got are substantially more than the costs incurred.

7.4.4 Kin Selection Theory

Helping ourselves by helping people who share our genes. The Kin Selection Theory (as given by Cialdini Brown Lewis luck &Neuberg (Pinker 1997). From the evolutionary perspective the chief objective of all the organism is passing our genes to next generation. So, we are more likely to help others to whom we are closely related rather than those to whom we are not related. Crandall and Kitayama conducted series of studies in 1994. These studies proved that participants in the study chose to help their close relatives in a necessity. Participants also preferred to help younger relatives rather than the older relatives; Kin selection theory suggests that this is done because they had greater possibility of passing on their genes to the next generation. But it does not happen every time, many a times we help people who may not be related to us. This is called as reciprocal altruism theory which suggests that we help people, who are unrelated to us because helping is usually reciprocal. Helping others will in the end benefit us as it increases our chances of survival.

7.5 Internal and external factors determine helping behaviour

This unit explains the internal and external factors that influence helping behaviour - The situational factors that inflate or decrease helping. Research by social psychologists has disclosed that following are the factors that might determine helping behaviour.

- a) People help whom they know, but the situation is complex, when strangers are in the need of help.
- b) Research done by Hayden, Jackson and Guydish (1984), has revealed that we are more likely to help people whom we are fond of, they can be our family members or friends.
- c) Any features that affect attraction, rather that leads to increase in attraction leads to prosocial behaviour. Physically attractive people are more likely to get help than those who are unattractive (Benson, Karabrinks and Leener 1976).
- d) There is chance that men will help women rather than men not due to differences in gender but because women ask men more for help.
- e) If victims happen to share samek kind of values, there are chances that he will be helped. Commonly, we help people who brings out positive feelings in us.

7.5.1. Helping those who mimic us

Mimicry is the automatic tendency to imitate behaviour of those with whom we interact. Human beings are more likely to mimic accent, tone of voice, and rate of speech of people around them. The postures, mannerisms and moods of people around are also mimicked. This is an innate

tendency; it has a positive impact on the persons being mimicked. Mimicry increases empathy and social attraction and one of the important effects of mimicry is that it increases prosocial behaviour. (Van Bawen et al 2003).

The following experiment is an example of deliberate mimicry. The research participants talked for six minutes either with an experimenter, who copied their posture, body orientation or position of arms and legs or with the experimenter who was not copying. Later experimenter by mistake dropped several pens on the floor. All the research participants who had been mimicked helped the experimenter by picking up pens as compared with those who were not mimicked. In another experiment additional experimental conditions were investigated and, in each condition, it was observed that those who were mimicked were likely to be helped that those who were not mimicked. This research confirmed that mimicry increases the chances of showing prosocial behaviour.

Some investigators feel that mimicry has such an effect on prosocial behaviour that it plays an important role in survival and reproductive success because it enhances cohesion and safety among animals in a group (Dijksterhuis, Bargh and Miedema, 2000). When one person mimics another person there is a message that we are similar.

7.5.2 Helping those who are not responsible for their problem

We generally help people or victims, those who are not responsible for their trouble or problem. Example, when building collapses, bystanders do make an effort to help the victims. But when a person is seen lying on the road with a bottle, he has less chances of being helped by people. In general, we are less likely to help victim, if we believe that he is to be blamed for his/her actions.

7.5.3 Exposure to prosocial model increases prosocial behaviour

when you go out; you see students or representatives of charity collecting money for a cause. You resolve to give only when you see someone else also doing so. So many shops have donation box with money in it. This is done to motivate you to donate as well. Seeing money makes you believe that others have also donated for a cause, maybe you also can do so. In emergency situations, if there are helpful bystanders, that provides a strong social model for helping. The following experiment provides the best example of such model. In this field experiment in which young women (a research assistant with a punctured tyre parked her car just off the road. Motorists were more likely to help this woman if they saw a view in which another woman with a punctured tyre was being helped. The prosocial model showed in media also creates a social standard for helping behaviour. Example, many a times the game winners of the reality show often donate a amount of price for a certain cause of charity. Sprafkin, Liebert and Poulous (1975) - Carried out an experiment to study the influence of T.V. in creating prosocial responsiveness. Children were divided in three groups. One group of children was shown Lassie, in when there was a rescue scene.

The second group of children watched another episode of same serial, but did not attend to prosocial behaviour. A third group watched a show with a number contents, but did not have any prosocial model. After this child played the games and prizes were given to winners. Each group was made to face a group of hungry and shining pepper. At a point there was a chance that child had a chance that if could wail and help pip and loose the prize.

The results showed that the group that watched the rescue episode stopped and spent more time in consoling animals as compared with other two groups. All the television shows do not give way or prosocial behaviour. Eg. Children who watch violent video games show a decrease in the prosocial behaviour. (Anderson and Bushman 2001).

7.5.4 Emotions and prosocial behaviour

Our emotional frame of mind is influenced by both external and internal factors. On some days we may go through sudden mood changes. These feelings show their effect on the prosocial behaviour. There is a general belief pointing that there is a chance of helping if we are in a good mood as compared with when we are in a bad mood. Research done in this field suggests that there is no such connection in the prosocial behaviour and our moods.

7.5.5 Prosocial behaviour and Positive emotions

Every child quickly learn that it is better to request something, when parents are in a good mood. This extended to the prosocial acts also. Research suggest that people are more willing to help when they are in a good mood, may be when they are for some nice outings, or when they have watched some comedy film. (Cunningham 1997). This may not be always the stand. A bystander, who is in the positive mood, may not be ready to help, as that may hamper with their good mood. Helping may require them to do actions that are not easy and not pleasant.

7.5.6 Negative Emotions and Prosocial behaviour

It is generally believed that when a person is in the bad mood he is less likely to help. But if such helping act generates positive feelings, people in the bad mood are more likely to help as compared with people in neutral or positive mood. (Ciadini Kenrick and Bauman 1982). This is stated by the negative state relief model of prosocial behaviour.

7.6 Theoretical perspectives

Societies strive for more social cohesion and better unification of members in the community, to contribute to wellbeing; so there is a need to study ways of achieving better interpersonal relationships. Research indicates that some situational factors increase prosocial behaviour in society. "Prosocial behaviour is voluntary behaviour intended to benefit another. Thus, it includes behaviours such as helping, sharing, or providing comfort to another" (Roy F. Baumeister & Kathleen D. Vohs, 2007). According to Dovidio et al (2006) prosocial behaviour is influenced by biological, psychological, and environmental and social factors.

7.6.1 Biological

Trivers (1971) introduced "reciprocal altruism", where people are more likely to help others because of the probabilities of receiving their help, thus increasing their survival opportunities. For instance: identical twins (sharing 100% genes) are more likely to help each other than fraternal twins (share 50% of genes) (Roy F. Baumeister & Kathleen D. Vohs, 2007). According to the need-to-belong theory, reciprocal altruism could be a societal norm in the community, therefore people would engage in this behaviour to feel accepted. SCT would suggest that reciprocal altruism could be internalized in new groups in order to foster prosocial behaviour. The sociometer theory would claim that reciprocal altruism contributes to the acceptance of the group, therefore member would help more others.

7.6.2 Social learning and cultural influences

From childhood people are taught social norms, such as the *norm of reciprocity* and the *norm of social responsibility* (De Cremer & van Lange, 2001). Several parenting skills of providing support, prosocial values, and behaviours of helping others tend to foster prosocial behaviours in children (Krevans & Gibbs, 1996). Limitation: cross-cultural variations in helping. Some evidence are: Robert Hampson (1984) claims that status in the peer group is associated with the level of group acceptance and type of prosocial behaviour. In addition, Francesca Gino and Sreedhari Desai (2012) argue that childhood memories produce moral purity, which elicits to greater prosocial behaviour. Furthermore, Authoritative parents' models are linked with teaching prosocial behaviour to their children (Roy F. Baumeister & Kathleen D. Vohs, 2007).

According to the need-to-belong theory, parents would teach social norms and skills of prosocial behaviour in order to feel part of the community. Secondly. SCT suggests that these norms can be internalized to groups and subgroups in order to increase social cohesion, and prosocial behaviour. Finally, sociometer theory would claim that parents teach these social values in order to increase the relational value of their children compared with others who do not help.

7.6.3 Empathy and Altruism

Both empathy and altruism could stimulate prosocial behaviours (Batson, 2006). Some evidence is: firstly, some argue that prosocial behaviour is always based on selfish reasons. For example, people help to enhance their mood or to avoid negative feelings. (Eisenberg, 2007). Secondly, Batson et al.

(2007) concluded that empathy produces altruistic motivation to help others and is independent of egoistic motivation. Thirdly, Findlay et al. (2006) claim that more empathic children are link to greater prosocial behaviour. Fourthly, Simpson & Willer (2008) argues that prosocial behaviour happens even when there are not reputational incentives. Finally, Nancy Eisenberg et al. (1989) argue that sympathy partially facilitates prosocial dispositions in early stages and it is consistent overtime.

According to the need-to-belong theory empathy and altruism could be practiced in order to feel part of society. SCT would suggest that altruism and empathy could be internalized in the values of groups, and increase prosocial behaviour. Finally, the sociometer theory claims that empathy and altruism would increase member's relational value to others, and to be more accepted in society; so people would practice them more if they were more suggested to society.

7.7 Bystander Intervention

In the 1960s, the question of why people indulge in prosocial behavior was in rise again due to many shocking cases in which bystanders failed to help persons in need. This raised concern about the collapse of social structure, especially in urban side. The case of Kitty Genovese, whose brutal stabbing which lead to death was seen right in front in eyes by 38 of her neighbors in the Kew Gardens area of Queens, New York was a warning for the society at large. Despite her screams for help, no one interfered or informed the police. This case brought up many questions for social psychologists: Why do and why don't people act pro-socially. The bystander effect is a theoretical model which explains why people hesitant to interfere and give help in emergencies. According to this model, when others are present, people are less likely to intervene.

Latane & Darley (1968) demonstrated that when people witnessed an emergency, they were less likely to report the emergency when other people were present. Diffusion of responsibility explains why people are reluctant to intervene when others are present. It states that people are less likely to feel responsible for their actions when surrounded by others. Responsibility becomes 'diffused' throughout the group (Latane & Darley, 1968).

Research by Darley and Latane (1968) demonstrated diffusion of responsibility among 72 bystanders in an emergency with a person experiencing a severe epileptic seizure. Results showed that those who were alone while witnessing the epileptic seizure, were more likely to report the incident than those, with whom other people were present during the incident.

Pluralistic ignorance (Miller & McFarland, 1987) is a phenomenon in which people decide that since no one seems upset, the event must not be an emergency (Latane & Darley, 1968).

Therefore, in an emergency situation, when people witness and believe that there are other individuals present, there is less chance that they are going to help the victimized or the victim as they believe that some other person would take the control or that other bystanders are more fit to offer help, and therefore their intervention would not be needed. People may also be afraid of legal results of offering help.

According to Darley and Latané (1968), bystanders are affected by 5 emergency features:

-) Emergencies that involve threat of harm or actual harm
-) Emergencies are infrequent and not usual.
-) The difference from situation to situation describes the nature of action needed.
-) Emergencies are not predictable.
-) Emergencies require instant action.

Representing the five-step model of bystander intervention:

Due to these five features, bystanders pass through the following five steps in deciding whether or not to provide help in an emergency:

7.7.1 Notice that something is going on

For anyone to provide help, the first step is observing the situation where help is needed. But, many times people may fail to see an emergency situation. This could be because one is busy in some works or thought. The existence of other people also has an effect. To test this occurrence, Latane and Darley (1968) created an emergency in a dramatic style using students of Columbia University. The students were set in a room either alone or with two to three strangers in order to fill up a questionnaire. To create an emergency situation, smoke was pumped in the room when they were busy completing the questionnaire. It was seen that, the smoke was instantly noticed i.e. within 5 seconds when the students were placed alone to complete the questionnaire. On the other

hand, the other set of students working in groups took more time i.e. up to 20 seconds to see the smoke.

7.7.2 Interpret the situation as an emergency

Once a situation comes to notice, it is important that the bystander should perceive the situation as an emergency in order to interfere. Bystanders watch the reactions of other people around in case of an emergency to confirm whether others as well think the necessity of interfering in the situation. Bystanders would not take the situation as an emergency and not interfere if they see that other people around are not reacting to the situation. The previous statement presents an example of pluralistic ignorance. While referring to the smoke experiment, the students instead of seeing and noticing the smoke, did not report about it.

7.7.3 Degree of Responsibility

After the first two steps bystanders examine whether it is their responsibility to provide help or not. Many times, we think that people in authority like teacher in the classroom or the police should take up the task of providing help since it is their responsibility and so we don't help.

7.7.4 Deciding whether one has the skills to provide help

One is more ready to help if one feels that one has the ability or the skills to help in that situation. For example, if a person is drowning and one if one does not know how to swim then he or she obviously won't be able to help the drowning person.

7.7.5 Making the final decision whether to help or not

After passing through the first four steps, the action of choice should be exercised by the bystander. At times it happens that after passing through these steps some people might decide not to offer help. A bystander effect meta-analysis in 2011 showed that the bystander effect was lesser in situations that harmful or dangerous, perpetrators were present, and the costs of intervention were physical.

7.8 Summary

Social behavior includes behavior intended to benefit others, such as helping, comforting, sharing, and cooperating. The spectator effect is a theoretical model that explains why people are reluctant to intervene and assist in emergencies. Dispersion of responsibilities explains why people are reluctant to intervene in the presence of others. It turns out that people feel less responsible for their actions when surrounded by others, as responsibility becomes "pervasive" within the group. To decide whether to help people, follow the five steps suggested by Latane and Darley: announce that something is happening, interpret the situation as an emergency, assess the level of responsibility, decide if you have the skills to offer help or not, then make the decision. The four main motives for pro-social behavior are: egoism, altruism, collectivism, and principledism. Social behavior is influenced by various situational and conditional factors. Volunteering is defined as a long-term, planned, optional form of support. Pro-social behavior can be improved by increasing the reward of helping, reducing the cost of helping, presenting yourself with pro-social role models, and so on.

7.9 Keywords Prosocial behaviour, Altruism, Negative State Relief Model, Empathic Joy, Kin Selection Theory, Internal and external factor, helping behaviour, Theoretical perspectives, Biological, Social learning and cultural influences, Empathy, Bystander Intervention and Degree of Responsibility

7.10 Review Questions

What is prosocial behaviour? Give example

What is altruism? Give example

How do you encourage prosocial behaviour in your society?

What is role of social learning in prosocial behaviour?

What is bystander intervention

7.11 Self-Assessment Questions

1. When a person has greater dispositional empathy they are _____ to help.
 - a. Equally likely
 - b. Less likely
 - c. More likely
 - d. None of these
2. Diffusion of responsibility
 - a. Spread of responsibility for helping
 - b. Absorbing the responsibility to help
 - c. Explains helping rather than not helping
 - d. Operates when there is a single witness
3. The basic idea of the negative state relief model is
 - a. Relieving a negative mood in the victim
 - b. Emergency situation generates negative mood
 - c. People with negative mood help in order to relieve their unpleasant state
 - d. Victims in negative mood are helped less
4. Meghan lives in a single room in a college dormitory. Late one night, she hears a scream coming from just outside her dorm. She is pretty sure that the person needs help because the person yelled, "Help me! I think I broke my leg!" Meghan goes back to sleep, only to find out the next day that the person was on the ground for 45 minutes before someone helped. Which of the following best explains why Meghan didn't help?
 - a. Informational influence
 - b. A diffusion of responsibility
 - c. She didn't interpret it as an emergency
 - d. Pluralistic ignorance
5. A greater percentage of people are assumed to help when they are _____ than when they were _____.
 - a. With others, alone
 - b. Alone, with others
 - c. Laughing, crying
 - d. Everyone helped regardless of who was present
6. Who is most likely to help other people?
 - a. A person with a handicap
 - b. A person with an altruistic personality
 - c. A stranger to the victim
 - d. A person in a crowd of strangers
7. People often fail to help in an emergency because they
 - a. Do not recognize that the situation is an emergency
 - b. Are not related to the victim

- c. Believe that people should help themselves
 - d. Can imagine themselves in the same situation
8. It is the proposal that 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
- a. Empathy Altruism Hypothesis
 - b. Negative State Relief Model
 - c. Empathic Joy Hypothesis
 - d. Genetic Determinism Model
9. It is the proposal that behavior is driven by genetic attributes that evolved because they enhanced the probability of transmitting one's genes to subsequent generations
- a. Empathy Altruism Hypothesis
 - b. Negative State Relief Model
 - c. Empathic Joy Hypothesis
 - d. Genetic Determinism Model
10. Social exchange involves
- a. an interaction involving rewards and costs
 - b. giving each other social reinforcement such as praise
 - c. what two people can provide for each other
 - d. cooperation between warring parties
11. Social exchange theory originated from:
- a. the need to resolve conflict situations
 - b. the norm of equity
 - c. the philosophy of utilitarianism
 - d. distributive justice
12. In social psychological terms, most competitive games are:
- a. Enjoyable
 - b. zero-sum games
 - c. On-zero-sum games
 - d. Economic
13. Find the false statement
- a. Most research shows that empathy is a necessary condition for altruism to occur.
 - b. Prosocial behaviour tends to increase as the young child becomes older.
 - c. After having done something which caused harm to someone, we are more likely to give help, even to someone else.
 - d. None of them
14. Find the true statement
- a. People who are active members of churches tend to be more altruistic than those who are not religious.

b. Research on the bystander effect shows that people tend to be apathetic when witnessing an emergency.

c. One explanation for the bystander effect is that people fear doing the wrong thing and looking foolish.

d. None of them

15. Behaviour that is valued by others in a particular culture is known as _____

a. helping behaviour

b. prosocial behaviour

c. altruism

d. none of them

1. c 2. a 3.c 4.b 5. b 6.b 7.a 8. c 9 d 10 a 11 c 12 b 13 a 14 c 15 b

7.12 Suggested readings

Nyla R Baranscombe, Robert A Baron &PreetiKapur. (2017). Social Psychology, 14th edition. By Pearson Education India



<https://courses.lumenlearning.com/wsu-sandbox/chapter/prosocial-behavior/>

Unit 8 Stereotyping, Prejudice & Discrimination

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Objectives

This unit will enable you to:

Obtain detailed understanding of concepts of stereotype, prejudice and discrimination;

Differentiate between these three inter-related yet distinct concepts;

Identify the causes of such social behaviors;

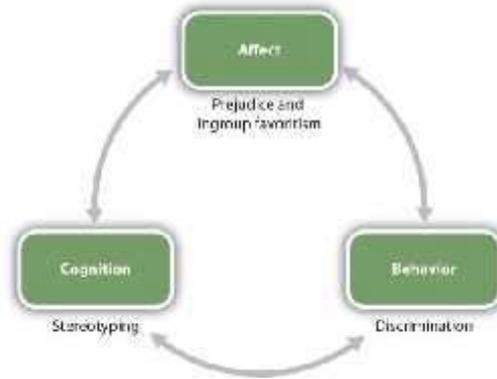
Learn strategies & ways to reduce these social behaviors.

Introduction

There exist various types of social behavior that assist humanity to maintain harmony and cordial relationships with one another. Behaviours such as pro-social behavior, altruism, cooperation have been discussed in previous chapters. However, unfortunately, there also exist certain social behaviors that become cause of one individual hating on and harming other individuals. This chapter will discuss such behaviors known as stereotypes, prejudices and discrimination. These concepts and the actions resulting from them have been and are biggest problems for peaceful living of humankind. Stereotypes, prejudices and discrimination lead towards dehumanizing of whole groups and in turn the individuals associated with those groups. This results in unimaginable pain and suffering in the world.

In Social Psychology, ABC i.e. affect, behaviour and cognition model is applied to the study of these concepts. **8.1 Stereotypes** is the cognitive component that influences the perceptions of members belonging to different groups. It refers to the positive or negative beliefs an individual has about the various features of a social group. For instance, one may believe that "Japanese people are

polite” or “women are incompetent” or “Africa-American people are aggressive and violent” These beliefs about people of other groups often serve as guiding force behind our actions and behaviours towards them. **Prejudice**, on the other hand is the affective component of this type of social behaviour. It can be defined as a negative attitude toward an out group or towards individuals belonging to that group without any just explanation for such attitude. It can be expressed in feelings of disliking, anger, fear, disgust, discomfort, and even hatred towards others. Stereotypes and prejudices lead towards the creation of discrimination. **Discrimination** is the behavioural aspect of this model. It refers tonegative behaviours towards any particular group of which an individual is not a member and also towards other individuals based in their group membership.



8.1.1. Different Approaches to Stereotypes

Social science has produced three broad approaches to stereotypes.

Economic Approach

According to this approach, stereotypes are reflected through a balanced building up of opinions regarding members of a particular group affected by collective opinion about that group. Such opinions may actually adversely impact the features of having a balanced opinion about different groups. For example, if the employers in general have aggressive opinions about the skills of women employees, there would be underinvestment in women education, thus satisfying the previously held hostile beliefs. This theory states that the basis of stereotypes is balanced expectations; and therefore it does not focus on the basic issue that stereotypes generally are not accurate descriptions of members of other groups.

Sociological Approach

This approach only deals with stereotypes relating to social groups. According to this approach, stereotypes are basically wrong and offensive oversimplifications of group traits which actually reflect an individual's own core prejudices or other such inner motivations (Schneider 2004). Stereotypes keep on getting more and more life as the group who have the power, in need to keep that power intact continue to propagate negative views of groups who have been mistreated in the past and on whose mistreatment the preservation of power rests, as ethnic, racial minorities and women being example of such groups. For instance, the stereotypes against African American population are a result of long history of slavery and discrimination. Stereotypes, in most instances, result in discrimination and mistreatment, and leave out particular groups from development, in other instances they can be reasonable also (“people from Netherland are tall,” “Swedish people have blond hair”). Besides, various stereotypes are pleasing for the social group towards which it is directed, instead of being derogatory (“Indians are good mathematicians”). Stereotypes do undergo changes with change in the society; therefore, they are responsive to present and not completely entrenched in history (Madon et. al., 2001).

Social Cognition Approach

Another important approach to stereotypes called social cognition approach has its root in the field of social psychology (Schneider, 2004). It became popular around 1980s and states that views stereotypes are distinctive cases of cognitive schematics (Schneider, Hastorf, and Ellsworth 1979). These schemas can be referred to as instinctive generalizations used by people in their day to day life in order to save their cognitive resources.



“Stereotypes are mental representations of real differences between groups allowing easier and more efficient processing of information, they are discriminating, though, which entails that they are restrictive to only those features of groups that are the most distinguishing, that provide the greatest differentiation between groups, and that show the least within-group variation.” - Hilton and Hippel (1998)

A famous explanation regarding stereotypes known as “kernel-of-truth hypothesis” put forward by Judd and Park (1993) states that some type of practical reality do form the basis of stereotypes; therefore, they do serve some purpose for the individual, nevertheless they involve exaggerations. Though this “kernel-of-truth” hypothesis (Prothro & Melikian, 1955) has been authenticated in some researches, it can be deceptive. For instance, in the United States, a generally held stereotype is that African Americans are poor. Even though it is accurate that African Americans over-represent all the citizens living below poverty line in the United States, massive populace of African Americans do lie above the poverty line.

8.1.2. Social Categorization

Social categorization refers to thinking about fellow human beings on the basis of their group memberships – the usual mental process through which we put people into different socially defined groups. The examples of social categorization is thinking about others in terms of men (versus women), a young individual (versus an old person), an Asian person (versus a White person), and more such categories. As humans have tendency to categorize objects in types, this tendency also spills over to categorizing people as per the social groups they belong to. After this sort of categorization, the behavior towards an individual is no longer based on his/her individuality but on the membership of social groups.

Suppose, two colleagues Rakesh and Sania are engaged in an informal discussion at a café. In the given scenario, they are not representatives of any particular group, but functioning as individuals. Rakesh is sharing his opinions regarding some issues and Sania is sharing hers. However, suppose that during the conversation Sania starts talking about a project she is working on for her women’s empowerment campaign. Rakesh, however is opposed to the idea that ads should specifically focus on portraying women empowerment and shares it with Sania. He says that as the product is not traditionally ‘feminine’, the ad must represent both man and woman. Furthermore, he also says that women are being focused on heavily in ad campaigns while men are being ignored. Sania, however, argues that because women have been subjugated and faced sexism and continue to do so; their empowerment should be always being in center of all ad campaigns. It will help in shifting focus towards the issues women face. It can be noticed that conversation that started at an individual level, with two colleagues conversing, has shifted to group level, where Rakesh has started to consider himself as representative of men and Sania as representative of women.

In short, they are now not making arguments for themselves but for their in-groups (men for Rakesh and women for Sania). Thus, it is evident that social categorizations have the potential to breed misperception, and possibly even enmity. And Rakesh and Sara may undergo change in their opinions about each other, not focusing on the fact that they like and respect each other as individuals, because they are now replying to each other as members of their in groups who have contrasting views. Now, suppose that when this conversation was going on, some employees from their competitors’ company also showed up in the same café. The arrival of these outsiders can alter the course of social categorization completely, making both Rakesh and Sarah to think of them as being employee of their company. This social category might make them focus on the positive aspects of their company (the excellent basketball team, lovely campus, and intelligent students) in comparison with the characteristics of other company. Here, instead of recognizing themselves as members of two different groups (men versus women), they might unexpectedly recognize themselves as being members of same social group (employees of their organization). This instance might help you to understand the elasticity of social categorization.

Benefits of Social Categorization

The disposition to engage in social categorization, at times, proves to be quite resourceful. Sometimes, we categorize people as it gives us information regarding the features of individuals who are part of different social groupings (Lee, Jussim, & McCauley, 1995). Stereotype accuracy: Toward appreciating group differences. If you visit a city for the first time and have lost your way and need to look for directions, you will approach police officers or cab drivers, in such a situation. In such instances, social categorization comes in handy as police officer and cab driver has higher

chances of being familiar with layout of the city. However, the usefulness of the social categorization does depend on the extent of accuracy of the stereotypes. In case, the approached cab driver is not familiar with the layout of the city, then the use of social categorization is inadequate. It is being claimed that most stereotypes do have an iota of truth in them, and this does appear to be true. The way members of a group recognize the stereotypes associated with their group has clear correlation with the way individuals from other groups recognize those stereotypes (Swim, 1994). This correlation can be a result of the roles that people have to identify with while living in their social set-ups. For example, the stereotype of women being “nurturing” and men being “dominating” may exist and continue to get fire because of the differences in social and cultural roles assigned to men and women (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). In majority of cultures, men have higher chances of engaging in ‘elite’ occupations, like businesses and doctors, while women have higher chances of staying at home and engage in child rearing. This way, the stereotypes get very closely associated to the real life behaviours of many members of a social category. Conversely, at times people do categorize others not because they gain some information about other people by doing so, but because they lack time or motivation to go through any detailed processing of information. Making use of stereotypes to make perceptions about other individuals just make life easier (Macrae, Bodenhausen, Milne, & Jetten, 1994). This approach states that perceiving on the basis of memberships of different social categories is a practical technique of dealing and handling with the world – world is a complex place, and people try to minimize its’ complexity by being dependent on their stereotypes.

Demerits of Social Categorization

Even though, thinking and perceiving others through the lens of their belongingness to certain social categories/ groups does come with its own advantages for the individual who engage in such categorization, but creating categories for people, instead of recognizing the uniqueness of their characteristics, has huge number of negative, and usually very unjust, outcomes for the ones who get categorized.



Henry Tajfel was among the founding members of European Association of Experimental Social Psychology.

A major issue is that social categorization twists our sensitivities in such a way that we start to overstress the variances between people from different social groups while at the same time perceiving members of groups (and particularly outgroups) as more similar to each other than they actually are. This overgeneralization makes it more likely that we will think about and treat all members of a group the same way. A classic experiment was conducted by Tajfel and Wilkes (1983) which displayed the whole scenario of possible consequences of categorization. In the experiment, participants were to judge the six lines on the basis of their length. One experimental condition, provided participants with six lines, while participants saw methodically categorized lines into two groups, in the other condition. One group consisted of three shorter lines and another three longer lines. Participants perceived the lines differently when they were categorized. The difference and similarities in both the groups were accentuated. Precisely, it was found that though lines C and D (actual of same length) were perceived as identical in measurement when the lines were not categorized, line D was perceived as being significantly longer than line C when the lines were categorized (condition II). Under condition II, the categorization of lines into two groups i.e. the “short lines group” and the “long lines group” – lead to a perceptual bias where in both groups of lines were perceived as having more variation than they actually had.

8.2. Prejudice

Prejudice, simply put, refers to an individual’s predisposition to over-categorize. It is a predetermined attitude towards someone’s group membership. It has been used mostly to refer to one’s race, sex, ethnicity, religion, and sexual orientation.



Allport put forth the most comprehensive definition, defining prejudice as “aversive or hostile attitude toward a person who belongs to a group, simply because he belongs to that group, and is therefore presumed to have the objectionable qualities ascribed to that group.”

Prejudice can be categorized into three diverse categories namely cognitive prejudice, affective prejudice, and conative prejudice. Cognitive prejudice is close to the concept of stereotype and refers to the notions that people believe to be the truth. These notions consist of outlooks,

impressions, disapprovals, and conventions. Affective prejudice includes the likes and dislikes of people and can be viewed as an emotive feature of prejudice. The actual behavior that people engage in, on the basis of their notions comes under the purview of Conative prejudice. All these types of prejudice are very closely related to one another and it might be difficult to explain one without mentioning the other. Nevertheless, it is possible that only one type exist in a person rather all being present simultaneously.

8.2.1. Origins of Prejudice

There exists much distinct description about how prejudices come into being. One idea is that personality plays a crucial role in this regard. According to this thought, prejudice originates because they serve certain purpose and fulfill needs related to one's personality. This viewpoint has found certain characteristics of personality that lead towards development and maintenance of prejudicial thinking patterns. Narrow-mindedness, inflexibility, and absolutism are some of the identified factors. Accordingly, individuals who have developed prejudice in this manner are not just prejudice toward one group, but have a tendency to be prejudice towards anyone who does not belong to their group.

Another line of thought about origin of prejudices comes from the area of social learning which maintains that prejudices are learned behavior which gets reinforced by social learning. This view states that children learn to have negative attitude towards certain individuals and groups through interactions with their teachers, parents, peers and others around, these interactions when rewarded become part of a child's behavior. The theory also states that media in its different forms also play a significant role in propagating prejudices. At times, it is not the surrounding environment and people in it but the media that becomes the sole information source on prejudices for children. Hence, prejudice can be acquired through conditioning and can develop during the course of lifetime.

The third viewpoint about origin of prejudices is known as the social identity theory. One of the most sought after explanations to prejudices states that we tend to demarcate the social world in two broad categories- one category with which we identify i.e. In-group and another category that does not belong to us i.e. Out-group. The thoughts and feelings that we have for the members of in-group and out-group are loggers. People belonging to in-group are seen in a positive way while those belonging to out-group are seen in a negative manner.

8.2.2. **In-group Favoritism and Prejudice**

As mentioned above, people perceive in-group members in a positive way and in-group favoritism refers to this tendency of positive responding towards members of our in-groups as compared to people belonging to out-groups. It means a kind of favored behavior towards the people belonging to our identified in-groups. Research shows that the bias of in-group favoritism remains intact even when people are randomly re-assigned to different groups.

Individual effects

One of the major effects of In-group favouritism is meddling with and harming the relationship with people who are not members of the same group. The tendency of humans to prefer members of in-group often lead to unfair treatment of others and also lead to differential perceptions of same behaviour depending upon group membership. For instance, an argument with in-group member has less chances of turning violent as compared to the ones with out-group members. In-group favouritism also leads to legitimization of immoral and dishonest behaviours, by perceiving them as being beneficial for the group.



Identify and note various prejudices specific to your own culture.

Systematic effects

In-group favouritism is a huge element of prejudice as well as of discrimination. It makes people give additional rights and privileges to people who are members of in-group and refusing to give the same treatment to other individuals. This whole situation leads to inequality in society. Different groups get different treatment without any legitimate basis. For instance, in-group bias can affect the opinions and judgements of employers, leaders, civil servants and such others, further perpetrating the systematic biases in society.

8.2.3. Causes and outcomes of ingroup favoritism

Several causes of In-group favoritism phenomenon can be recognized. The foremost thing is that it enables people to give a simple and structured view to the world around them. It is a natural aspect of the process of social categorization. It is much easier to believe that 'people who belong to same group are better than others' than separately processing information about each individual in the environment. Stangor and Leary, (2008) found that individuals who have in-group favoritism also have robust desire to simplify their surrounding world.

Another major reason for In-group favoritism is belongingness to that group (Cadinu&Rothbart, 1998). Similarity among individuals tends to amplify the feeling of likeness also and members of in-group are viewed as being similar to one. This similarity and likeness ends up in bias towards in-group members when contrasted with people belonging to out-group. People also like to be associated with in-groups due to the feelings of familiarity only.

However the greatest significant cause of in-group favoritism is need of self-enhancement. Humans have a central need to feel good about their own selves, and being member of an in-group satisfies this need. We get a sense of self-esteem and social identity by being part of a group that we believe has all the positive characteristics. As Maner et al. (2005) found that when an individual's self-worth is under threat he/she is more likely to display in-group favoritism. Higher levels of self-esteem is being reported among individuals after they are given a chance to derogate out-group and. Also, when people perceive that the value of their in-group is under threat, they react in a manner as their own self-worth is harmed and displays even more destructive attitude and behavior towards out-group along with showing enhanced positive feelings towards in-group (Spears, Doosje, & Ellemers, 1997).

Authoritarianism, a personality aspect that refers to individuals who have preference towards simple views and have traditional and orthodox values is associated with in-group favoritism and prejudices towards out-group (Altemeyer, 1988). Contrarily, individuals who have concerns for other people are low on in-group favoritism. People who believe in respecting others and collectiveness of humans, are more tolerant and fair and thus, show less in-group favoritism and treat people from all groups in just manner.

The practice of stereotyping and prejudice also varies across cultures. Spencer-Rodgers, Williams, Hamilton, Peng, and Wang (2007) found that due to the collectivistic orientation of their society Chinese people form more strong stereotypical inferences about others as compared to Americans whose cultural orientation is individualistic.

8.3. Discrimination

Discrimination refers to inexcusable destructive behaviour directed to a particular group or its members. Behaviour here refers to the actions as well as conclusions and decisions taken about the members of group on the basis of their group membership. Correll et al. (2010) gave a valuable definition of the phenomena and describes it as "action taken towards members of different categories that have meaningful consequences for them and are focused at them not because they deserve it or as reciprocal actions, but only because they belong to other groups. The point of actions being not-deserving is most important in paradigm of discrimination and has its roots in historical inequalities and social codes. Committers view their actions as being legit as their targets 'deserve' them due to their group memberships. However, the targets may have different opinion regarding this 'deservingness'. This makes discrimination an even more complex concept as what is discriminatory for one might not be so for others.

Discrimination can be expressed both overtly and through covert behaviours. Such behaviours can be indirect, unconscious or even involuntary. They can also be manifested through variety of ways. Manifestations of discriminatory behaviours include hostility which can be expressed both verbally and non verbally, avoiding contact with the target, aggressive actions towards them, and the rejection of equal chances and access and treatment. There have always been wide systematic inequalities among dominant and non-dominant groups which have led to various hazardous consequences. For instance, ethnic minorities constantly have poorer well-being outcomes (Underwood et al., 2004), poor performance at school (Cohen et al., 2008), and stricter behavior from law enforcement (Steffensmeier and Demuth, 2000). There is huge discrepancy in pay and wages given to women who are far less than what men get and women are also systematically held out of powerful positions controlling for occupation and qualifications (Goldman et al., 2008).

8.3.1. Theories of Discrimination

Different theoretical perspectives have tried to explain and understand the phenomena of discrimination and different behaviours and consequences associated with it. We will discuss four such perspectives in this section.

The social identity perspective is the first and basic theory of discrimination (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It focuses on general processes that result in intergroup discriminative behaviours. It states that people are interested in protecting their self-esteem and accomplish an encouraging and distinctive social identity through it. This ambition of having a constructive social identity may lead to discrimination. This discrimination can be showed directly through harming the target or by engaging in subtle actions. For Social Identity Theory (SIT), identification with the in-group category is an essential condition for discrimination.

BIAS map (Behaviours from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes) is the perspective to discrimination. It focuses on exact means through which people discriminate against affiliates of specific kinds of groups. It is an extension of the Stereotype Content Model (Fiske et al., 2002), and suggests that the comparative position and effectiveness of groups define the warmth and capability credited to the out-group. These stereotypes foresee feelings towards the out-group, and feelings foresee behavioural propensities. Group stereotypes comprise a combination of capability and warmth characteristics, and this mixture of content leads an individual towards specific sentiments and action propensities. The warmth aspect of stereotypes, holds more weight during social meetings, envisages energetic behavioural leanings whereas the subordinate aspect of capability envisages more inactive leanings. Destructive active and inactive behaviours can be interpreted by targets as establishing discrimination, and can have noteworthy influence on the quality of their lives.

The next perspective is known as aversive racism. It is focused on recognizing when will be the discrimination manifested and when will it be inhibited. This perspective basically grew to comprehend the psychological conflict that bothers countless White Americans in terms of their ethnic attitudes. Altering social norms progressively exclude prejudice and discrimination of marginal and additional stigmatized groups (Crandall et al., 2002), and being perceived as a racist is not appealing to White population in United States anymore. This change has not occurred in terms of public image but also associated with self-concept. Nevertheless, a horde of individual and societal influences is still reinforcing stereotypes and negative evaluative biases. Aversive racism framework states that individuals engage in resolution of this conflict by maintenance of democratic norms and concurrently upholding indirect or involuntary systems of prejudice. Precisely, individuals usually will not discriminate in circumstances in which correct and incorrect is visibly clear; discrimination would be noticeable to all and one's own self also. This is because aversive racists cannot afford to be seen as being discriminatory.

The final perspective is known as system justification theory. It rests on the view that low ranked groups in 'imbalanced social systems adopt a sense of subjective or shared inferiority' (Jost et al., 2001). Theorists who agree with this position argue that the social identity perspective suggests a requirement for constructive uniqueness as a function of having good/positive feelings about self (ego justification) and about one's in-group (group justification) is connected (positively or negatively, contingent to one's ranking) to the conviction of the fairness and justness of the system in which the groups function. People belonging to high ranking groups, believe that the system is fair and them belonging to higher-ranks is due to their own self-worth. This thought results in in-group bias. The concept of labour under the 'is ought' illusion (Hume, 1939) works here. People believe that as the world is now and has been for long past, this is what it should actually look like. This line of thought, however, poses even more problem for low-ranking groups as they might view the low status as some sort of punishment they deserve because of their being unworthy. This results in out-group bias, where they believe that out-group is better and must enjoy certain liberties exclusively. This perspective, thus, explains why discrimination and unfairness is continued and endured.

8.4. Tackling Stereotyping, Prejudice and Discrimination

Re-categorization: Recategorization can be referred to as a technique where the boundary between in-group out-group can be shifted and redrawn. The common in-group identity model presents evidence for the successful implementation of this technique (Gaertner, Rust, Dovidio, Bachman, & Anastasio, 1994; Riek et al., 2010). Through the process of recategorization people who otherwise identify them as members of different social groups start seeing themselves as part of a unitary

social entity and as a result they begin to have positive and constructive outlook towards each other. But, how exactly can these feelings of being single entity be achieved. When from different social groups come together to work for attainment of some common goals, they start seeing themselves as a single social entity. Thereafter, feelings of resentment directed towards the previous out-group also weaken and diminishes. The success of technique of re-categorization has been demonstrated in numerous laboratory and field based studies (Gaertner, Mann, Dovidio, Murrell, & Pomare, 1990; Gaertner, Mann, Murrell, & Dovidio, 1989). The positive impact of having a unitary identity on hostile feelings towards out-group has also been found to be true among groups that have history of cruelty and violence. In a solid assessment of the recategorization hypothesis, Jewish Americans were persuaded to think about Jews and Germans as belonging to different groups, or to classify them as affiliates of a sole and greatly comprehensive group—i.e. being human beings (Wohl & Branscombe, 2005). Succeeding this manipulation, participants belonging to Jewish community were requested to specify the degree as to how much willingness they had to forgive Germans. Results showed that where Germans and Jews were perceived as being from different groups, less forgiveness of Germans was reported whereas when both were perceived as being one social category (human beings) more forgiveness was reported. This shows that including associates of an out-group in the same category as the in-group is significant in reducing prejudice and increasing willingness to have social interactions even with members of an historically “enemy group”.



<https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167205280908>

Self-insight training: -This technique suggest that giving insights into the subtleties of prejudice can result in reduction of prejudice, mainly because it is basically an ego-defense mechanism. Katz and his colleagues (1958) conducted a study where they asked the participants to read an essay having a case study describing the concepts of scapegoating, projection and compensation and their relationship to anti-minority attitudes. Results showed that simply stating the facts was far less effective in changing prejudicial attitudes when compared to self-insight. Other researches also state that people make modifications in their prejudicial attitudes as the self-insight shows them that their views might be inconsistent with their self-image.

Change in child rearing practices: -Bringing changes in child rearing practices is another way in which stereotypes, prejudices and discriminations can be tackled. Punitive authoritarian ways of dealing with children that lead to insecurity and maladjustment among children should be left behind and children be given democratic and lenient environment to flourish. Enhancement of the intimidating features of the financial and societal systems can eliminate the vigorous source of prejudice (Bettelheim, 1984). Nonetheless, one must not forget that prejudice is associated to feelings of scarcity and fear of denial of opportunities. Additional, societal and financial changes must be made an inseparable part of the long-term planning of eliminating stereotypes, prejudices and discrimination.

Moreover, there are two key methods to lessen prejudice that emphasis on societal facet; providing information and altering the forms of intergroup interaction. There are two chief ways of transmission of information which can replace the wrong information passed on thorough socialization by parents, peer groups etc. Mass media and education are two main ways of propelling right kind of information.

Mass Media: -Even though the messaging through mass media is not as effective a method due to certain reasons. First, due to overall propensity of individuals to evade getting these messages next comes their tendency to avoid them or to judge them as being unnecessary. There also are chances that people may perceive and apply the anti-prejudice messages in a wrong way by making them fit their own bigoted thoughts and ways. But, the use of mass media cannot be entirely negated as it is helpful when applied together with additional methods of attitude change.

Education: -Largely findings have proven that well-educated people are less prejudiced as compared to the ones who are less educated. However only the correlational data may not prove to be helpful to state that education are informally associates with reduction in prejudice. People with better education vary from the ones with less education on various other factors such as intelligence, income, social status etc. It is possible that other factors also play important role in reduction of prejudice. Stember (1981) found that less-educated people incline to have traditional stereotypes, and support discriminatory practices and also discard casual associations with

members from minority groups. He states that education does let individuals admit legal equality of all groups but it does not essentially endorse full social participation with all groups.

Changing patterns of intergroup interaction: -Changing the intergroup interaction through intergroup contact is considered an effective method. When people of different social groups live together, they get to personally experience the uselessness of their prejudices and stereotypes. Such understandings help them in having more positive outlook toward the out-groups. However issue arises when people come into contact with those members of the out group whose behaviour is consistent with the stereotypes. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1988) found that teachers' expectations become self-fulfilling prophecies and their stereotypes get reinforced about the backwardness of the minority groups. When the contact is between persons of the same socio-economic status, friendly relations may be promoted more effectively; but when the persons of superior socio-economic status have contact with members of the minority groups who are inferior in socio-economic status the stereotypes may be reinforced. This is one of the important reasons for the perpetuation of stereotypes among the members of the upper class Hindus against poor Muslims, poor Dalits etc.

The Role Interpretation: - Secord and Backman (1984) have said that prejudice may be reduced when a member of the minority group occupies two incompatible roles. For example, African Americans in the U.S. are expected to be lazy because of their low social position. But when a African American is a co-worker he is expected to be energetic. The role expectation of a co-worker may gradually modify the minority group expectation.

	The Boy in the Striped Pyjamas a 2008 film by Mark Herman portrays the issues of intergroup contact and friendship across group boundaries.
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8.5 Summary

Stereotype is the cognitive component that influences the perceptions of members belonging to different groups. It refers to the positive or negative beliefs an individual has about the various features of a social group. For instance, one may believe that “Japanese people are polite” or “women are incompetent” or “Africa-American people are aggressive and violent” These beliefs about people of other groups often serve as guiding force behind our actions and behaviours towards them.

Prejudice, on the other hand is the affective component of this type of social behaviour. It can be defined as a negative attitude toward an out group or towards individuals belonging to that group without any just explanation for such attitude. It can be expressed in feelings of disliking, anger, fear, disgust, discomfort, and even hatred towards others. Stereotypes and prejudices lead towards the creation of discrimination.

Discrimination is the behavioural aspect of this model. It refers to negative behaviours towards any particular group of which an individual is not a member and also towards other individuals based in their group membership.

Social categorization refers to thinking about fellow human beings on the basis of their group memberships—the usual mental process through which we put people into different socially defined groups. The examples of social categorization is thinking about others in terms of men (versus women), a young individual (versus an old person), an Asian person (versus a White person), and more such categories.

The social identity perspective is the first and basic theory of discrimination (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It focuses on general processes that result in intergroup discriminative behaviours. It states that people are interested in protecting their self esteem and accomplish an encouraging and distinctive social identity through it.

BIAS map (Behaviours from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes) is the perspective to discrimination. It focuses on exact means through which people discriminate against affiliates of specific kinds of groups.

Recategorization can be referred to as a technique where the boundary between in-group out-group can be shifted and redrawn.

8.6 Key Words

Stereotype: a set of cognitive generalizations (such as beliefs, expectations) about the abilities and features of the members of a group or social category.

Prejudice: a negative attitude toward another person or group formed in advance of any experience with that person or group.

Discrimination: an act of making unjustified distinctions between human beings based on the groups, classes, or other categories to which they are perceived to belong.

In-Group Favoritism: - the tendency to favor one's own group, its members, its characteristics, and its products, particularly in reference to other groups.

Categorization: - It is the process by which objects, events, people, or experiences are grouped into classes on the basis of characteristics shared by members of the same class and features distinguishing the members of one class from those of another.

In-group favoritism: - It refers to this tendency of positive responding towards members of our in-groups as compared to people belonging to out-groups. It means a kind of favored behavior towards the people belonging to our identified in-groups.

8.7 Self-Assessment

1. **Stereotype** is the _____ component
 - A. affective
 - B. cognitive
 - C. behavioral
 - D. emotional
2. _____ can be defined as a negative attitude toward an out group or towards individuals belonging to that group without any just explanation for such attitude.
 - A. discrimination
 - B. stereotype
 - C. prejudice
 - D. in-group favoritism
3. A classic experiment was conducted by _____ which displayed the whole scenario of possible consequences of categorization.
 - A. Tajfel and Wilkis
 - B. Wilkis and Rogers
 - C. Tajfel
 - D. Wilkis
4. _____ line of thought maintains that prejudices are learned behavior which gets reinforced learning.
 - A. Social Learning
 - B. Social Conditioning
 - C. Reinforcement
 - D. Classical Conditioning
5. _____ is a major reason for In-group favoritism
 - A. Proximity to higher self
 - B. Belongingness to that group
 - C. Belongingness to higher self
 - D. Proximity to out-group

6. Which of these are not causes of in-group favoritism?
- A. Belongingness to group
 - B. Need of self-enhancement
 - C. Both of these
 - D. None of these
7. The term 'discrimination' refers to
- A. A positive or negative evaluation of a social group
 - B. A positive or negative behavior directed toward a social group
 - C. A negative behavior directed towards a social group
 - D. A negative evaluation of a social group
8. Which of the following is true?
- A. Prejudice against women has not declined at all
 - B. A strong gender stereotype continue to exist
 - C. Stereotype is same as prejudice
 - D. Racial stereotypes are stronger than gender stereotypes
9. What type of information is usually held in schemas in case of prejudice and discrimination?
- A. Accurate information
 - B. Negative information
 - C. Self-concept information
 - D. Perceptual Biases
10. This personality aspect is related to in-group favoritism
- A. Narcissism
 - B. Authoritarianism
 - C. None of these
 - D. Both of these
11. Why does contact between groups work to reduce prejudice?
- A. contact may increase the perception of similarity of members belonging to the different groups
 - B. "mere exposure" leads to liking regardless of the circumstances
 - C. contact promotes the illusion that groups are all alike
 - D. it works, but nobody knows why
12. How do people handle information that is inconsistent with a stereotype they hold?
- A. they assimilate it, and it changes the stereotype
 - B. they show a boomerang effect; it makes the stereotype much stronger
 - C. they deny it or refute it
 - D. they misconstrue it as supporting their stereotype
13. This technique suggest that giving insights into the subtleties of prejudice can result in reduction of prejudice
- A. Self-Insight Training
 - B. Prejudice-Reduction Training
 - C. Prejudice Insight Training
 - D. Self-Evaluation Training

14. _____ can be referred to as a technique where the boundary between in-group out-group can be shifted and redrawn.

- A. Categorization
- B. De-categorization
- C. Re-categorization
- D. Contact Theory

15. Negative attitudes toward various social groups are due to parents and friends it is

- A. Mere exposure
- B. Evolution
- C. Social learning theory
- D. None of them

Answers				
01	02	03	04	05
B	C	A	A	B
6	7	8	9	10
C	C	B	B	B
11	12	13	14	15
A	C	A	C	C

8.8 Review Questions

1. What is the role of in-group favoritism in propagating prejudice?
2. What are the demerits of social categorization?
3. Discuss the theoretical perspectives to discrimination?
4. Discuss social categorization and its benefits in detail.
5. What are the various ways of tackling prejudice and discrimination?

Further Readings



Taylor, S.E., Peplau, L.A., Sears, D.O. Social Psychology. Twelfth Edition. Pearson Education. 2006
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UNIT-9Culture

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Objectives

This unit will enable you to:-

To understand the importance of concept of culture in Psychology

To understand the use of language and communication in regard to culture

To become aware about cross-cultural Psychology

To gain insight about multicultural issues in Psychology

Introduction

“People are not captive recipients of cultural influence. Rather people can turn culture into an object of reflection.” – Chiu et al. (2010)

Culture is an integral part of any human being's life. When you think about different cultures, you likely picture their most visible features, such as differences in the way people dress, or in the architectural styles of their buildings. You might consider different types of food, or how people in some cultures eat with chopsticks while people in others use forks. There are differences in body language, religious practices, and wedding rituals. While these are all obvious examples of cultural differences, many distinctions are harder to see because they are psychological in nature. Just as culture can be seen in dress and food, it can also be seen in morality, identity, and gender roles. People from around the world differ in their views of premarital sex, religious tolerance, respect for elders, and even the importance they place on having fun. Similarly, many behaviors that may seem innate are actually products of culture. Approaches to punishment, for example, often depend on cultural norms for their effectiveness. In the United States, people who ride public transportation without buying a ticket face the possibility of being fined. Contrastingly, in some countries, people who dodge the fare have to go through social humiliation by making their photos public. Such “name and shame” campaigns may prove to be useful in some societies only as the

people of varied cultures will have varied levels of comfort in being presented about their flaws in the open. Such techniques might not work under societies where people do not care about being shamed in public. The psychological features of culture usually go unnoticed as they mostly remain unseen. But, various aspects of human life is hugely impacted by culture, for instance gender roles and the responsibilities towards family, friends and acquaintances. **Social psychologists** have an interest in the process through which culture impacts psychological development. They study **culture** as way of getting enhanced insight to methods through which our affects, emotions, identity, relationships, and decisions gets affected.



Discuss with your cross-cultural friends about different cultural practices surrounding the festival of new year in their cultures.

9.1 Defining Culture

The various aspects of human personality are acquired from the surroundings in which one grows and develops. Culture refers to *social patterns that have shared meaning for the people who belong to that social reality*. In spirit, it is a shared understanding of the working of the world that is common for members of a particular group and is handed down from generation to generation. , For instance, people belonging to the Yanomamö tribe, in South America have a common cultural belief according to which the world has four levels to reality which are parallel o one another and include an abandoned level, and earthly level and heavenly and hell-like levels. Likewise, people who surf comprehend their leisure of having crucial value and also have formal set of rules and protocols that re followed only by the surfers. Culture has various characteristics that are essential for understanding the exclusivity and multiplicity of the human mind:

-) *Versatility*: It is the most crucial aspect of culture. It states that culture is modifiable and adaptive in nature. For instance, an individual belonging to India will have multiple distinct identities. She might identify as being Indian while in the country and abide by all the cultural norms specific to her home country. But when she goes to US, she might see herself as an Asian. This is also referred to as situational identity.
-) *Sharing*: The very essence of culture is the act of sharing between humans. Humans collaborate and share information and expertise with other affiliates of their systems. The methods through which the sharing happens and the content of sharing makes up the culture. For instance, for older generation they best way to share warmth with long distance friends and relatives were to exchange letters while younger generation has a culture of relying on calls and texts for the same. Older adults, for instance, remember a time when long-distance friendships were maintained through letters that arrived in the mail every few months. Contemporary youth culture accomplishes the same goal through the use of instant text messages on smart phones.
-) *Accumulation*: The knowledge that people of a certain culture shares is cumulative in nature. It means that it holds up storage in some systems and through this storage it spread across generations. A lot of change has happened in the way humans function when compared to let's say 200 years back. However, this is not in any way an indication to total erasure of the previous ways. We understand more about the world today than we did 200 years ago, but that doesn't mean the culture from long ago has been erased by the new. For example, eating habits may have included market super foods more for today's generation but we eat same type of fruits and vegetables whose cultivation was popular years back.
-) *Patterns*: It refers to the organised and expectable ways of actions and thought processes that is shared by various members of a culture. Adaptation, sharing and storing of various cultural information lead to emergence of patterns. Patterns may have certain similarities and certain dissimilarities across different cultures. For instance, in Western as well as Eastern cultures bringing a small piece of gift while visiting someone is considered appropriate behaviour. However, where bringing a bottle of wine is more common in western cultures like in Canada, bringing sweets is considered more appropriate in Eastern cultures like India.

There exist multiple interpretations of the word 'culture'. Does saying, "My organization has a competitive culture," has the same connotation as saying, "I am visiting the museum to get feel of

the culture'. In reality, the word 'culture' may have different connotations. Below are discussed three separate ways of defining the concept:

- J) *Progressive cultivation*: It is that aspect of culture which deals with 'getting refined' and includes different activities taken up to achieve this refinedness. The example of such activities can be learn perform a dance, appreciate musical concerts or attending plays at a theatre. In the mid-19th century, this progressive cultivation was the chief use of the word culture. However, this definition remained restricted only to certain upper class individuals but as the global travel spread in the late 19th century the connotation of the word changed. Culture began to be viewed as an understanding of way of life for particular groups.
- J) *Ways of Life*: It refers to different forms of philosophies and conduct that is common for members of a culture. This concept of "ways of life" gave prominence to understanding of belief and behavior patterns that continue across generations. While describing culture as way of life, people often confuse national identity with culture. However, they are not identical. For instance, we can find several similarities among culture of Japan, China, and Korea, but politically they are separate entities. Undeniably, all three of these countries have huge amounts of cultural variation also.
- J) *Shared Learning*: Social psychologists as well as Anthropologists came up with the idea of enculturation in beginning of 20th century. It means the ways through which we learn the shared cultural knowledge. In the explanation of culture "ways of life" can be defined as a noun and "enculturation" is a verb. It is because enculturation is a vibrant and fluid process which states that culture is a not an end but a process which can be learned unlearned and relearned. Children are taught various ways to behave in, according to the culture they grow up in but as they reach adulthood they may learn various new ways of behaving according to the prevalent cultural norms. This means that a person can acquire numerous cultural scripts in their lifetime.



Prepare a report comparing eating habits of urban and rural cultures of your state/country.

It is interesting to view culture in terms of learned behaviors as it leads to understanding of various prevalent differences among humans and its resulting effects. Various social groups can come into conflict with one another. Members of different cultures simply learn different ways of behaving. For example, younger populations are much more comfortable in interacting with technology and follow different sets of rules for same such as various abbreviations and slang terms, this language usage does not generally go well with older generation who see it as decline of language and communication. This was a rather harmless example of conflict due to different cultural norms; however, there are situations and contexts where cultural differences become cause of major and at times violent conflicts among communities and groups. One instance of conflict surrounding different cultural norms is the practice of wearing hijab or head scarf by Muslim women. Most non-Muslim people do not practice such tradition and at times misunderstandings arise about the correctness of this practice. Another benefit of knowing that culture is an acquired practice is that it makes people aware that they can also learn to appreciate the practices that might not be followed by their cultures. Like, if non-Muslims try to learn about the practice of Hijab, such as from where and when it started? What are other Muslim's beliefs regarding? It they may gain better understanding of the reasons for women to practice it. Lastly, being aware of the fact that cultural norms are acquired can lead an individual to have better understanding and awareness of their own selves. For example, persons in United States might be oblivious to the fact that their opinion about public nudity is a result of cultural learning. While women being topless (like at nude beaches) is not a big deal in Europe and in various tribal areas in United States it is an illegal practice. Such cultural standards for modesty – imitated in administrative laws and policies – also become integral part of public discourse on societal concerns like the suitability of breast-feeding while being in public spaces. Being aware of the fact that most of the individual inclinations in most instances are result of cultural learning can empower people to review them in cases where it can lead the, to have a better and happy life for self and for others.

9.2 Rise of Cross-Cultural Psychology

Cross-Cultural Psychology came out in the public as an entity when International Journal of Psychology got published in Paris in 1966 and with publication of the Journal of Cross-Cultural

Psychology in 1970 in the United States. Two renowned Social Psychologists Lois Murphy and Gardner Murphy in their article in *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology* talked about the potential that cross-cultural psychology has and what can be achieved through this potential. The official acknowledgment of cross-cultural Psychology as a sub discipline has now been achieved. Along with numerous numbers of journals and books on the subject, there are courses dedicated to it in various Universities. Some researchers clearly demarcate the activities of cross-cultural and cultural psychologists. The cross-cultural psychologist might utilize conventional methods used in social psychology such as questionnaires, interview and statistical methods to find comparisons and differences among different groups (Smith, Bond & Kagitçibasi, 2006). Conversely, the cultural psychologist may rely on qualitative methods for data collection and may use methods like discourse analysis. Their focus of study remains the meaning that people excerpt from their sociocultural environment and stresses upon the fact that the individual as an entity cannot be extracted from the culture, because culture is also an entity in itself. Nevertheless, it is not advisable to define cultural psychology as a distinct discipline only on the basis of methods used by cultural psychologists. As Heine (2010) found that cultural psychology also benefits from utilizing experimental method. Practically, the demarcation of cross-cultural and cultural psychology will stay fluid. However, a major dilemma for cross-cultural psychology remains if it can provide justice to the intricacies intrinsic of an individual culture? The cross-cultural psychologist Michael Bond is of the opinion that: 'Cross-cultural psychologists will never get it culturally right, only cross-culturally right' (Bond, 2003).

Nevertheless, Psychologists working in the field of Cross-cultural psychologists are focused on finding answers to three basic questions:

-) What is the validity of Western psychological theories in other cultures?
-) Are there any psychological constructs that are culture-specific?
-) How can Psychology be evolved as a subject that has universal relevance?

Second and third questions have long intrigued the Cultural anthropologists (Kluckhohn, 1954). However, with the arrival of new sub-discipline in Psychology, some important new terms also got introduced in subject's research area. The major one was the distinction between the etic-emic which was described in terms of distinction between linguistic concepts of phonetics and phonemics. Here, 'etic' analyses of behaviour refer to those aspects that focus on universals, primarily those that are either simple or vary from one another. For example, all individuals engage in eating behaviours, have close relationships with others, and have techniques of dealing with enemies. However, from the point of view of 'emic' analysis importance will be given to different ways in which people from different cultures engage in these activities. Effective emic analyses can be used to make generalizations whose validity can be established locally only (Smith & Bond, 1998). For instance, power distance can be seen across cultures, which makes it an etic construct whereas *amae*, or passive love, is an emic concept that is perhaps restricted to Japanese culture. Through proper examination and establishment across cultures, emic constructs can also become 'etic' ones.



Bend it Like Beckham directed by Gurinder Chadha, is a light-hearted film about the clashing of different cultures in the UK.

9.3 Communication, Language & Speech Style

Language is an integral part of human life and central to cross-cultural psychology as language mostly differ from one culture to another. Even multicultural and resultantly multilingual, and societies also have a high-status dominant group. Subsequently, a language barrier can become huge hindrance to a smooth intercultural reality. Clearly, not knowing Italian while being in Florence can be a major difficulty in conversing with local population. Not only the language but the style of speech and the accent can also prove to be an obstacle while having a conversation with others. Local people may pay less heed to someone speaking in a foreign accent. In a study by Gallois and Callan (1986) conducted in Australia, results showed that people who spoke native Australian English did not engaged less in listening to people who had an Italian accent – it can be due to various kinds of adverse stereotypes associated with south European immigrants.

The extent of apparent cultural variances can impact contact between people from different cultures. To be specific, the degree to which another culture is viewed as being different from one's own can impact the intercultural interaction. Vaughan (1962) conducted a study on social distance and

found that more dissimilar a culture is perceived to be, the more people wish to distance themselves from members of that cultural group. Therefore, the possibility of increasing intercultural associations decreases. The situation under which any intergroup interactions take place is also crucial. As contact hypothesis states there are numerous components of group relations like cooperation, similar status and common goals which have the potential to make intergroup contact a constructive practice. These components can also be applicable within same societies, to instances of intercultural contact. But, there are additional elements of intercultural contact that can prove to be a blockade in this regard. For instance, Kochman (1987) found that African Americans make use of an accentuation and dramatic intensity in their speech that makes them identifiable from the majority population (White Americans). It can be result of creating a deliberate sociolinguistic indicator; which draws an intergroup line and protects their ethnic identity. Increase in contact between people of different nationalities can lead to additional problems- psychologists now have to deal with distinct countries, territories, political institutions and the customs that relate to them (Smith, Bond & Kagıtçibas, i, 2006). International contact is also often short-term, less frequent, and more variable in intimacy, relative status and power.

Moving forward, the section will discuss cross-national intercultural communication. A fairly considerable difference exist among eastern and western cultures, in terms of the use of 'codes' i.e. messages having implied meanings for each communicator in the Asian cultures. Such codes are identified among in Chinese population, for instance, as hanxu (Gao, Ting-Toomey & Gudykunst, 1996). Accordingly, a simple interaction with people from eastern and western societies can at times create misinterpretations. For example, if an American and Japanese are interacting the former may seem direct while the later may be perceived as being indirect. Such cultural differences are not bound only to verbal language but also can be found in non-verbal behaviours. Cultural variations can be found in facial display norms that display different emotions, in kinesics that show one's cultural background, and also in differences among use of touch and perception of interpersonal distance. There are some differences between Eastern and Western cultures in the rate of mutual gaze in certain social contexts. For example, Bond and Komai (1976) found that young Japanese males made less eye contact than Western samples with an interviewer during the course of an interview. At times, an action or gesture that is against the moral codes of one culture may be a total normal way of conversing in other. For instance, women from western countries may have to wear certain types of clothes while visiting Islamic countries. Sadly, violation of a cultural norm even if done due to inexperience and unawareness, can lead to conflict in some instances, which makes it even more crucial to study and understand these differences.

Sometimes, the use of language also creates issues. The meaning and essence of a word or sentence is lost in translation. Glenn (1976) put forth several illustrations of words where the meaning of whole word changes when it is translated from English to other languages. For instance 'I', the personal pronoun generally has a personal implication in English but the same letter when used in Russian or French encompasses objective implications. English has only one word for 'here', while Spanish has two different words to describe 'right here' (aquí) and 'hereabouts' (acá). Besides, looking for words or idioms to converse connotation precisely across cultures, a language can posture a bigger issue when words, or word usage, are entangled with culturally specific concepts. Like Kashima and Kashima (1998) exhibit that, while using it with certain statements, 'I', the first pronoun is not included in Japanese but this almost never happens while using it in English. The intriguing fact is this that this language difference also points out the difference between perception of self-concept as being independent and interdependent among different cultures. This means that people who come from individualistic English speaking cultures use 'I' to signify the self as separate from all others, while people of collectivist Japanese culture let go off the use of 'I' to integrate significant others into the concept of self.

Yet other example comes from Japanese culture. Japanese have a word, amae, which recognizes an emotional state having communicative inferences that are central to conventional Japanese culture. According to Japanese researcher Doi amae, the noun can be translated into English as 'to depend and presume upon another's love'. The word has a distinctive sensation of pleasantness, and is usually used to express the outlook a child has for an adult in his/her life. It is especially used for parents. There is no such word available in English language that can replace the word 'amae'. The closest word is 'spoil', which is not a noun but a transitive verb and has a negative connotation as opposed to amae's positive one. In this citation, amae is discussed in terms of an adult and child relationship, but amae also holds true for other significant relationships like applies to students and professors, work teams and their supervisors. Due to their cultural practices, Japanese people have a strong necessity to have amae, and it might serve as an emotional foundation for interpersonal

communication. An individual who feels *amae* during an interaction will deliver non-verbal cues (such as silences, pensive looks and smiles) to make other person comfortable. Any individual who is not familiar with the language and cultural connotation of such non-verbal cues might interpret it inappropriately. Intercultural communication plays an important role not only at an individual/personal level but also at political level. At this level, intercultural communication can make use of indirect word games during negotiations.

9.4 Cross-Cultural Challenge

Even though the cross-cultural challenge is basically related to social psychology, the influence is two-way. Cross-cultural and cultural psychologists can learn important lessons from postulates of social psychology and can even utilize them outside of the culture to which they actually belong (Smith, Bond & Kagıtçibas, 2006). For example, take the case of improving intercultural relations. Intercultural relations are part of intergroup relations and understanding of processes that go behind intercultural conflict, processes such as discrimination and stereotyping are the subject area of social psychology's concepts like intergroup behavior, self-concept, prejudice, discrimination stereotypes.

However, social psychologists while dealing with cross-cultural challenge have to face several pertinent questions. Question like should there be spread of an indigenous psychology? In other words, should every culture have its own and distinct social psychology that imitates its exclusive standpoint in its themes and concepts? For instance, as the western concepts in Modern Psychology have already taken a center stage over understanding of South-Asia's and Middle East's extremely established structures of psychological concepts, extracted from various religious and social traditions like Hinduism, Islam, Buddhism, Taoism, Confucianism, Shintoism and Marxism-Leninism (Turtle, 1994), the cultures might feel an urge to change this discourse. The greatest example, till date, of a distinct indigenous social psychology is European social psychology that has been developed recently. Social psychology in Europe from 1940s to early 1960s was heavily dependent on American social psychology, due to Europe struggling with fascism and the Second World War at the time. Describing the issues with such approach, Moscovici (1972) pointed out that culturally Europeans were alien to tenants of American social psychology. It did nothing to deal with European concerns and welfares, moreover its interpretative framework or meta-theory was in conflict with European Metatheory. He recommended the establishment of a European social psychology that precisely dealt with cultural uniqueness of the region. Though Europe (especially north-west Europe) and the United States have diverse customs, pasts and viewpoints, as cultures they are very similar – both the regions are technologically advanced, idiosyncratic Western democratic societies. They can be put under one group and compared with contradictory non-industrialised and collectivist societies of the world. Therefore, even if differences between American and European social psychology is highlighted they are more or less similar cultures and individuals from these similar cultures only end up as subjects for various researches.

Therefore, it was **evident** that the voices from Asian regions will come up in support for different indigenous psychologies and it did arise from various countries. Like Enriquez (1993) for Filipino, Yang for Chinese (Yang & Bond, 1990) and Sinha for Sinha (1997). It all culminated in creation of Asian Association of Social Psychology and the Asian Journal of Social Psychology in 1995. This did help in nurturance of social psychology in East Asia and enthused research based on indigenous themes and gave center stage to the issue of nature of indigenous psychologies (Kashima, 2005; Kim, 2000; Ng & Liu, 2000; Yang, 2000). The crucial first step in this regard is development of theories and application of those theories on same culture. This has even more importance for cultures of developing nations that deal with diverse grave social problems to concerns that need resolution – the well-meaning application of theories that are developed, say, in Europe or the United States may simply not work. For instance, Moghaddam (1998) found that applying theoretical Western idea of encouraging people to be entrepreneurs did not work in various eastern societies who already had their well-developed way of functioning and proved to be disastrous for various communities (such as Pygmies in central Africa) and ecosystems (such as in Brazil). Certainly, one of the central glitches in the concept of globalisation is indeed the assumption that population of developing nations have the similar social psychological resources as Western populations (Stiglitz, 2002). One more issue is the propensity of social psychological theory and action, to emphasize on stationary societal relations in place of emphasizing on dynamic processes that can bring changes in these relations (Moghaddam, 1990). However, social identity theory (e.g. Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Hogg & Abrams, 1988) and minority influence theory (e.g. Moscovici, 1976) are exceptions to this issue.

Both of these points of views have their roots in Europe and were deliberately developed to further European scientific and social agenda along with differentiating European Social Psychology from its American counterpart (Israel & Tajfel, 1972). However, do we require independent indigenous psychologies for each and every culture in order to solve their issues is a debatable point? But there is a more pertinent old question that has been neglected in recent debate; that is developing a link between theory and practice, culture notwithstanding. The focus point being if an action research approach oriented towards practical outcomes should be developed. Moghaddam (1990, 1998) stands with the idea of development of a generative psychology by citing instances from Latin America and Turkey in 1990s, where such an approach has proven to be successful.



<https://www.psychologicalscience.org/observer/integrating-culture-into-psychological-research>

Charting characteristics and classes of human behaviour having universal application was an element of early cultural anthropology. Till today, this is true for most social psychologists, who are effectively dedicated to the exploration of universal laws of social behaviour. The idea to develop numerous indigenous psychologies that will be true for a large number of specific cultural groups raises questions that include the relationship between science and ideology, matters of epistemology and the composition of valid knowledge, and the role of abstract scientific inquiry in society. Every new indigenous psychology might be governed by its laws and principles. Can this lead to scientific Balkanization? Additionally, accompanying the need for locally relevant theory is generally the poststructuralist assumption of cultural relativism – the view that all cultural belief systems and practices are equally acceptable, and that there are no universal psychological truths. Thus, we can see that questions of indigenous psychologies here are no easy answers or resolutions. Therefore, a genuine achievable objective is to motivate social psychologists to widen their discipline to include essential social cognition and perception, such as social categorisation, with developing social properties, such as group norms and social representations. In this way some insight into human behavior, to its general form and also to context-specific cultural and historical expression can be gained.

Cross-cultural research does come with different sets of challenges like another research field. The major issue for social psychologists in terms of cross-cultural research is not the feasibility of the research. The real issue is to win over one's own cultural perceptions. Develop the ability to understand different cultural perspectives and to acknowledge the cultural limitations of one's own thoughts (Smith, Bond & Kagitçibasi, 2006). Like everyone else, social psychologists, are restricted by their own cultural constraints, accepting viewpoints and addressing questions that are culturally relevant. Their focus remains on culture-specific psychologies instead of talking about universally relevant science. A major issue with this line of thought is that prevailing scientific culture's psychology can banish all other psychologies and hamper the growth of true universalism. An inclusive social psychology will be aware of sociopolitical differences and play an important role at global stage and might also lead the way for humanitarians devoted to resolving prevalent and persistent difficulties in the developing countries. Social psychology can also describe the unique interaction between basic social psychological processes and socioculturally specific processes. In this way it can lead to develop better understanding of concepts like destructive blind obedience, violence within families, intergroup conflict, social dilemmas and social change.

9.5. Multicultural Challenge

An important challenge that exists in this age of Globalization is if different cultures can successfully co-exist? Should all cultures be allowed to thrive (even those who propagate gender inequality and different forms of discrimination) or all cultures must learn to change in accordance to changing global values? Like, thinking in extreme terms, ponder upon the campaign in Afghanistan against Al-Qaeda and the Taliban. Is it an example of a fight against an evil or is it a mighty culture trying to force itself on different type of cultural reality? It is a complicated yet important question which must be taken into consideration specifically while tackling the notion of the postmodern paradox (Dunn, 1998). Postmodern paradox refers to propensity for individuals to hold fundamentalist belief systems to discover a separate and rigid identity that takes one away from sense of isolation and moral vacuum which has engulfed the modern industrialized world.

Managing cultural diversity

Another important question from the point of view of cultural understanding is of how to manage cultural diversity in pluralistic societies. The focus here must be applying the cultural variations to settle intergroup conflict. As seen before, at the intergroup level, there is cumulative support for the

notion that groups live more amicably with one another if their valued uniqueness and customs are valued. Groups will thrive within a superordinate culture that also allows them to feel that their relations to one another are cooperative rather than competitive. At the cultural level, the debate is largely over the relative merits of assimilations and multiculturalism (Prentice & Miller, 1999).

Moghaddam (1998, 2008) compared assimilationist dogmas with those that manage cultural diversity by promoting multiculturalism. Assimilation can be of two kinds, total and 'meltingpot'. Total assimilation refers to annihilation of a culture, whereas 'meltingpot' is not that extreme and does not threaten the emergence of new type of dominant culture. Multiculturalism is an extra optimistic and all-encompassing view of both central and marginal cultures. Under laissez-faire form, multiculturalism allows the progress of marginal cultures without depending upon host culture. Laissez-faire multiculturalism can be seen throughout the world, for instance ethnic enclaves, like many Chinatowns in various cities across the world, Little India in Singapore and expatriate European communities in some Asian cities are. The sustenance of cultural diversity basically depends upon a country's policy. Like Canada and Australia provides government support for different activities that work to sustain the cultural integrity of various immigrant groups.

At the psychological level, dynamic multiculturalism maintains both individualistic or collectivist cultural units. Belanger and Pinard (1991) said that there exists a leaning to sustain collectivist cultures across the globe. However, cultural diversity does have another side to it. In some western European cities such as London, Paris and Rome increase in intergroup confrontation and in few instances terrifying acts of discrete or collective terror has occurred along with huge amount of immigration. Various immigrant groups such as North Africans, Muslims, and Eastern Europeans have been blamed for the same. But, only cultural variations are less likely to be the sole cause of such problems - various other issues like joblessness, financial difficulty, insufficient education and accommodation all contribute towards such instances of intergroup challenges.

Multiculturalism is not only apparent but is expanding in numerous in numerous parts of the world. Two occurrences can be looked into this regard: extracommercial transaction is happening between China and the West, and European community is expanding with huge numbers of relocation from Eastern to Western Europe. Additionally, Internet access has made all types of communication accessible and easy. In a nutshell, globalisation has fast-tracked. Such changes increased the need for psychologists to have more precise definitions of culture, and better understanding of its influence on people's thinking, feeling and behavioral patterns (Hong & Mallorie, 2004). Besides, cultures are not unchangeable. Cultures that have so much interaction, and live side by side have higher chances of undergoing various changes. A lively social psychology is one that can trail change both within and between cultures and contribute to cooperative development of cultures.

9.6. Summary

There are differences in body language, religious practices, and wedding rituals. While these are all obvious examples of cultural differences, many distinctions are harder to see because they are psychological in nature. Just as culture can be seen in dress and food, it can also be seen in morality, identity, and gender roles.

Social psychologists have an interest in the process through which culture impacts psychological development. They study culture as way of getting enhanced insight to methods through which our affects, emotions, identity, relationships, and decisions gets affected.

Cross-Cultural Psychology came out in the public as an entity when International Journal of Psychology got published in Paris in 1966 and with publication of the Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology in 1970 in the United States.

Nevertheless, Psychologists working in the field of Cross-cultural psychologists are focused on finding answers to three basic questions; what is the validity of Western psychological theories in other cultures? Are there any psychological constructs that are culture-specific? How can Psychology be evolved as a subject that has universal relevance?

The extent of apparent cultural variances can impact contact between people from different cultures. To be specific, the degree to which another culture is viewed as being different from one's own can impact the intercultural interaction.

Charting characteristics and classes of human behaviour having universal application was an element of early cultural anthropology. Till today, this is true for most social psychologists, who are effectively dedicated to the exploration of universal laws of social behaviour.

Another important question from the point of view of cultural understanding is of how to manage cultural diversity in pluralistic societies. The focus here must be applying the cultural variations to settle intergroup conflict.

At the psychological level, dynamic multiculturalism maintains both individualistic or collectivist cultural units.



International Association for Cross Cultural Psychology, an international body founded in 1972 works to facilitate communication among interested individuals about diverse range of issues involving culture and psychology.

<https://www.iaccp.org/>

9.7. Keywords:

Culture: -Culture is the collection of thoughts, actions, outlooks, and customs that occur within huge clusters of individuals. These thoughts, actions, outlooks, and customs get passed on from one generation to another and are usually resilient to variations over time.

Cross-Cultural Psychology: -It focuses on the meaning that people excerpt from their sociocultural environment and stresses upon the fact that the individual as an entity cannot be extracted from the culture, because culture is also an entity in itself.

Cultural Diversity: -Recognizing the existence of large amount of varying cultures.

Multiculturalism: - Multiculturalism is the co-existence of diverse cultures, where culture includes racial, religious, or cultural groups and is manifested in customary behaviours, cultural assumptions and values, patterns of thinking, and communicative styles.

Indigenous Psychology: -the scientific study of human behavior or mind that is native, that is not transported from other regions, and that is designed for its people.

9.8. Self-Assessment

1. _____ refers to *social patterns that have shared meaning for the people who belong to that social reality.*
 - a. Cross-Culture
 - b. Multiculture
 - c. Indigenous Culture
 - d. Culture
2. Which of these is not a characteristic of culture?
 - a. Versatility
 - b. Accumulation
 - c. Sharing
 - d. Akoliation
3. These psychologists played crucial role in development of cross-cultural psychology
 - a. Lois Murphy and Gardner Murphy
 - b. Lewis Tajafel and Harper Tajafel
 - c. Charlie Murphy and Michael Murphy
 - d. Lois Shiffrin and Gardner Shiffrin
4. Cultural variations can be found in facial display norms?

-
- a. True
 - b. False
5. Glenn (1976) put forth several illustrations of
- a. words where the meaning of whole word changes when it is translated from English to other languages
 - b. words where the meaning of whole word changes when it is translated from different languages to English
 - c. words where the meaning of whole word changes when it is translated from English to Arabic
 - d. no meaning is lost in translation
6. The major issue faced by psychologists in terms of cross cultural psychology is
- a. to win over government's own cultural perceptions
 - b. to win over one's own cultural perceptions
 - c. the conduct of research
 - d. use of existing research methods
7. Early cultural anthropology focused on?
- a. Charting characteristics and classes of human behaviour having universal application
 - b. Charting characteristics and classes of human behaviour having cultural application
 - c. Charting characteristics and classes of human behaviour having multicultural application
 - d. Charting characteristics and classes of human behaviour having local application
8. Psychologists working in the field of Cross-cultural psychologists are focused on finding answers to these three basic questions
- a. What is the validity of Western psychological theories in other cultures?
 - b. Are there any psychological constructs that are culture-specific?
 - c. How can Psychology be evolved as a subject that has universal relevance?
 - d. All of above
9. These psychologists enthused research based on indigenous themes and gave center stage to the issue of nature of indigenous psychologies
- a. Sharma, Enriquez, Yang
 - b. Sinha, Enriquez, Ying
 - c. Sinha, Enriquez, Yang
 - d. None of these
10. Indigenous Psychology refers to the scientific study of human behavior or mind that is native, that is not transported from other regions, and that is designed for its people.
- a. True
 - b. False
11. Assimilation can be
- a. Meltingpot
 - b. Total assimilation
 - c. None of these
 - d. Both of these
12. An important focus of multiculturalism is to apply the cultural variations to settle intergroup conflict.
- a. True
 - b. False

13. Total assimilation refers to
 - a. Annihilation of a culture
 - b. Construction of a culture without annihilation of another
 - c. Melting two cultures together
 - d. None of these
14. Globalization has made Multiculturalism an important area to focus on.
 - a. True
 - b. False
15. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology published in
 - a. 1987
 - b. 1970
 - c. 1978
 - d. 1969

Answers				
01	02	03	04	05
d	d	a	a	a
6	7	8	9	10
b	a	d	c	a
11	12	13	14	15
d	a	a	a	b

9.9. Review Questions

1. What are the important questions dealt with by cross-cultural psychology?
2. How language impacts cultures?
3. Explain the need to have indigenous psychology.
4. How is managing cultural diversity important for multiculturalism?
5. Explain various characteristics of culture.

Further Readings



- Hogg, M.A. & Vaughan, G.M. Social Psychology. Sixth Edition. Pearson Education. 2011
- Baumeister, R.F., & Finkel, E.J. Advanced Social Psychology: The State of the Science. Oxford University Press. 2010

Unit 10 Leadership

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Objectives

This unit will enable you to:

Know about different types of leadership;

Understand role of trust in leadership;

Understand how identities impact leadership

Acquire knowledge about gender differences in leadership;

Get familiar with intergroup leadership

Introduction

The concept of leadership has an important place not only in the sphere of organisational psychology but also utmost importance for the field of Social Psychology. Through general, abstract and theoretical principles, social psychological perspective focuses on understanding the ways and methods that permit individuals and group members to exert influence on one another and cultivate collective norms and ethics and puts leadership within this milieu. It has tended, since the emergence of the group dynamics tradition, based on the work of Kurt Lewin and others, to think of leadership in terms of relative influence within a group and the leader(s) as the person, role or subgroup which exerts more influence over the group than others. This assertion about the impact of the leadership and its connection with influence is a just a synopsis of a large area field which includes several complex fields like group dynamics, issues of minority, crowd behaviour, conformism, persuasion, power etc.

Placing things more descriptively, we could say that social psychologists assume that leaders are group members who: exert more influence than others; tend to be seen as more trustworthy, prestigious, valued, credible and fair; and who play the most important role in the group in terms of directing it towards its goals, holding the group together socially and emotionally, and inspiring

and motivating members to work towards and live up to a collective vision anchored in a common identity.

10.1. Types of Leadership

Various types of leadership styles have been identified for leaders in social situations as well as in management settings. All these styles of their own strengths and weaknesses and also depend upon situational factors or environment of an organization.

- J Authentic Leadership: - It emphasizes on the agreement of the leader as the forbearer of helpful interrelationships. Authenticity involves genuineness and not just playing an assigned role, it is free of any kind of manipulation. It is one of the most recently developed types of leadership that might be a result of blind race for profit and individual gains with limited perspective for better future.
- J Autocratic leadership: - One of the oldest and most talked about leadership style involve a leader having total control on working of an organization or total control on people under him/her. Such a leader holds elevated level of power and mastery and enforces its decisions and wishes on others. Autocratic leadership is beneficial in situations where a high level of regulation is needed. However, leaders following this style often lead to reduction in levels of determination of employees as their say is not considered of any value while making decisions about their work and lives and most of the times employees do not prefer such leaders.
- J Laissez-Faire Leadership: -Such leaders of ample of faith in their workers and are self-assured of their capabilities as leader. They provide direction and share accountability when necessary, but give employees/ subordinates full authority to make their own way. This type of leadership is recommended and helpful where little regulation is required. However, it might result in bad service and failure to meet deadlines, lack of control, and poor production if the subordinates do not perform their work sincerely.
- J Bureaucratic Leadership: - Leader who follows this type of leadership has faith in established structures and procedures and also makes sure that the employees comply by those procedures. Such leaders do not allow exploration and perform all activities by the book. This leadership style can be found in organizations where huge amount of money is invested and in public organizations to decrease exploitation and increase safety. Highly motivated and energetic individuals mostly get frustrated under such leaderships, as it is not able to adjust to altering environments.
- J Democratic Leadership: -This style is also called participative leadership. Leaders who follow this style works in partnership with the employees, that is, employees are consulted before making any decision and their inputs are respected in the decision making process. It is easier to take employees in board regarding any change in organizations under such leadership as employees agree to changes effortlessly since they had themselves performed a role in the process. Such leadership is needed for non-routine or unstructured tasks, as relationships there are non-authoritarian and the subordinates have internal locus of control.
- J Directive Leadership: -Such leader's works as a guide to give instructions on what needs to be achieved, how it should be achieved, creating and maintaining schedules and levels of performance. Such leadership style is successful where subordinates do not have much experience in the field, need more clarity regarding working of organisation, or have negligible need for achievement. It also is effective in situations where tasks are disorganized or employees do not have cordial interpersonal relationships.
- J Manipulative Type: Under this type of leadership, employees are manipulated by the leader to accomplish their own private goals. Nonetheless, such leadership style cannot go on for long periods as individuals cannot be subjugated on a regular and sustainable basis. When the employees develop awareness of leader's manipulations, bitterness and anger towards the leader and organisation starts brewing.
- J Supportive Leadership: - As the name implies leaders who follow this style are caring and open about the needs and desires of their employees. This leadership style is most effective when tasks are structured and organization works under bureaucratic and formal authority. These leaders always stand like rock with their employees, whether they are

dealing with any professional or personal issue. They try to fulfil all legitimate requests of the employees which in turn will boost their morale.

- J Achievement-oriented Leadership: - Leaders who follow this style always motivate others to put their best foot forward in every endeavour. They motivate others to set exciting goals, highlight quality, and show confidence in the abilities of their employees. Such leadership works best in situations where tasks are unstructured, and subordinates have high need for achievement.
- J Charismatic Type: Max Weber is often credited for using 'charisma' in terms of leadership style. According to him, "charisma is applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he/she is set apart from ordinary men and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, exceptional powers or qualities". Charismatic leaders are believed to have heavenly origin and the acknowledgement of this charisma by followers is dependent on showing of continuous proof of the same which leads to, increase in devotion and interest of followers. Durbin (2001) classified Charismatic leaders into five types:-
 - Socialized Charismatics: These leaders utilize the power that they have been given to them for the advantage of others and not to fulfil any personal agendas. These leaders make and follow goals that will result in group members accomplishing their needs and also provide intellectual inspiration to them. Followers of such leaders are self-sufficient, empowered and accountable.
 - Personalized Charismatics: Such leaders use the powers for fulfilment of personal goals and work for fulfilment of their own interests, up to certain extent. These leaders work only self-goals and they help group members only when it suits their own goal fulfilment. Such leaders have compliant, docile and dependent followers.
 - Office-holder Charismatics: Such leaders are charismatic only by the virtue of the office or responsibility they have and not due to their personal characteristics. By holding an important position, they achieve higher status.
 - Personal Charismatics: These leaders usually are viewed in very high regard due to the faith people have in them. The influence of such a leader is not dependent upon the status or position he/she holds. They impact their followers because of their personal characteristics are able to influence the followers, through their true qualities, actions and individualities.
 - Divine Charismatics: In history, divine charismatic has been considered the most significant type of charismatic leader. They are believed to have to have heavenly elegance and they are regarded as charming rescuer, who can save people from any disaster.



Identify the type of leader you are.

10.2. Social Identity and Leadership

Leadership can be viewed as an association through which certain individuals manage to encourage other people to embrace fresh principles, attitudes, and objectives and also to put energy into quest for these principles, attitudes, and objectives. The relationship is practically constantly organized by and function within the limits of a group. The group can be small in size like a team, have medium size such as an institute, or may be large in size such as a country. Efficient leadership motivates other individuals to accept group membership along with its principles, attitudes, and objectives and to act in ways that help the collectiveness of group. Such leaders have the ability to convert distinct actions into group action. Therefore, leadership serves a crucial function of keeping the group identity intact. Individuals expect the leaders to convey and exemplify their identity, to elucidate and emphasize their identity, to mold and reshape their identity, and to unite their identity.

Leadership is an essential characteristic of social groups. One cannot ponder about group without noticing who in-charge of managing it is, and if they are well managed or not. Even if, a group is

officially leaderless and seems so from a distance, a tacit leadership can be found, if one goes deep into understanding of its functioning. Looking at the universality and prominence of leadership in group life, it is strange that frequently, leadership is not included as a central characteristic while studying group processes and similarly group processes are also not often studied while studying leadership (Chemers, 2001), also it is rare that identity function of leadership is given much importance. However, in recent times, Social identity theory of leadership has addressed these issues. Determinedly grounded in the social identity approach, the social identity theory of leadership has strengthened a substantial quantity of novel leadership research in social psychology which has kept role of group membership and social identity in the center. The dominant view is that more strongly the individuals identify with a group, the more attention they will give to the group prototype. They will also be concerned with whom and what is extra prototypical—it is due to the reason that prototype describes the group's membership characteristics. In these remarkable group settings being perceived as extremely prototypical makes one more significant.

Different numbers of process associated with social identity make this happen. First, prototypical members are typical representations of attributes of a group and due to this they serve as a foundation instead of being target of conformity processes. Other group members work to align their own actions with these individuals (e.g., Turner, 1991). Next, the likeness of prototypical members is dependent upon group membership (an impersonal social attraction), and as mostly the group agrees on the prototype, the leader is liked by the members they are consensually popular in the group (Hogg, 1993). This process aids power (we are more likely to comply with requests from people we like) and at the same time emphasizes the differential status between leader and followers. Third, for leaders who are prototypical group is extremely vital and necessary for their self-definition and so they have more robust identification with the group. Their investment in group is high and this makes their behavior more aligned to group-serving ways. They exemplify norms of the group very particularly and there are higher chances of them favoring group over outgroups, and giving just treatment to members of ingroup and usually are focused on promoting the ingroup. These actions approve their prototypicality and membership authorizations and inspire group members to believe that they will behave in best interest of the group even if there is no evidence of them doing so—they enjoy undisputed legitimacy. One significant outcome of this is that innovation becomes viable for prototypical leaders as they can, unexpectedly, deviate from group's rules and customs and can don't have to be as conformist as non-prototypical leaders. Innovation is, certainly, an important constituent of efficient leadership as it permits a leader to alter the group and keep it safe from the stormy waters of change.

This scrutiny of the ways due to which prototypical leaders can be inventive defines the procedures that maintain the earlier defined idea that to be productive a leader in earlier stages should conform to group norms to earn "idiosyncrasy credits" so that later, they can deviate from those norms in order to be inventive. Since the prototype is so vital for group, information related to the prototype is figural against the background of other information in the group. A prototypical leader is perhaps the greatest straight foundation of prototype information, and therefore is figural against the background of the group. Members follow the leader minutely and like other spheres of social perception and inference, find the unchangeable or indispensable characteristics of leader's personality as the reason behind their behaviors i.e. followers employ fundamental attribution (Malone, 1995), or essentialism (Haslam et al., 1998). This procedure freely builds a charismatic leadership personality, as the actions that are being internally attributed involves being the foundation of impact, being able to get submission from followers, being popular, enjoying higher standing, being inventive, and being trustworthy. This is how charisma impacts leadership (cf. transformational leadership), but charisma is not some fixed trait that the leader brings but is built up by group processes itself. However, across situations the building up of charisma does ease active and inventive leadership for a prototypical leader.

Leadership that depends on social identity processes provides a leader with substantial power to preserve his or her position of leadership. Since these leaders have charisma, status, power etc. they prove to be super-efficient prototype managers. Mostly by using communication and talk they had the ability to create, recreate, or modify the group prototype in manner that can guard or encourage their extremely prototypical fundamental place in the group—this process is known as norm talk (Hogg & Tindale, 2005; see also Fiol, 2002; Gardner, Paulsen, Gallois, Callan, & Monaghan, 2001; Reid & Ng, 2000). Undeniably, one of the main characteristics of an efficacious leader is exactly this idealistic and transformational action. Specifically, prototypical leaders may highlight their prototypical points while downplaying the non-prototypical aspects of the behavior. They can identify deviants or marginal members to highlight their own prototypicality or to construct a particular prototype for the group that enhances their own prototypicality. They can use non-

prototypicality to vilify others and solidify their own position as a leader. They through appropriate comparison can recognize those outgroups that goes well with their own prototypicality – it means those outgroups that can let them to manipulate prototype and prototypicality through manipulation of the social comparative frame. They can involve in a dialogue that increases or depresses salience—raising salience will prove to be helpful if one is highly salient and lowering salience will prove to be beneficial if one is less prototypical. Research suggests that all these processes are used by leaders to manage their prototypicality (e.g., Reicher & Hopkins, 1996, 2001, 2003). Usually, leaders who perceive themselves as not being prototypical, deliberately engage in a variety of group-oriented behaviors to toughen their membership authorizations. An important aspect of social identity theory of leaderships that the processes of this theory happen only or more powerfully in groups with which members identify more powerfully. With the weakening of group salience or identification with group, processes of social identity leadership also weakens and leadership does not base much on group prototypicality but on supplementary factors like leadership schemas. The social identity view of leadership is a new idea in the field of leadership but has so far attracted considerable experimental backing from laboratory experiments, surveys and naturalistic studies.



Jot down the characteristics you admire in your favorite social reformist leader.

10.3. Trust and Leadership

Trust is a vital feature of the notion of leadership. Due to rising apprehensions about corporate corruption and distrust of business and government leaders it has become even more crucial to focus on the aspect of trust. Absence of trust in leadership have huge impact and may have grave consequence – as if one is following other individual he/she must be certain that the leader has their best interests in mind and is not functioning only to serve himself/herself. The idea that trust of followers in leadership is necessary for leaders to engage in diverse behaviors that allow innovative decision making has been prominent since ages. Current social psychological research on trust and leadership takes a group-oriented approach and emphasizes on perceptions of justice and fairness (the leader can be trusted to be just and fair?) and is commonly or more precisely conversant by the social identity perspective.

Justice and Fairness: - One of the important doctrines of Tyler's group value model (Lind & Tyler, 1988) and his relational model of authority in groups is that fairness and justice perceptions are critical to group life. Since leaders are in the position to take decisions that heavily impacts the lives of others (such as decisions regarding promotions, performance appraisals, and allocation of duties), people worry about the fairness of leaders in making decisions. Followers takes into consideration both distributive justice (that is focusing on the fairness of outcomes of the leader's decisions) and procedural justice (focused on procedures used to make a decisions) while judging fairness of leaders. Judgments regarding leader's justice and fairness impacts leadership effectiveness as it have huge impact on reaction to decisions and to the leaders themselves. Social identity perspective also comes into play in terms of perceptions of justice and especially in the way procedural justice is perceived. Procedural justice can be viewed as a function of because just processes deliver a satisfactory social assessment of followers as group members – the admiration for members of groups channeled by procedural justice shapes member identification and therefore makes cooperative and compliant behavior approachable. Studies have found that as members identify more powerfully with the group they also care more strongly that the leader is procedurally fair (Brockner, Chen, Mannix, Leung, & Skarlicki, 2000), and care less powerfully that the leader is distributively fair. The reason for this asymmetry is that by increasing identification, distributive justice becomes less important to procedural justice.

Social Dilemmas: - The certainty that perception of justice, mainly procedural justice, may smoothen effective leadership as it shapes trust and reinforces group identification increases the likelihood that leadership may become a method to sort out social dilemmas. Social dilemmas are fundamentally a calamity of trust – individuals act selfishly as there is lack of trust in the belief that someone can sacrifice a certain immediate self-interest for the long-term greater good of the collective (Dawes & Messick, 2000). Social dilemmas are especially hard to fix (Kerr & Park, 2001). Nevertheless, it is possible to fix them if the trust issues are addressed. One comparatively effective way is to form mutual trust among individuals by making them to recognize sturdily as a group – persons are inclined to have more trust in in-group members

(Yamagishi&Kiyonari, 2000), and in such situations they are more likely to sacrifice self-interest for the good of all (De Cremer & van Vugt, 1999). One disadvantage to this is that shared in-group trust and collaboration are characteristically balanced by intergroup distrust and competition – the interpersonal dilemma may be transformed into a destructive intergroup dilemma. Nonetheless, creating a trustful environment for in-group is an important method of social dilemma resolution. Leadership, frequently, plays an important role in this procedure basically as a leader can convert selfish separate objectives into common group objectives by creating a sense of common identity, common destiny, trust between individuals, and guardianship of the shared good (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2003).



*American Psychological Association organizes Division Leadership Conference (DLC) to train the **division presidents-elect** for working with boards and committees, knowing and understanding APA procedures, handling membership and legal concerns, networking with APA staff and directors and promoting collaborative, cross-divisional projects.*

10.4. Gender and Leadership

Men dominate the leadership roles, all across the globe. Even if one talks about the rather liberal democracies like the United States which has focused highly on developing broad-minded gender attitudes for almost 40 years now, still the women are highly underrepresented in senior management and elite positions, even if the middle management has attained better representation. This phenomenon is termed as “glass ceiling”. It was long propagated that the reason behind this is that men and women vary in conducts that makes men more suitable for leadership positions. However, research supports no such notion. Though women and men might have dissimilar leadership styles, women are typically graded as just as efficient leaders as men. Generally, women are perceived to be somewhat more transformative, cooperative, and involved in conditional reward actions (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, van Engen, & Vinkenburg, 2002).

An important question, thus arises that if women and men are equally capable of being effective leaders, why is there a gender gap in leadership? One answer is put forth by role incongruity theory, according to which it is due to the larger intersection between universal leader schemas and male stereotypes due to which people have more promising views about male leaders as compared to female leaders. Such views aid or obstruct efficient leadership. The theory states that assessment of male and female leaders will modify either by altering leadership schema or gender stereotypes. For instance, studies have found that men are appraised more positively than women when leadership role is described in more masculine terms, and vice versa as compared to the role being described in less masculine terms (Eagly et al., 1995). Another perspective namely social identity analysis states that in groups having high-salience, male or female leaders are viewed in the same way and are truly functional if there is consistency between group’s norms and members’ gender stereotypes. Therefore, individuals with conventional gender stereotypes will approve a man not a woman for leadership position of a group with instrumental norms and approve of female rather than a male leader for a group which has expressive norms, while individuals with less conventional gender stereotypes this phenomenon may not be so noticeable and may also be upturned (Hogg et al., 2006). According to Bowles and McGinn (2005) the gender gap in leadership positions can also be due to the fact that women assert and demand authority less effectively than men; however this does not lead to any distinction between efficiency of leadership of men or women leaders once they attain authority. Bowles and McGinn have put forth four chief blockades to women demanding authority. The first one is previously discussed, effective role incongruity. Next is critical management experience followed by familial responsibilities that limit a woman’s capability to adjust time commitment needed for leadership positions. The fourth hindrance is deficiency of motivation – women are simply not as “hungry” for leadership positions as are men. They are reluctant to indulge in self-promotion and remain restricted to less noticeable background roles with informal titles like “facilitator” or “coordinator.” Even though the connection is not very clear, it is likely that the fundamental reason for women’s restraint to claim authority is stereotype threat (Steele, Spencer, & Aronson, 2002) – women get scared that stereotypes about gender and leadership might prove to be true, and therefore they hesitate to take on leadership positions. Moreover, self-promotion and claiming leadership positions are non-female-stereotypical behaviors that can be viewed as “pushy” and can entice destructive responses from majority of group members (Rudman & Glick, 1999).



Prepare profiles of women CEOs of Fortune 500 companies

10.5. Intergroup Leadership

Leadership is classically understood as happening under circumstances a formal group membership is shared by leaders and followers (like a President leads the members of the organization, the team leader leads the members of the team and so on) and other group memberships do are not included or have very little importance for the leadership situation, or are simply viewed as annoyance factors. Nevertheless, in many situations leaders need to influence the cooperative attempts of various formal groups within organizations (such as interdepartmental cooperation), as well as between organizations (such as joint ventures). Progressively, intergroup situations can go beyond national, racial, cultural, and religious a boundary, which poses additional trials to efficacious intergroup associations. However, such associations, by no means mean that diverse group memberships can be restrained or overlooked—these group memberships are the purpose for which organizational and leadership efforts are actually made. Certainly, efficient intergroup leadership is a prerequisite to understand the possible advantages of intergroup association and to avert unsettling struggles between groups.

Intergroup leadership refers to leadership of collaborative efforts of more than one formal group or organization toward a joint goal, in which the purpose of the collaboration relies on the presence of these groups or organizations. The efficiency of intergroup leadership can be understood in expressions of cooperative intergroup performance. Intergroup performance can be viewed as collective presentation of two or more formal organizational groups (or organizations) on tasks that necessitate such concentrated efforts of both or all groups. Functional intergroup leadership is thus specified by positive intergroup performance of the cooperative association directed by the leadership—like individual or group performance is characteristically viewed as the main indicator of interpersonal or intragroup leadership effectiveness (Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008). Intergroup performance, and henceforth intergroup leadership effectiveness, is understood in terms of behavioral outcomes, not in terms of group member psychological states or subjective experiences, as sometimes also is the case in research on leadership effectiveness—it is understood as the objectively identifiable product of intergroup collaboration.

Intergroup leadership is not generally acknowledged as a field of or task for leadership, possibly replicating the more universal inclination in management research to oversee the importance of intergroup relations (Richter et al., 2006). When one starts to view from the perspective of intergroup leadership, though, it becomes easy to recognize different circumstances that may need intergroup leadership—organizations such as school, hospital, and press and alike. Either they are called workgroups, teams, departments, business units, or something else, such groups are the elementary building blocks of organizations. In several ways, organizations are groupings of interrelated groups rather than being collections of separate individuals. Likewise, efficacious coordination and cooperation between such organizational units is important for organizational functioning. Excellent organizational accomplishments need partnership between organizational groups (Brett & Rognes, 1986). Nevertheless, efficacious and fruitful intergroup collaboration is not self-evident. For example, organizational groups may contend for rare organizational resources or highlight different characteristics of the cooperative enterprise (such as making a sale versus meeting production targets in sales-production coordination efforts). Issues like these between organizational groups can make groups to put emphasis on their own self-interest and implement a competitive posture against other organizational groups, to the clear disadvantage of effective intergroup collaboration and overall organizational functioning (Kramer, 1991). Now, there lies a test for organizational leadership: effective intergroup leadership can convert subgroup self-interest and harmful competition between groups into teamwork and assistance that enhance intergroup performance. Like organizational groups do not work alone, neither do organizations do so. Organizations often cooperate and collaborate in quest of anticipated conclusions. Intergroup leadership tests also thrive in such collaborations between organizations (Crosby & Bryson, 2010). For example, Hambrick and colleagues have drawn the ways through which international joint ventures and intergroup tensions between the different organizations, or representatives acting on behalf of the organizations, may appear (Li & Hambrick, 2005). Efficiently dealing with these tensions seems important for triumph of such joint ventures.



To capture how groups may define their identity in terms of their relationship with another group, Hogg, Knippenberg & Rast have proposed the concept of intergroup relational identity.

10.6. Summary

Social psychologists assume that leaders are group members who: exert more influence than others; tend to be seen as more trustworthy, prestigious, valued, credible and fair; and who play the most important role in the group in terms of directing it towards its goals, holding the group together socially and emotionally, and inspiring and motivating members to work towards and live up to a collective vision anchored in a common identity.

Various types of leadership styles have been identified for leaders in social situations as well as in management settings. All these styles of their own strengths and weaknesses and also depend upon situational factors or environment of an organization.

Leadership is an essential characteristic of social groups. One cannot ponder about group without noticing who in-charge of managing it is, and if they are well managed or not. Even if, a group is officially leaderless and seems so from a distance, a tacit leadership can be found, if one goes deep into understanding of its functioning.

Leadership that depends on social identity processes provides a leader with substantial power to preserve his or her position of leadership. Since these leaders have charisma, status, power etc. they prove to be super-efficient prototype managers.

Trust is a vital feature of the notion of leadership. Current social psychological research on trust and leadership takes a group-oriented approach and emphasizes on perceptions of justice and fairness (the leader can be trusted to be just and fair?) and is commonly or more precisely conversant by the social identity perspective.

Men dominate the leadership roles, all across the globe. This phenomenon is termed as “glass ceiling”.

Intergroup leadership refers to leadership of collaborative efforts of more than one formal group or organization toward a joint goal, in which the purpose of the collaboration relies on the presence of these groups or organizations.

10.7. Key Words

Leadership: Leadership is the process of influencing others in a manner that enhances their contribution to the realization of group goals.

Laissez Faire: Physiological needs are the basic needs for survival these needs include, food, water shelter, sex and sleep.

Social Identity Theory: - According to the social identity theory of leadership, a key function of leadership is to forge, transform, and consolidate one’s identity as a group member – one’s social identity.

Intergroup Leadership: Organism is the locus of all experience, including everything potentially available to awareness, at any given moment.

10.8. Self-Assessment

1. Leaders of this type hold elevated level of power and mastery and enforce its decisions and wishes on others.
 - a. Authentic Leadership
 - b. Democratic Leadership
 - c. Autocratic Leadership
 - d. Laissez-Faire Leadership
2. What is true of Laissez-Faire leaders
 - a. have ample of faith in their workers
 - b. are self-assured of their capabilities as leader
 - c. share accountability when necessary
 - d. all of these

3. Who used 'charisma' in terms of leadership style
 - a. Max Weber
 - b. Abraham Maslow
 - c. Henri Fayol
 - d. None of these
4. Leaders following this style have faith in established structures and procedures and also make sure that the employees comply by those procedures.
 - a. Laissez-Faire Leadership
 - b. Democratic Leadership
 - c. Authentic Leadership
 - d. Bureaucratic Leadership
5. Which of the following are characteristics of Personal Charismatic leaders
 - a. employees are manipulated to accomplish their own private goals
 - b. do not allow exploration
 - c. holds elevated level of power and mastery
 - d. none of these
6. Leadership serves a crucial function of keeping the in-group favoritism intact.
 - a. True
 - b. False
7. Women are highly underrepresented in senior management and elite positions, is a explained by the term
 - a. Glass Breaking Effect
 - b. Glass Ground Effect
 - c. Glass Ceiling Effect
 - d. Glass Stairs Effect
8. Current social psychological research on trust and leadership takes a group-oriented approach and emphasizes on perceptions of justice and fairness.
 - a. True
 - b. False
9. The group value model is developed by
 - a. T.R. Tyler
 - b. T.R. Lind
 - c. T.Y. Smith
 - d. T.H. Blader
10. _____ can be viewed as collective presentation of two or more formal organizational groups on tasks that necessitate concentrated efforts of both or all groups.
 - a. Participative Performance
 - b. Inter-group Performance
 - c. Inter-group Participation
 - d. Participative Leadership
11. _____ is fundamentally a calamity of trust
 - a. Social Dilemmas
 - b. Organizational Dilemmas
 - c. Leadership Dilemmas
 - d. Group Dilemmas
12. The efficiency of intergroup leadership can be understood in expressions of _____

-
- a. competitive intergroup performance
 - b. Cooperative intragroup performance
 - c. competitive intergroup performance
 - d. cooperative intergroup performance
13. Group performance is characteristically viewed as the main indicator of interpersonal or intragroup leadership effectiveness.
- a. True
 - b. False
14. Witch theory explains that inequality in gender in leadership is due to larger intersection between universal leader schemas and male stereotypes.
- a. role congruity theory
 - b. role incongruity theory
 - c. leadership incongruity theory
 - d. gender incongruity theory
15. Procedural justice focuses on procedures used to make decisions in an organization.
- a. True
 - b. False

Answers				
1	2	3	4	5
c	d	a	d	d
6	7	8	9	10
b	d	a	a	b
11	12	13	14	15
a	d	a	b	a

10.9. Review Questions

1. Discuss the various types of leadership styles.
2. How does social identify impacts leadership?
3. What are various hindrances in achieving gender equality in leadership?
4. What role do social dilemmas play in trust and leadership?
5. Discuss inter-group leadership in detail.

Further Readings



Baumeister, R.F., &Finkel, E.J. Advanced Social Psychology: The State of the Science. Oxford University Press. 2010

UNIT 11: Symbolic Communication

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11.2.4. Proxemics

11.2.5. Chronemics

11.3 Combining Non-Verbal and Verbal Communication

11.4 Summary

11.5 Keywords

11.6 Self-Assessment/Evaluation

11.7 Review Questions

Further Readings

Objectives

This unit will

Explain non-verbal communication

Delineate various functions of non-verbal communication

Describe various types of non-verbal communication

Discuss the implications of combining verbal and non-verbal communication

Introduction

The need and capability to communicate our desires and wishes is one of life's primitive activities. Communication refers to exchange of information between two or more individuals where one is the sender and other is the receiver of that information. It is a two-way process where sender and receiver both are essential for communication to occur. Communication can only be effective, if the message being communicated is understood by both the sender and receiver and they both are aware of the method through which communication is happening. Nevertheless, such communication is not the sole way to convey a message, a baby's cry being the best example. Different types of communication methods and systems are present that are suitable for those who have visual and other disabilities. They include signs, gestures, using objects, symbols, pictures or technological devices. Symbolic Communication refers to communication that involves a shared message between the sender and the receiver. Examples of symbolic communication include speech, sign language, writing (print or braille), picture communication systems, and tactile communication systems.

11.1 Non-Verbal Communication

Nonverbal communication refers to a process in which meaning is generated through behavior without the use of words. Instead of thinking that nonverbal communication is in contradiction to or is different from verbal communication, the correct way is to see them as aspects of same system that work together. However, even being the part of system they are not without their differences, which also include the ways in which they are processed by brain. Vocal and non-vocal elements are included in both these types of communications. Spoken words are the vocal component of verbal communication such as "Come sit here." On the other hand, paralanguage is the vocal component of nonverbal communication; it refers to those aspects of spoken words which are not verbal aspects like speaking rate, volume, and pitch. Non-vocal elements of verbal communication include the use of unspoken symbols to convey meaning. Writing and American Sign Language (ASL) are non-vocal examples of verbal communication and are not considered nonverbal communication. Non-vocal elements of nonverbal communication include body language such as gestures, facial expressions, and eye contact. Gestures are non-vocal and nonverbal since most of them do not refer to a specific word like a written or signed symbol does.

11.1.1 Conveys Meaning

Nonverbal communication delivers message by strengthening, replacing, or contradicting verbal communication. As mentioned previously, verbal and nonverbal communication belongs to same system and mostly work side by side to enable individuals to create meaning in their conversations. As far as strengthening of verbal communication is concerned, gestures aid communication by describing a space or shape that is not known to another individual in a manner that words cannot do. At times, basic meaning in communication also gets reinforced by Gestures-like, pointing to the chair when one asks other to sit. Similarly, Facial expressions support the emotional states that are conveyed via verbal communication. For instance, smiling while describing an experience expresses the emotions associated with it. Vocal variation can help individuals to highlight a specific portion of a message, which again aids in reinforcement of meaning of a word or sentence. For instance the same sentence "How was the trip?" can convey different meanings in the way it is spoken.

Another important way in which Nonverbal communication proves to be useful in situations where verbal communication can be troubling is when communication has to happen in quiet; for example, you can ask with gesture from a friend to leave a library. Places filled with crowd and loud voices are another such place where nonverbal messages prove beneficial. For instance calling a waiter or bartender attention with a hand gesture is certainly more courteous instead of yelling at them. Further, sometimes one just knows that it is best not to say things aloud. Such as if one has to point out someone's strange dress or tell to a friend that they do not like his/her date, it is best to convey these messages nonverbally. Lastly, nonverbal communication can convey meaning by contradicting verbal communication. As mentioned earlier, nonverbal communication is perceived to be more credible than verbal communication. This especially happens if the received message has mixed meanings, verbal and nonverbal signals contradict in the message. Like, an individual may say, "You can't get anything done!" in a nasty manner but follow it with a wink, which conveys that it was said as a joke or tease. Mixed messages lead to uncertainty and confusion on the part of receivers, because of this individual may try to look for some additional information to determine the trustworthiness of the received messages. If this discrepancy remains unresolved, one might respond to the interaction in a negative way and possibly might even draw away from the

interaction. Continuous mixed messages can result in distress in relationships and can upset an individual's reliability in professional situations.



Our personal presentation, style of dress, and surroundings such as a dorm room, apartment, car, or office send nonverbal messages about our identities. Analyze some of the nonverbal signals that your personal presentation or environment send. What do they say about who you are? Do they create the impression that you desire?

11.1.2 Nonverbal communication is useful in influencing people in diverse ways; however the most commonly used way is through deception. Deception can be defined as the deliberate action of changing information so that another individual gets influenced by it. It goes past deceit and lies and contains hiding, ignoring, or amplifying information. Although verbal communication can be blamed for the content that deception has, nonverbal communication associates with the verbal aspect to make deception more convincing. Generally, it is believed that nonverbal communication has more credibility than verbal communication; therefore, people repeatedly deliberately work on controlling nonverbal communication when they are performing deceptive acts. Similarly, people assess nonverbal communication of others to ascertain the genuineness of their communications. It is important to remember that deception is not malicious, nasty, or upsetting, all the time. Deception clearly has hostile implications; however, individuals carry on deception for numerous reasons, comprising the need to excuse one's own faults, to show politeness towards other individuals, or to impact behaviors or perceptions of others. The fact that deception served an important evolutionary purpose helps explain its prevalence among humans today. Species that are skillful in deception have better survival rates. Like humans, other animals also make use of nonverbal deception that aids them in various ways such as for attracting mates, hiding from predators, and to trap prey. The blunt yet important point is as much better a creature is at deception, more chances are there of his survival. Therefore, over the period of time in evolution, those humans who were good at deception were able to pass their genes to next generations. But the fact that deception was a crucial part in our survival does not make it the only truth of human existence.

11.1.3 Regulates Conversational Flow

Conversational interaction can be viewed in terms of a dance, like in dance, each person makes moves and takes turns making sure not to step on other's toes. Nonverbal communication acts as a helpful tool by regulation of conversations and ensures that one does not continually interrupt the other individual or wait in awkward quietness between continuous conversations. Pitch, an important aspect of vocalics, assists us in signaling other people into our conversational intents. Mostly, a rise in pitch signals a question and a fall in pitch refers to the conclusion of a thought or a conversational turn. Fall in pitch can also be used to specify closure; this can prove very beneficial when used at the end of a speech as it will indicate to others that the speaker has completed the conversation. This in turn can work as a cue for others to applaud leading to prevention of awkward silence and saving speaker from saying phrases like "That's it" or "Thank you." One can also indicate that the conversation is coming to an end by discontinuing hand gestures and shifting eye contact towards the individual who has to speak next. Contrarily, non-verbal signals can help an individual to "hold the floor" even though one is not certain about what to speak about next. Repeating a hand gesture or utilizing one or more verbal fillers can expand our turn indeed in spite of the fact that we are not verbally communicating at the time.

11.1.4 Affects Relationships

Possessing certain skill at encoding and decoding nonverbal communication is a must if one wants to be successful at relating with other individuals. Interpersonal relationships get affected by verbal and non-verbal messages we exchange with others. The effect can be negative and positive and thus can either bring people close or push them apart. Nonverbal communication in the form of tie symbols, immediacy behaviors, and communication of feelings through expression are some of the numerous examples that show the way nonverbal communication has effect on interpersonal relationships. Tie symbols or signs refer to nonverbal prompts that converse intimacy and indicate the association between two people. These pointers of relationship can be in the form of items or things that symbolize another individual or the relationship. These can be things like wedding rings or tattoos that symbolize the person or the relationship itself, or actions like eating from the same plate or behaviors involving touch like holding hands. Touch behaviors are the regularly studied tie signs and can converse a lot about the relationship depending upon the part being touched, time of touch and its intensity. For example, hugs and kisses both are included under tie signs, but a kiss on the cheek and on mouth are different and so are full embrace and

halfembrace. Immediacy behaviors play an essential part in getting individuals organized and have been recognized by certain researchers as the most significant task of nonverbal communication. Immediacy behaviors refers to both verbal and nonverbal behaviors that decrease actual or alleged bodily and mental space between conversationalists and contain stuff like smile, nod, eye contact, and sometimes engaging in social, civil, or professional touch. These behaviors help in building rapport, or a pleasant and friendly association between individuals. Individuals who are good at nonverbal communicators have higher chances of creating rapport with others due to attention-getting expressiveness, warm initial greetings, and an ability to get “in tune” with others, which conveys empathy. Although verbal communication is our chief instrument for resolving problems and giving thorough directives, nonverbal communication is our main apparatus for communicating emotions.



Take note of the various tie signs you see people use and what they might say about the relationship.

11.1.5 Expresses Identity

Through Nonverbal communication we express who we are. Our identities gets conveyed nonverbally by the ways we fix our living and working places, through our, through our mannerisms, through the accents and tones of our voices. Other individuals attain impressions of our selves through our physical bodies some of which we can control and some that we cannot control. Level of attractiveness is one such physical attribute that influences an individual’s identity and the way he is perceived by others. Apart from one’s body, artifacts, that are the objects and possessions, one has around are also crucial communicators of one’s identities. Clothes, jewelry, and space decorations are some of the examples of artifacts. However, the manner in which one non-verbally presents one self can be affected by implicit norms or explicit rules of social world. Like, an office can have a norm (implicit) for individuals in administration to wear casual dresses, or it may be an instruction (explicit) that employees working at different levels should wear different uniforms. Nonverbal communication can also be used to express characteristics of identity that fail to complement our self-image.

11.2 Types of Non-Verbal Communication

There are various types of non-verbal communication that we all knowingly or unknowingly use in our everyday communications. This section will be focused on discussing these types in detail.

11.2.1. Kinesics

The word kinesics comes from the root word *kinesis*, which means “movement,” and refers to the study of hand, arm, body, and face movements. Specifically, this section will outline the use of gestures, head movements and posture, eye contact, and facial expressions as nonverbal communication.

11.2.1.1. Gestures

There are three main types of gestures: adaptors, emblems, and illustrators (Andersen, 1999). Adaptors refer to behaviors and activities that involve touch and specify inner states characteristically linked to arousal or anxiety. Adaptors can be directed at the self, objects, or others. In consistent public situations, adaptors are result of restlessness, apprehension, or an overall feeling that surroundings are beyond our control. Lots of people have habit of subconsciously clicking pens, shaking legs, or engage in other adaptors as a mean to put excess energy in to some use.

Emblems are gestures that have a specific agreed-on meaning. A hitchhiker’s raised thumb, the “OK” sign with thumb and index finger connected in a circle with the other three fingers sticking up, and the raised middle finger are all examples of emblems that have an agreed-on meaning or meanings with a culture.

Illustrators are the most used type of gesture and are used to demonstrate the verbal message they supplement. Like, people often make use of hand gestures as an indication of size or shape of an object. Contrasting emblems, illustrators do not usually have meaning on their own and are used more subconsciously than emblems. These mainly unintentional and apparently natural gestures flow as we speak but differ in terms of intensity and frequency based on context. Though no one teaches us to use these illustrative gestures, we somehow automatically acquire them.

11.2.1.2 Head Movements and Postures

Head movements and posture are mentioned together as they both are mostly used to acknowledge others and communicate interest or attentiveness. If one talk about head movements, a head nod is an accepted sign of acknowledgement specifically in cultures that no longer use the formal bow as a salutation. In these cultures, the head nod basically works as an abbreviated bow. A back and forth headshake is an inborn and worldwide gesture that signals “no.” Even a baby makes this non-verbal signal even if he/she is not aware of the corresponding meaning of it. They use this signal first to discard their mother’s breast and later use it in an attempt to discard to spoon-feed (Pease & Pease, 2004). This biologically based movement then sticks with us to be a recognizable signal for “no.” People also move our head to show interest. There are four general human postures: standing, sitting, squatting, and lying down (Hargie, 2011). Within each of these postures there are numerous varieties, and when combined with specific gestures or other nonverbal prompts they can express numerous diverse implications.



A head tilt indicates interest and is an innate submission gesture that makes people feel more trusting of us.

11.2.1.3. Eye Contact

Eye behaviors in general and eye contact in particular are an important way of communication for us. Eye behaviors have a separate division of nonverbal studies known as oculusics which has its roots in Latin word *oculus* that translates to ‘eye’, however, eye behaviors are also extensively studied under kinesics. At the time of communication, the face and eyes are the chief areas of focus, and most of the information that we receive happens through our eyes and ears only. There are numerous communicative functions served by our eyes.

They include regulation as well as monitoring of interaction, transmission of information, forming interpersonal connections. As far as regulation of communication is concerned, eye contact is used to signal others the readiness of an individual to speak. Eye contact also monitors interaction by absorbing non-verbal signals along with reactions of others and sending this information further. Eyes provide us with all the pictorial material that is necessary for interpretation of movements, gestures, and eye contact of others along with sending information to others.

Eye contact can also be used to intimidate others. We have social norms regarding the amount of eye contact we can make with others, and those norms change on the basis of setting and the individual. For instance staring at someone could communicate intimidation in some situations and flirtation in other situations. As mentioned earlier, eye contact is a type of immediacy behavior, and it cues our availability as well as disinterest for communication to others. In case the communication happens eye contact also helps to establish understanding or association.

11.2.1.4. Facial Expressions

Face holds the position of being the most communicative part of our bodies. Lots of research has aided the universal nature of a fundamental cluster of facial expressions: happiness, sadness, fear, anger, and disgust. The first four are particularly recognizable over cultures. Though, there is lot of culture diversity among triggers for these expressions and the cultural and social norms that impact their exhibitions. Even though facial expressions are naturally seen as inborn and a number of these are recognized universally, they are not every time associated to an emotional or inner biological stimulus; at times, they can essentially be more social in nature. Like, often the smiles we bring out are mainly made for others rather than being involuntary reflection of an inner emotional state. These social smiles, nevertheless, are marginally but noticeably dissimilar from more genuine smiles.



Arrange in descending order, which type of non-verbal communication you rely on in daily life

11.2.2. Haptics

Think of the power touch has to communicate emotions even when words at times fail to express them. This affirmative power of touch, however, is contradicted by the possibility of touch being threatening like in terms of violence. To understand the power of touch exclusive branch of haptics is present. It refers to the study of communication by touch. Most of the advice and lessons given on use of non-verbal communication are focused on touch. This is due to the reason that incompetence in nonverbal communication associated with touches, can not only result in destructive interpersonal consequences; but can also have more dreadful consequences, in terms of legal punishment. Inappropriate touch whether intentional or unintentional has punishments across legal systems. However, touch is essential for human social development.

11.2.3. Vocalics

Vocalics is the study of paralanguage, which includes the vocal qualities that go along with verbal messages, such as pitch, volume, rate, vocal quality, and verbal fillers (Andersen, 1999).

Pitch serves different purpose as it aids transferring meaning, normalizing flow of conversation and communicating a message's intensity. The pitch difference in messages is recognized even by babies. Recognizing such differences are seldom taught to any one, we all learn them through observation and practice. Paralanguage gives significant background for the verbal content of speech. Like, volume aids in communication of intensity. A louder voice is usually thought of as more intense, although a soft voice combined with a certain tone and facial expression can be just as intense. Speaking rate is another facet in vocalics. It refers to how fast or slow a person speaks. On the basis of this rate, people can make impressions about things like emotional state, trustworthiness, and intellect etc. Like in volume, changes in speaking rate can inhibit the capacity of others to obtain and comprehend verbal messages.



According to research conducted by Buller & Burgoon (1986) speaking a little faster than the normal 120–150 words a minute can be beneficial, as people tend to find speakers whose rate is above average more credible and intelligent.

11.2.4. Proxemics

Proxemics is the study of how space and distance influence communication. To understand the association that space, communication, and relationships shares, one only has to be aware of the ways in which space is used in common metaphors. Like, we remain “close” to someone, if we are comfortable with them and are attracted to them. If we do not have such connection with someone we will remain “distant”. Basically, space impacts the way in which individuals communicate and behave. Large number of people in a small spaces results in rupture of personal space bubbles. If such a scenario is anticipated earlier, such as at a fair or on a station at rush hour, several communicative adjustments are made to manage the space. But, unanticipated ruptures of personal space can draw negative reactions, particularly if one perceives the violation as voluntarily.

11.2.5. Chronemics

The study of how time affects communication is known as Chronemics. Biological, personal, physical, and cultural time is the groups into which time can be categorized. Biological time refers to the rhythms of living things. We all function on circadian rhythm, which are the daily cycle that impact time at which we will eat, sleep, and wake. When our natural rhythms are disturbed, by all-nighters, jet lag, or other scheduling abnormalities, our physical and mental health and our communication competence and personal relationships can suffer. Personal time is individual experience of time. This experience differs on the basis of our mood, interest level, and such other factors. The static cycles of days, years, and seasons is known as the physical time. Physical time, particularly seasons, has the capability of impacting our mood and psychological states. Cultural time refers to how a large group of people view time. Polychronic people have flexible schedules and can get involved in different activities at a time; they do not see time as a linear progression requiring scheduling and division into small units. Monochronic people, on the other hand, have more rigid time schedules and stick to doing one thing at a time. A polychronic or monochronic orientation to time influences our social realities and how we interact with others.

11.3 Combining Verbal and Non-Verbal Communication

Communication generally is a multichannel phenomenon. At times we do use certain limited communication channels like when one shouts at a stranger or indulges in formal conversation, he is only using verbal and paralinguistic channels. Similarly, if one waves at a friend while leaving their place, visual channel is solely being used. But most of the times, information is transported concurrently over verbal, paralinguistic, kinesic, and proxemic cues. What is achieved and what difficulties are instigated when diverse channels of communication are used in conjunction? The channels reinforce each other, if the information being conveyed is reliable which in turn increases the accuracy of communication. However, inconsistent information is delivered by different channels, confusion or even suspicion of deception may be produced by the given message. In this section, certain consequences of noticeable consistency and inconsistency among channels will be examined.

Reinforcement and Increased Accuracy

Mostly, multiple cues received by our senses seem useless, all conveying the same message. A smile along with a praise conveyed in a heartfelt tenor of voice; a glare supplements a fervently yelled risk. However multiple cues are rarely completely redundant, and should be viewed as being balancing (Poyatos, 1983). The smile and heartfelt tenor tells that the praise is genuine; the glare and fervently yell suggest that the risk will be conceded. Therefore, multiple cues deliver additional information, lessen vagueness, and escalate the accurateness of communication (Krauss, Morrel-Samuels, & Colasante, 1991).

If not used in conjunction with other channels, every channel does not have the capacity to bear the burden of all the messages that are conversed during the course of a conversation. The verbal features of language are not in themselves totally sufficient for conveying correct communication. Paralinguistic and kinesic cues complement verbal cues by supporting and accentuating them. A study by Grayson, (1980) put forth the significance of paralinguistic cues. The study was conducted on students and teachers of a Nigerian secondary school. Though these students studied English and were well versed with the verbal aspects of language they were not aware about the paralinguistic cues of native English speakers. Recordings with identical British content were played to the students. One recording had paralinguistic cues indicating speaker rebuffing the listener. Another recording had paralinguistic cues indicating apology from the speaker. Around 97 percent students did not perceive any difference in the meanings the speaker was conveying. Such a failure can prove to be catastrophic in daily conversations. Results show that precise interpretation needs both paralinguistic and verbal knowledge. Correctness in understanding actions is significantly improved if multiple communication cues are present as oppose to verbal information alone.

The worth of a full set of cues was established in another research in which students' interpreted various scenes (Archer & Akert, 1977). Various scenes involving social interaction were observed by students. The scenes were showed in a visual transmission or defined verbally in the form of transcript of the transmission. Therefore, either multichannel communication or verbal cues were given to the students. Later, students had to answer questions as to what was happening in each scene. The questions needed students to go beyond the apparent facts. Students who were exposed to full set of verbal and nonverbal cues were significantly extra precise in deducing social interactions. For example, 56 percent of students who were given access to multiple channels appropriately recognized women engaged in a conversation; as oppose to with only 17 percent of correct responses from the ones who were only given verbal cues. These outcomes clearly establish the improvement in precision from multichannel communication.

Resolving Inconsistency

Sometimes, there is inconsistency among the messages given by different channels. This creates problems in smooth communication and interaction. For instance, if your teacher welcomed you to class with kind words, a scowling face, and an angry tone of voice, what would be your reaction? You will be confused by this contradiction between the verbal and nonverbal cues given to you and might react with caution. You would want to understand the reason behind such confusing gesture, wanting to understand the real desires and feelings of the teacher. The plans persons practice to sort out outwardly inconsistent cues is contingent on their interpretations about the motives behind such inconsistency (Zuckerman et al., 1981). The cause of inconsistency can range from communicator's unsure emotional state (Mongrain & Vettes 2003), to poor communication skills, or intent to trick.

Lots of research has focused on comparing the relational importance we assign to messages in diverse channels when no deception is suspected. In a set of studies conducted by Mehrabian, (1972), participants adjudicated the feelings articulated by actors who modeled inconsistent verbal, paralinguistic, and facial signals. Outcomes of the studies displayed that in estimating the truth if feelings, facial cues were most significant followed by paralinguistic cues and verbal cues. Future exploration revealing more comprehensive mixtures of visual and auditory cues to subjects replicated the previous finding of facial cues being more relied on than paralinguistic cues. The preference for facial cues increases with age from childhood to adulthood, indicating that it is a learned strategy. Individuals also utilize the context of the message to ascertain the credibility of a channel (Bugenthal, 1974). The appropriateness of facial expression, tone of voice, or verbal content is judged in accordance to the social situation in which communication takes place. In case, a situation is recognized as being very stressful, people put their faith more on the signs that appear consistent with a stressful context (such as a strained tone of voice) and less on signs that seem to contradict it (such as a happy face or a verbal assertion of calmness). In case, the expressions of a communicator are depicting ambiguous emotions, the emotions that observer will attribute to the communicator will be determined by the situational cues (Carroll & Russell, 1996). For instance, an individual in scary circumstances showing an expression of restrained rage was adjudged to be scared. In conclusion, individuals have the tendency to sort out superficial inconsistencies between channels in favor of the channels whose message seems most appropriate to the social context.



Write down an anecdote where combination of verbal and non-verbal language helped you in conveying your message in a better way.

11.4 Summary

Nonverbal communication refers to a process in which meaning is generated through behavior without the use of words. Nonverbal communication delivers message by strengthening, replacing, or contradicting verbal communication.

Possessing certain skill at encoding and decoding nonverbal communication is a must if one wants to be successful at relating with other individuals. The nonverbal messages we send and receive influence our relationships in positive and negative ways and can work to bring people together or push them apart.

Nonverbal communication expresses who we are. Our identities (the groups to which we belong, our cultures, our hobbies and interests, etc.) are conveyed nonverbally through the way we set up our living and working spaces, the clothes we wear, the way we carry ourselves, and the accents and tones of our voices.

There are three main types of gestures: adaptors, emblems, and illustrators.

We learned earlier that *paralanguage* refers to the vocalized but nonverbal parts of a message. Vocalics is the study of paralanguage, which includes the vocal qualities that go along with verbal messages, such as pitch, volume, rate, vocal quality, and verbal fillers

Haptics, which refers to the study of communication by touch. We probably get more explicit advice and instruction on how to use touch than any other form of nonverbal communication.

Chronemics refers to the study of how time affects communication. Time can be classified into several different categories, including biological, personal, physical, and cultural time

The multiple cues we receive often seem redundant, each carrying the same message. A smile accompanies a compliment delivered in a warm tone of voice; a scowl accompanies a vehemently shouted threat. But multiple cues are seldom entirely redundant, and they are better viewed as complementary.

11.5 Keywords:

-) **Nonverbal communication** refers to a process in which meaning is generated through behavior without the use of words.

-) **Kinesics:** - The word kinesics comes from the root word *kinesis*, which means "movement," and refers to the study of hand, arm, body, and face movements.
-) **Haptics:** - It refers to the study of communication by touch.
-) **Chronemics:** - It refers to the study of how time affects communication.
-) **Proxemics:** - It refers to the study of how space and distance influence communication.

11.6 Self-Assessment:

1. Communication includes
 - a. exchange of information between two or more individuals
 - b. one individual who is sender and other who is receiver of information.
 - c. None of these
 - d. Both of these
2. Nonverbal communication refers to a process in which meaning is generated through behavior without the use of words.
 - a. True
 - b. False
3. Head movements and posture
 - a. acknowledge others
 - b. communicate interest and attentiveness
 - c. both of these
 - d. none of these
4. Haptics, refers to the study of
 - a. communication by language
 - b. communication by touch
 - c. communication of time
 - d. communication of physical space
5. Which communication functions does eye contact serves
 - a. regulating interaction
 - b. monitoring interaction
 - c. conveying information
 - d. all of these
6. Smiles are
 - a. powerful communicative signals
 - b. a key immediacy behavior
 - c. both of these
 - d. none of these
7. Chronemics refers to the study of how time affects communication.
 - a. True
 - b. False
8. Time can be classified into
 - a. biological, personal, physical, and cultural time
 - b. transpersonal, physical, and cultural time
 - c. personal, physical, and cultural time
 - d. biological, transpersonal, physical, and cultural time

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9. Physical time refers to the fixed cycles of days, years, and seasons.
 - a. True
 - b. False
 10. Physical time can impact our psychological states.
 - a. True
 - b. False
 11. Proxemics refers to the study of
 - a. how space and distance influence communication
 - b. how space and time influence communication
 - c. how time and distance influence communication
 - d. all of these
 12. Multiple cues convey added information, reduce ambiguity, and increase the accuracy of communication.
 - a. True
 - b. False
 13. Research shows that facial cues are most important in determining which feelings are interpreted as true followed by
 - a. Paralinguistic cues and linguistic cues
 - b. Paralinguistic cues and verbal cues
 - c. Linguistic cues and verbal cues
 - d. None of these
 14. Emblems are gestures that have a specific agreed-on meaning.
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
 15. Pitch, volume, rate, vocal quality, and verbal fillers are
 - a. Haptics
 - b. Proxemics
 - c. Kinesic
 - d. Vocalics

Answers				
1	2	3	4	5
d	a	c	b	d
6	7	8	9	10
c	a	a	a	a
11	12	13	14	15
d	a	b	a	d

11.7. Review Questions

- Q 1: What are the different types of non-verbal language.
- Q 2: Discuss the functions of haptics in communication.
- Q3: Explain the benefits of combining verbal and non-verbal language.
- Q4: Discuss the importance of gestures in communication.
- Q5: Explain in detail various types of Vocalics.

Further Readings



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Rogers, W.S. Social Psychology: Experimental and Critical Approaches. Open University Press. 2003

UNIT -12 Social Structures and Communications

Content

Objectives

Introduction

12.1 Gender and Communication

12.2 Social Stratification and Speech Style

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12.5 Keywords

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Further Readings

Objectives

This unit will;

Explain the connection between gender and communication

Delineate gender differences in ways of communication

Describe social stratification and its impact on speech style

Outline role of communication status in intimate relationships

Introduction

As seen in previous chapter, communication is a key aspect of social life and relationships we share in this social sphere. But social psychology delves deep into other pertinent questions on this unique relationship between communication and social world. Social psychologists often try to find answers to questions like how does social relationships shape communication, how does communication express, maintain, or modify social relationships? Such questions spin down the concern that social psychology has for the shared influences of social structure and communication on one another. This chapter will discuss different aspects of these mutual influences. First, it will shine some light in the ways social construct of gender make men and women differ in terms of communication. Then, it will discuss the associations between styles of speech and position in the social stratification system. Finally, it examines the methods by which communication generates and articulates the two fundamental dimensions of relationships – status and intimacy.

12.1. Gender and Communication

An essential inquiry to gain understanding of the ways in which social structure effects communication is to know if there exists any systematic differences between men and women in the terms of their communication style. Extensive research has been carried out in this field since 1970. Usually, all research emphasizes on one or two features of communication and compares men and women on it. Interruptions are the most researched on aspect of this influence. A study by Zimmerman and West (1975) found that men interrupted much more than women when they

engage in unpremeditated conversation of mixed-gender dyads. Another study proposed that women make use of tag questions (“Weather is very cold today, isn’t it?”), hedges (“In my opinion,”), and disclaimers (“I may be wrong but ...”) more frequently as compared to men. Due to this, it is often believed that women’s speech is more hesitant than men’s. Certain studies have found that men are likely to utilize intensifiers (“the light is very dim here, isn’t it?”). When it comes to non-verbal communication, it has been found that men smile less often than women while women are less likely to make eye contact with the individual while having an interaction.

The above mentioned and other such outcomes of research on communication and gender differences are the foundation for the proclamation that there exist huge variances in the way men and women interact. Besides such educational investigators, the notion of gender differences has been promoted in various popular culture literature like *You Just Don’t Understand: Women and Men in Conversation* (Tannen, 1991), and *Men are from Mars, Women Are from Venus* (Gray, 1992). Most academic researchers explain these gender differences in terms of the imbalance of power between men and women in our social worlds. Undoubtedly, men enjoy large power as compared to women. This possession of power reflected in the use of interruptions and declarative statements in place of tentative ones, and speech without intensifiers displays the stratification system of the society.



Jot down the differences you have experienced in men and women in terms of social communication

In recent times, research on gender differences in communication has become increasingly refined. In place of focusing on comparison of both genders on few behaviors through the use of descriptive research, investigators have now started to examine the processes behind these differences and the role exact social contexts play in them. Therefore, academics focus on the ways gender and contextual variables like kind of association, group, or structure of authority etc. intermingle to influence communication. For instance, researches in the 1970s and 1980s showed that when men tried to alter a conversation’s topic, they got 96 percent success; while, women only succeeded 36 percent of the time (Fishman, 1983). These results were understood as a reflection on the difference between the status of both genders. However if we have a wider gaze, we can see that (1) interactions have different kinds shifts in topic, and (2) every group comprising three or more individuals has a tendency to grow an inner status structure that is impacted by the setting, task, and characteristics of the specific people present.

Another study on nonverbal behavior conducted by Hall and Friedman, (1999) enlisted contributors in an establishment’s headquarters; 42 employees each participated in two interactions with another, randomly chosen employee. Consequently, the groups were diverse in terms of diverse corporate status of chosen employees. There were 10 all-male, 9 all-female, and 25 mixed-gender groups. Throughout all the interactions, two tasks were assigned to a pair. Interaction was recorded with the help of audio-visual apparatus and was coded by skilled observers. Gender and corporate status was the basis of analysis of data. Certain nonverbal behavior was different on the basis of gender and some on the basis of status. The variances related to status did not resemble to the variances linked with gender. Even though women smiled more, no differences in smiling was found on the basis of status. No steady differences across gender or status were found, signifying that the variances detected mirrored local or corporate practices and participants’ motives (Hall & Friedman, 1999). In nutshell, men and women are not two homogeneous groups with respect to communication style. Generalizations about gender and communication must focus on the context and particular local communication practices. It seems that men and women from Mars will communicate differently from men and women from Venus.

12.2. Social Stratification and Speech Style

Our social relationships are re-created and reflected in the manner we speak. All sociolinguistic communities identify disparity in the way its associates converse. One standard or preferred style always exists. Additionally, other styles that are less preferred or non-preferred also remain present. Let us look at an instance of each style. You went for a concert, as you enter the auditorium, a man come to you and ask, “Would you kindly fill a survey form for me?” Contingent to your state of mind at the time, you might fill the asked form. Now think he approached you and said “Wudjaansa sum questions?” Most individuals have very less chances of complying with the request now. The language used in first request is standard American English. Standard speech can be describes as the speech characterized by varied terminology, appropriate articulation,

right grammar, and intangible content. It is aware about the viewpoint of listeners. Notice the use of word “kindly” in the first request. It shows that speaker is aware of the fact that he is requesting for a courtesy.

On the other hand, nonstandard speech is categorized by restricted vocabulary, inadequate pronunciation, improper grammar, and straightforwardness. It is egocentric; the second request does not have any words like “kind” which makes it sound like an order, although it is formulated as a question. In most countries, speech style is related with social status.

The use of standard speech is associated with high socioeconomic status and with power. Individuals who have economic and political power are typically very eloquent and grammatically accurate while making any public statements. Conversely, the use of nonstandard speech is linked with low socioeconomic status and low power.

Interpersonal context also impact the speech style. Regardless of one’s socioeconomic status we all use non-standard speech in informal conversations with others who have same status as us. In more formal settings, particularly public ones, we generally move to standard speech. Therefore, whether we choose standard or nonstandard speech tells listeners about our perception of the given situation.

Researchers conducted in different cultures have showed methodical variances in the way individuals assess speakers using standard and nonstandard speech. In a research conducted on students in Kentucky, students were asked to listen to tape recordings of young men and women describing themselves. In four recordings (two men and women) were speaking in “standard” American accents while in four others recordings the speakers were using Kentucky accents, even though the content was the same. Standard speakers received high ratings from most of the students while low ratings were given to nonstandard speakers (Luhman, 1990). Nonstandard speech comprises of imperfect vocabulary, only focused on now, and has no room for elaboration of thoughts. Resultantly, several expert support the deficit theories. These theories say that individuals who use nonstandard speech are less capable of abstract and complex thought. These theories also claim that nonstandard speech styles are typical of lower-class, and disadvantaged groups.

Labov (1972) has been the harshest critique of these deficit theories. On the basis of consultations conducted in natural surroundings, he established that “Black English,” that is called the nonstandard speech is equally magnificent and delicate as Standard English. The difference between the two is mostly in superficial specifics like pronunciation (“ax” = ask) and grammatical forms (“He be busy” = He’s always busy). Nonstandard speech might seem disadvantaged as nonstandard speakers feel less comfortable in the social contexts where they are typically observed (such as schools or interviews), and so they limit their speech. In general, no disparity in cognitive capacities is reflected by the speech differences between groups and thus deficit theories did not get much experiential backing.



Note down different speech styles you can identify.

12.3. Communication Status and Intimacy

Status and intimacy are two dominant dimensions of social relationships. Status focuses on the use of power and control and Intimacy is concerned with the expression of affiliation and affection that creates social solidarity. Verbal and nonverbal communication articulates and upholds certain levels of intimacy and comparative status in relationships. Besides, communication helps us in challenging prevailing levels of intimacy and relative status and negotiates new ones. The recognition of appropriateness and inappropriateness of communication behaviors for an expected level of intimacy or status helps communication to signal what we think of the relationship. The succeeding examples show that one can effortlessly identify when communication behaviors are inappropriate. What if you, Constantly called your father as Mr. ? used uncouth jargon in a viva exam? Pat your boss? Looked away each time your beloved gazed into your eyes? All of these communication behaviors would perhaps lead to discomfort, and they would surely make others think that you are incompetent, troubled, or aggressive. Every behavior articulates levels of intimacy or relative status easily recognized as inappropriate to the relationship.

The ways in which we address others undoubtedly communicate relative status in relationships. Juniors have to use formal address like title and last name for their chiefs while chiefs speak in familiar ways with their juniors. The one's that share equal status use the same form of address for each other. In situations where there exists ambiguity about status, people may even refrain from addressing each other directly. People do so as the address they choose might not be consistent with the status that should be granted to the person. A shift in forms of address signals a change in social relationships, or at least an attempted change.

Most of the times, it is easy for people to choose language that express difference in status suitable to the situation. For example, Blom and Gumperz, (1972) in their research in a Norwegian town, observed teachers lecturing their students in the standard language. However, when they wanted to boost discussion among students, they transferred to the local dialect, thus decreasing the status differences. Johnson (1994) in his experiment studied the influence of authority and gender composition of the group on verbal and nonverbal communication. His groups comprised of a manager and two workers. A simulated retail store was created by the researcher; subordinates were given commands by their and their work was monitored for 30 minutes. The interaction was coded as it occurred. Results revealed that authority did impact verbal behavior; subordinates did not talk much and were non-directive, they also did not give much feedback as compared to superiors, regardless of gender. Gender impacted the nonverbal behaviors of smiling and laughing; women in all-female groups smiled more than men in all-male groups.

Status in relationships is also reinforced by paralinguistic cues. An experimental study of influence in three-person groups systematically varied the paralanguage of one member (Ridgeway, 1987). This member, a confederate, was most influential when she spoke rapidly, in a confident tone, and gave quick responses. She was less influential when she behaved dominantly (that is, spoke loudly, gave orders) or submissively (that is, spoke softly, in a pleading tone).

A successive study by Carli, LaFleur, & Loeber, (1995) showed that those individuals were more influential who spoke in a task-oriented style (characterized by fast speech, straight posture, eye contact) or a social style (characterized by restrained volume, relaxed posture). People who used leading or passive paralanguage were less influential. Body language also expresses status. In situations when people of unequal status are present, higher status people can be seen as having comparatively relaxed postures with asymmetrical positions of arms and legs and the ones of lower status will more tense in their actions and sit or stand in symmetrical positions. The amount of time we spend looking at our partner, and the timing, also indicate status. Higher status persons look more when speaking than when listening, whereas lower-status persons look more when listening than when speaking. Overall, inferiors look more at their partners, but they are also first to break the gaze between partners.

Intimacy

Another important dimension of relationships expressed by communication is – intimacy. Calling one another by first names is most prominent way that shows intimacy. In various languages, speakers show intimacy by their choice of familiar versus formal second-person pronouns. For instance, the French can choose between the familiar *tu* or the formal *vous*; the Spanish have *tu* or *usted*; the Germans *du* or *sie*; and so on. The language we choose to express ourselves in is also a way of expressing intimacy. For instance, Blom and Gumperz (1972) found that people of a Norwegian town used formal version of their language when they were talking to strangers and shifted to local dialect while conversing with friends. They used formal language when handling authorized business in government offices, then swapped it to local dialect when engaging in a private conversation with the clerk after finishing their business.

Another form of language that shows robust ingroup intimacy and solidarity are slangs. Slangs help people in proclamation of their own shared social identity and expressing rejection and estrangement of the out-group members who do not understand those slangs. Careful choice of a language may play a dominant part in the building of ethnicity (De Fina, 2007).

Frequency of dialect is another important feature that impacts intimacy. It reflects the fondness of individual who is sending the message. This is particularly amazing as a printed form of the dialect was seldom used before the Internet. The content of conversation precisely reflects and reinforces the intimacy of a relationship. As the intimacy of a relationship deepens so does the amount of personal information one discloses. Conversational style also conveys intimacy. Hornstein (1985) in a study recorded and analyzed telephonic conversations happening between strangers, acquaintances, and friends. As compared to strangers, implicit openings (like “Hi,” or “Hi. It’s me”) were used for friends diverse topics were talked about, and more questions were asked. Friends

also used more complex. The closings used by friends were also more composite (such as, planning for next meeting) Chats between acquaintances were almost the same as strangers.

The theory of speech accommodation (Beebe & Giles, 1984; Giles, 1980) demonstrates a significant manner in which individuals use verbal and paralinguistic behavior to show intimacy or liking. This theory states that, intimacy is expressed or rejected by regulating speech behavior throughout communication to unite with or deviate from the other person. To show liking or suggest approval, people make their own speech behavior more similar to their partner's. To discard intimacy or communicate condemnation, they emphasize the variances between their own speech and their partner's. Alterations of paralinguistic conduct reveal speech accommodation throughout discussions. People who want to show liking have a habit of shifting their own pronunciation, speech rate, vocal strength, pause lengths, and utterance lengths during conversation to match with their partner. People who want to express discontentment change these vocal behaviors in ways that make them deviate more from their partner's.

12.4. Summary

A central question about social structure's influence on communication is whether there are systematic differences between men and women in communication style. Numerous experimental studies have been conducted since 1970. Findings of gender differences are the basis for the assertion that there are vast differences in style of interaction between men and women.

Our social relationships are reflected and re-created by the ways in which we speak. Every sociolinguistic community recognizes variation in the way its members talk. One style is usually the preferred or standard style.

Standard speech is defined as characterized by diverse vocabulary, proper pronunciation, correct grammar, and abstract content. It takes into account the listener's perspective. Nonstandard speech is defined as characterized by limited vocabulary, improper pronunciation, incorrect grammar, and directness.

Studies in a variety of cultures have found systematic differences in how people evaluate speakers using standard and nonstandard speech.

The two central dimensions of social relationships are status and intimacy. Status is concerned with the exercise of power and control. Intimacy is concerned with the expression of affiliation and affection that creates social solidarity. Verbal and nonverbal communication expresses and maintains particular levels of intimacy and relative status in relationships.

12.5. Keywords

Standard speech: - It is characterized by diverse vocabulary, proper pronunciation, correct grammar, and abstract content.

Nonstandard speech: - Speech that is characterized by limited vocabulary, improper pronunciation, incorrect grammar, and directness.

Status: - It is concerned with the exercise of power and control.

Intimacy: - It is concerned with the expression of affiliation and affection that creates social solidarity

12.6. Self-Assessment

1. The most widely studied aspect in terms of gender and communication is
 - a. Persistence
 - b. Unification
 - c. Juncture
 - d. Interruption
2. The stratification system of the society is reflected in what styles of gender communication differences?
 - a. interruptions
 - b. declarative statements instead of tentative ones

-
- c. speech without intensifiers
 - d. all of these
 3. Generalizations about gender and communication must take into account
 - a. context
 - b. local communication practices
 - c. none of these
 - d. both of these
 4. The way we speak both reflects and re-creates our social relationships
 - a. True
 - b. False
 5. Standard style of communication is
 - a. Preferred style of the group
 - b. Non-Preferred style of the group
 - c. Not spoken by all in the group
 - d. Not spoken by anyone in the group
 6. The use of standard speech is associated with high socioeconomic status and with power.
 - a. True
 - b. False
 7. Non-Standard speech is common in places like
 - a. Parties
 - b. Bars
 - c. Parks
 - d. All of these
 8. The has been the strongest critic of deficit theories
 - a. Labvo
 - b. Lavob
 - c. Labov
 - d. Lvoba
 9. A study by Carli, LaFleur, &Loeber found that influential people use
 - a. Task-oriented style
 - b. Submissive Paralanguage
 - c. Dominant Paralanguage
 - d. All of these
 10. Paralinguistic cues also communicate and reinforce status in relationships.
 - a. True
 - b. False
 11. Nonstandard speech
 - a. involves unlimited vocabulary
 - b. is rooted in the past
 - c. allows for elaboration and qualification of ideas
 - d. none of the above
 12. The theory of speech accommodation illustrates important way in which people use verbal and paralinguistic behavior to express intimacy or liking
 - a. True
 - b. False
 13. The theory of speech accommodation is given by

- a. Giles
 - b. Biles
 - c. Miles
 - d. Kiles
14. The two central dimensions of social relationships are
- a. Speech and Voice
 - b. Status and Intimacy
 - c. Speech and Intimacy
 - d. Status and Voice
15. People communicate liking by
- a. assuming moderately relaxed postures
 - b. moving closer and leaning toward others
 - c. orienting ourselves face-to-face
 - d. all of these

Answers				
01	02	03	04	05
D	D	D	A	A
6	7	8	9	10
A	D	C	A	A
11	12	13	14	15
D	A	A	B	D

12.7. Review Questions

- Q 1: Discuss the findings of research by Zimmerman and West (1975).
- Q.2 With support of studies defines how people evaluate speakers using standard and nonstandard speech.
- Q3. How social stratification reflects in gender differences in communication.
- Q.4 How does status impacts communication?
- Q5. What role does intimacy play in communication?

Further Readings



- Hogg, M.A. & Vaughan, G.M. Social Psychology. Sixth Edition. Pearson Education. 2011
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Unit 13 Applied Social Psychology

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Objectives

This unit will:

Explain the importance of applied social psychology.

Describe concepts like personal space, territory, and crowd from psychological point of view.

Describe the psychological implications of personal space, privacy and crowding.

Delineate the relationship of social psychology with allied fields like sociology and geography.

Introduction

Social Psychology is an ever growing field that tries to keep up with the changing nature of issues and challenges that the society faces.

13.1. Aggression

Aggression refers to physical or verbal behavior intended to hurt someone. It can include various types of behaviors like smacks, direct abuses, and gossips. Aggression is not only present in humans

but also is a characterized feature of animals. One common type of aggression found in animals is termed as social aggression and is specified by wrath and quiet aggression and are displayed in situations like where an animal is indulging in stalking behavior to trap its prey. On the other hand, aggression found in humans has been divided into two types by psychologists. They are: Hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. Hostile aggression is the result of anger and is focused on injuring others. Instrumental aggression has a purpose of hurting others but only as a means to some other end. Terrorism is a typical example of instrumental aggression and murders of hostile aggression.

13.1.1. Perspectives on Aggression

BIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE: - The primary and perhaps most prominent description of human aggression is credited to biological factors i.e. our basic nature as a species. Sigmund Freud is the most prominent figure who supports this view. According to him, aggression is basically the result of prevailing death wish (thanatos) which all humans have. He said, this instinct is primarily directed at self-destruction, however is quickly passed on externally, to others. Konrad Lorenz, a Nobel Prize-winning ethologist propounded somewhat similar view. He proposed that aggression results mostly from an innate fighting instinct, which warrants that only the toughest males gets mates and pass their genes on to the next generation.

DRIVE THEORIES: -With the rejection of biological viewpoint to aggression, social psychologists put forth the idea that aggression is mainly the result of an outwardly produced drive to harm others. This line of thought is mirrored in numerous diverse drive theories of aggression (e.g., Berkowitz, 1989; Feshbach, 1984). According to these theories, extrinsic circumstances – particularly frustration – trigger a powerful motive to cause suffering to others. In turn, this aggressive drive, prompts overt acts of aggression. Undoubtedly, the most prominent of the drive theories is the frustration- aggression hypothesis (Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939). This theory proposes that frustration – whatever that thwarts us from attainment of goals we are seeking – results in arousal of a drive the primary goal of which is to harm any person or object – principally the apparent reason of frustration (Berkowitz, 1989). Moreover, the theory recommends that the strongest and possibly the sole cause of aggression is frustration. However, situation did undergo some change due to progression of the evolutionary perspective in psychology. Although large number of social psychologists still do not agree with the notion that human aggression stems mainly from inherent (i.e., genetic) influences, few now have agreed to the likelihood that genetic influences may actually have some impact on human aggression.

SOCIAL LEARNING PERSPECTIVE: - The social learning perspective (e.g., Bandura, 1997), have its roots in a very rational notion: Human beings are not born with a large array of aggressive responses at their disposal. They do acquire aggression almost in the same manner in which they obtain other multifaceted types of social behavior i.e. by direct experience or by observing the behavior of others, others being various social models like real people or characters on television, movies, or even in video games who exhibit aggressive behavior. Therefore, on the basis of their past experience and the cultures to which they belong, people acquire (1) several methods of harming others, (2) towards whom (people and groups) the aggression can be directed at (3) as reaction to which actions of others will their retaliation or vengeance be justified, and (4) what are the circumstances or situations in which aggression is acceptable or even permitted. In short, the social learning perspective advocates the aggressive behavior of a person in any given situation is contingent on several factors, like the individual's past experience, the present rewards connected with past or present aggression, and attitudes and values that form that individual's thoughts regarding the correctness and possible effects of such behavior.

GENERAL AGGRESSION MODEL: -The general aggression model (GAM) (Anderson & Bushman, 2002) is a rather fresh framework on fundamentals of human aggression and it has built on the social learning perspective. It put forth an even more comprehensive explanation of the fundamentals of human aggression. The general aggression model explains causal sequence of events that might eventually lead to overt aggression. It can be started by two main types of input variables: (1) situational factors i.e. factors that are associated with present situation and (2) person factors i.e. factors associated with involved individuals. GAM asserts that these situational and person factors result in overt aggression due to their impact on three basic processes: arousal – they can intensify physiological arousal or excitement; affective states – they can arouse hostile feelings and external signs of these (like angry facial expressions); and cognitions – they can induce persons to think hostile thoughts or can bring beliefs and attitudes about aggression to mind. Contingent on persons' understandings (appraisals) of the present situation and preventive influences (e.g., the existence of police or the intimidating nature of the projected target person), they then either carry

outconsiderate behavior, which might include restricting their anger, or unwary act, which can lead to overt aggressive actions.

13.1.2. Reducing Aggression

Strengthening the internal mechanisms that usually operate to control such behavior is regarded as a very effective way of reducing human aggression. All individuals have these mechanisms; therefore the main job is making them sturdier and guaranteeing that they do not overcome by other demands on our cognitive resources. There are various ways through which these internal restraints against aggression can be strengthened. For example, subjection to other individuals who demonstrate such restriction even if strong provocation is present can help. Another way can be to give training planned to strengthen internal restraints. Additionally, people can also be trained to identify when their cognitive resources are being “stretched,” as those are the instances which have higher chances of translating into situations with inappropriate aggression.

Another way to reduce aggression is known as Catharsis hypothesis. It refers to the idea that giving individuals who are angry a chance to express their aggressive impulses in comparatively harmless methods will decrease their propensities to get involved in more damaging forms of aggression. Catharsis does not appear to be very effective means for reducing aggression. Participating in “safe” forms of aggression or just in dynamic, energy draining actions may yield brief reductions in arousal, however feelings of anger can rapidly reappear when people meet, or think about, the individuals who irritated them, such feelings may actually be strengthened if people think about persons who annoyed them while engaging in cathartic activities. Due to such issues catharsis might not be as efficacious in reducing aggression.

As media exposure to people engaging in aggressive actions can upsurge aggression, it is likely that seeing non-aggressive acts can bring out the opposite effects. The findings of various studies support this idea. When provoked people are exposed to the ones who either show or wish control, the propensity of prospective aggressors to engage in aggressive actions lessens.

The lack of basic skills is a major behind engaging in aggression. Individuals lacking this skill have no idea about how to react to provocations of others in a manner that will ease them rather than irritating or annoying those more. People deficient of basic social skills seem to indulge in violence more across different societies. These individuals, thus, must be taught social skills to deal with others in society in a better way.

Another approach for reducing aggression is known as incompatible response technique. This technique proposes that if people are exposed to situations or incentives that lead them to experience affective states incompatible with anger, aggression can be reduced.

13.2. Personal Space

Personal space refers to the physical area surrounding an individual that is considered personal or private. Typically, when another person intrudes in this area, the individual experiences discomfort. A related concept, interpersonal distance, refers to the area that people keep between themselves and the interaction partner. As an individual’s personal space increases, interpersonal distances will increase as well. The size of personal space largely depends on individual and situational differences. The shape of personal space does not completely follow the lines of a circle or bubble, as the preferred distances at the front of a person are generally found to be larger compared with the rear.

Physical interpersonal spacing behavior serves important functions. Distancing oneself from others promotes control and maintains autonomy. In this case, the influence of others is reduced. Conversely, proximity fosters interpersonal communication and cooperative behavior, smoothes interactions, and increases interpersonal liking.

Personal space should not be considered a static construct because it varies across individuals and situations. Predominantly, interpersonal distance is influenced by the nature of the relationship between the two interacting individuals.

The implications of personal space can be far-reaching because it can have a strong impact on the quality of the interactions and therefore on the quality of interpersonal relations. The interaction of two persons with different sizes of personal space may result in misunderstanding and become problematic. For example, if a member of an individualistic country (a U.S. citizen) who has large preferred interpersonal distances interacts with a member of a collectivistic country (an India citizen), the latter may stand too close for the American, whereas the Indian person may become

irritated because the American stands too far away for conversation. From an applied perspective, the growing body of knowledge in the area of personal space and proximity behavior provides opportunities to adjust spacing behavior and train people to stand closer to or further away from others in specific situations. This may help smooth interactions and reduce psychological discomfort.

Research in personal space is rooted in the observations of naturalists (e.g., Hediger, 11350) that animals exhibit regularities in interindividual distance. Thus, when human personal space was first studied (Sommer, 113513), it was logical to measure it as objective interpersonal distance. However, human personal space has a cognitive component as well as the objective interindividual distance (e.g., Meisels& Canter, 11370). This cognitive component was implicit in the earliest writing about human personal space. In the original Sommer (113513) article, personal space is described as including a feeling of comfort at the customary distance or discomfort at distances which are too close or too far away. Nevertheless, as Hayduk (11378) points out, there is an "absence of studies dealing with the subjective experience of personal space" (p. 1213). Since interpersonal distance is at the core of personal space, one appropriate way to initiate research into the experience of personal space is to examine the relationship between objective interpersonal distance (OIPD) and perceived interpersonal distance (PIPD). Part of the experience of personal space is the individual's estimate of the distance between self and other. When interacting, individuals presumably are basing their distancing behavior on PIPD, not OIPD. Thus, the relationship between PIPD and OIPD may be crucial to the understanding of personal space.

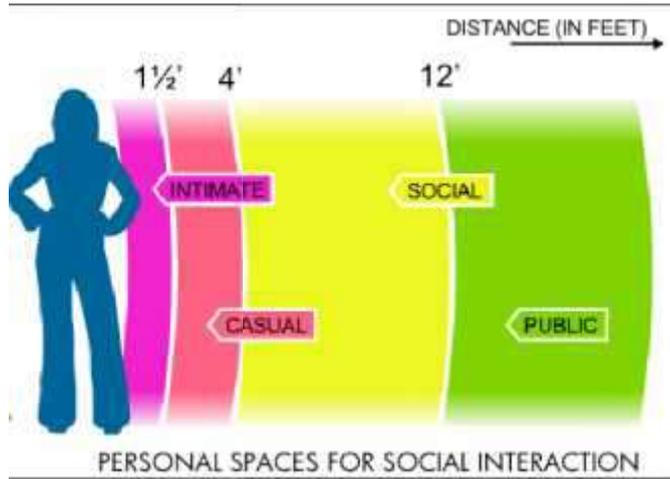
Shontz and McNish's results suggest that PIPD and OIPD may not match well. However, the specific nature of a mismatch is unclear. If we perceive human cues to be larger than they actually are, we may well misperceive the distance to them. But it is not clear whether one would overestimate or underestimate the distance. Initially, it would seem that if other people are perceived as larger than they are, they would be judged to be closer than they are. But much previous experience in social interactions may have served to inform the perceiver of this error. A compensation process might operate to cause PIPDs to increase toward objective distance, or even beyond (i.e., we might conclude the other person is farther away than he or she objectively is).

13.2.1. Zones of Personal Space

Individuals can control interaction with others through the amount of personal space they maintain. As anthropologist Edward Hall notes, persons seem to maintain a certain distance or physical space, between themselves and others. This is sometimes called a bubble or body buffer zone. This spatial bubble seems to be viewed by individual as part of themselves. Everything outside that boundary is seen as part of the surroundings. The degree of distance between people depends not only on the situation but on personality and cultural factors as well.

There are at least four major kinds of body - buffer zones that individuals choose to maintain in relation to other people; intimate, personal, social, and public. Intimate distance are very close space between people. In such spaces it is often possible to smell and feel the presence of another person's body (in terms of body heat, breath, and so on). In the close phase of intimate distance, persons may easily establish physical contact. The far phase (from about six to eighteen inches) is considered by most persons to be "too close" and uncomfortable for most situations. In elevators or crowded buses, for example, persons are usually quite tense and immobile if they are only six to eighteen inches from another person.

The second zone individuals maintain between themselves and other is personal distance. This, too, is divided into a close phase (of about 1 % or 2 % feet) and a far phase (2 % to 4 feet). At these distances it is possible to get a rich variety of information about another person's features. The close phase may be quite common among intimate friends, but inappropriate for strangers. The far phase of personal distance literally represents keeping another person at arm's length. Conversations that involve personal topics may be conducted at this distance.



The zone of social distance can range from 4 to 12 feet. In the close phase head size is seen as normal. People who work with one another tend to maintain this distance as do persons who meet at social events. In the far phase social encounters tend to be less important, and visual contact becomes more important in maintain social interaction. At this distance individuals may speak louder than in close phase. It may also be possible for individuals to work together at this distance without feeling especially intimate.

The fourth major zone is public distance. This can range from 12 feet to much greater distances. In the close phase there is fairly little feedback between individuals, except at the verbal level. Lectures, formal addresses, and interactions between persons of different status may be at this distance. The far phase of public distance may be the area set around important public figures.

13.2.2. Invasions of Personal Space

Interpersonal distancing is socially important because it signals the different degrees of openness and closeness that individual's establish with one another. For instance, persons imprisoned for committing a violent assault (involving injury to another) tend to prefer a greater interpersonal distance around them than others do. Violent individuals tend to perceive other individuals who approach them as prepared to attack them. They also prefer to maintain a larger interpersonal distance at the back. When approached from behind, many violent persons report experiencing goose bumps and a tingling sensation. Their special sensitivity to being approached may, at least in the prison setting, means a fear of possible homosexual overtures. Average person may, on the other hand, regard the rear portions of their bodies as protective regions. Men and women also differ in their reactions to invasions of personal space. Males seem to be more comfortable than females when sitting side by side with someone. Females seem more comfortable with face-to-face seating arrangements.

Most persons try to keep an appropriate level of intimacy in social encounters. If a person gets too non-verbally (such as staring, touching or standing too close), then we become uncomfortable. We try to compensate by reducing eye contact or by moving away. If a person gets too distant, non-verbally (such as by looking away, leaning back, or standing too far away), then we also become uncomfortable. We may try to compensate by establishing eye contact or moving closer. In short, we react to other's behaviour and try to keep intimacy at an appropriate level.

The optimal level of intimacy depends on whether we are interacting with friends, acquaintances or strangers. For instance, a greater level of intimacy is usually possible with friends than strangers.

Individuals often become defensive when other persons are inappropriately close. They may try to escape from what they see as threatening situations. One study investigated the reactions of hospital patients waiting on a bench when someone sat down close to them. More than half the patients left the bench within a few minutes.

Another study was conducted in a reading room of a college library. A Female experimenter sat either next to or directly across from a woman seated by her. (This behavior violated library etiquette. If there was available space, a new comer was supposed to select a seat away from other persons in the room). Most students picked up their books and left after the experimenter had sat in a nearby chair.

Staring at someone else also violates personal space. Consider this example. A pedestrian stares at drivers whose car have stopped for a red light. When the driver knows that someone is watching them, they become uncomfortable. They look away, fumble with the radio, fix their clothes, rev up the engine, or stare frequently at the traffic light. When the light turns green, they drive away quickly.

Spatial invasions, however, may not always produce negative reactions. For instance, a person's intimacy behaviors (such as standing closer, eye contact, touching) may be seen in positive terms. If persons who are approaching are smiling and seem friendly, we may react to their nonverbal intimacy by moving closer to them.



To measure your own interpersonal distances, try the following exercise. Stand up with your eyes open and ask several persons to approach you from the front, back, and sides. Tell them to stop when you begin to feel uncomfortable. Try this exercise with members of your family (parents, brothers and sisters, spouse) as well as with friends and strangers. Be sure to have someone keep a record of how close you permit these persons to come to you. How did you feel as these persons approached you from different positions? Were you excited, nervous, uncomfortable, or did you feel anything else?

13.3. Territory

Territory is defined as a live organism's boundary to determine their demands, mark, and defend it. The territory is the formation of an area to achieve optimal privacy that is sought by developing physical settings, (Altman 1975). Territory for humans are not only limited physically and space but also related to emotional and cultural needs.

13.3.1. Types of Territory

Altman (1975), divides the territory into three categories associated with personal involvement, involvement, closeness to the daily lives of individuals or groups and frequency of use. The three categories are the primary, secondary and public territory.

Primary territory: is an area that is owned, used exclusively, recognized by others, is controlled permanently, and becomes a major part of the daily activities of its inhabitants. 2. The secondary territory is an area that is not too used exclusively by a person or group of people who have a relatively wide area coverage, periodically controlled. 3. Public territory: is an area that is used and can be entered by anyone but he must comply with existing norms. These three categories are very specifically related to the specific aspects of the culture of the people. When referring to the restrictions above, so-called private places are equivalent to primary territories while public places are equivalent to public territories. In line with Altman (1975), Lyman and Scott (1967), making a territorial type classification comparable to Altman, there are only two different types namely; interactional territories, and body territories. Interaction territory is aimed at temporal or momentary areas that are controlled by individuals or groups when interacting.

Brower (1976) distinguishes territories into four types:

1. Personal territory; Personal territory is controlled individually or in groups. Group members are members who have a very close relationship such as a relationship due to marriage or relationships due to blood ties.
2. Community territory; Community territory is controlled by groups whose members sometimes change, but each member has gone through a screening process and sometimes an inauguration ceremony is held in accepting the member. This is done is to clarify the differences between group members and people outside the group.
3. Community territory; This territory is controlled by the general public and is open to the public, including public places such as a highway, and also places that are not public property such as waiting rooms in terminals, performance halls in theaters and so on. Prohibition and control are less free than previous types of ownership. This is done through rules or norms that come from the

community, these regulations can be based on gender differences, age differences, or racial differences.

4. Free territory; This territory has no permanent residents, and the subject's existence is not under the prohibition or control of certain parties. The rules that guide behavior are self-determined or based on natural forces or because of moral norms. This territory is characterized by the absence of territorial signs and therefore restrictions or controls that arise are more due to the exploration and imagination of its inhabitants.

13.3.2. Concept of Privacy

The concept of privacy is a lot like the previously discussed topic of personal space and territory. These notions are so closely associated with one another that at times it gets hard to identify which of these is most inclusive. Just as personal space and territory aid us in management of social communication with an aim to preserve order and evade conflict with others, so does privacy. Inadequate opportunities to privacy have been found to be related to antisocial and aggressive behaviors across different settings.

Part of our self - identity depends on our ability to regulate our level of contact with other people. We need to be able to set up boundaries between ourselves and other persons. Thus, one function of privacy is that it gives us a sense of self-competence and a sense of personal freedom and choice in interacting with the environment.

Another important function of privacy is that it gives us Opportunities to be alone. When individuals are alone, they have an opportunity to integrate information for themselves. Some psychologists argue that privacy or occasional psychological withdrawal is necessary to the process of rediscovering the self? Psychologists who adhere to this view see society as pressuring individuals to conform to social roles. In other words, society encourages individuals to behave in socially appropriate ways, which may conflict with the individuals own thoughts and feelings. For example, grown children who live with their parents may feel that they must behave in ways that please their parents. Some men may feel that they must always seem strong and "in control" in front of their families. A minister may believe that he must give the impression to a congregation that his family life is stable. The danger in conforming too closely to social roles is that individuals may lose contact to their own feelings and experiences. However, by maintaining privacy and control over the nature of social interaction, it may be easier for individuals to maintain a sense of self- identity.

13.3.3. Functions of Territory

Lang (11387), formulates that territoriality has four main characters; Ownership or rights of a place, Personalization or marking of a certain area, The right to defend yourself from outside interference, and Regulator of several functions, ranging from meeting basic psychological needs to cognitive satisfaction and aesthetic needs. The concept of territory is the result of theoretical analysis of behavior and environment that can influence each other, according to Altman (11375), by regulating privacy, the territory can be used to regulate the consistency between what is achieved and what is desired. In the context of ethology, the territory can be seen as a mechanism to prevent aggression both individually and in groups.

One of the major functions of territorial behavior for humans is the preservation and regulation of privacy. Having a place where the individual can regulate privacy and exert control over other activities seems to be an essential part of healthy, normal functioning for most people. The inability to maintain such a place can result in stress and other problems (Lyman & Scot, 11367). In most societies, being "homeless" is one of the greatest misfortunes a person can experience, and it immediately places that person at the bottom of society's status hierarchy. The ability to recognize certain objects and places as "belonging" to one's self is an important stage in the social development of every child (Furby, 11378) and there is evidence that one's attachment to territories intensifies with age (Rowles, 11380). Research consistently shows that people develop a sense of "ownership" over certain places where their activities regularly occur, and that these feelings of territoriality increase with the amount of time the person spends in that place. Sommer (113613) reported that when a person seated at a snack-bar table for 5 minutes was approached by a stranger and asked to move, he or she always did so, often with an apology. However, when people were approached after being seated for 25 minutes, they invariably refused to move.

Territories also allow people to manage and communicate their sense of personal identity. The personalization of territories is probably even more important when that territory is going to be a

long-standing part of a person's life. When a person moves into a new office, house, or apartment, among the first things unpacked and displayed are highly personal possessions or decorations associated with the permanent places in that person's life. There is evidence that this personalization of territories may sometimes predict other aspects of a person's behavior. Hansen and Altman (1976) conducted a study that showed that the amount and the kinds of room decorations used were actually related to the likelihood that a university student would stay in school! They visited newly enrolled first-year students at the University of Utah during the second week of the autumn quarter and photographed the walls above students' beds. The volume of decorated space was measured, and seven categories of personalization were examined. These categories reflected decorations related to personal relationships; political, religious, or philosophical values; areas of personal interest, reference items; entertainment; or abstract/artistic decorations. The researchers found that students who left school by the end of the year were less likely to decorate their walls than students who stayed in school, those who left covered less space with the decorations they did use and were much more likely to use decorations that reflected a strong connection with their personal lives away from the university. Pictures of boyfriends or girlfriends back home, family pictures, or clippings from hometown newspapers are items that fell into this category. A follow-up study at the same university failed to find that the amount of decorated space was related to staying in school, but it did confirm that dropouts showed less diversity and commitment to the university setting with their decorations than "stayins" did (Vinsel, Brown, Altman, & Foss, 1980)

As with animals, territoriality also plays a crucial role in the organization of human social systems. Without coherent ownership, occupancy, and control over various spaces, human interaction would be chaotic. Territories are used to support and clarify social roles, to regulate interactions, and to minimize conflict. Clear, unambiguous territories have been found to decrease aggressive behavior in groups of retarded boys (O'Neill & Paluck, 1973), juvenile delinquents (Sundstrom & Altman, 1974), and street gangs (Ley & Cybriwsky, 1974). Research on pairs of sailors living in small, isolated rooms found that the pairs who established clear territories during the first day or two of the study performed better while working, showed less stress, and were able to endure isolation longer. Less territorial pairs were disorganized and could not tolerate isolation as long (Altman & Haythorn, 1967; Altman, Taylor, & Wheeler, 1971).



How territorial is your family?

Most of the day-to-day behaviors that maintain smooth territorial functioning in a home go unnoticed by family members. Think about the norms that have developed in your own family and compile a list of behaviors that might be considered "territorial." Here is a series of questions to help you think territorially; however, these are only a beginning. You will probably be surprised at the length of the list you can generate.

- 1. Do the members of your family lock the bathroom door?*
- 2. Do people sit in the same chairs at the table for every meal?*
- 3. Do family members knock before entering each other's rooms?*
- 4. Does your family close bedroom doors at night when they are sleeping?*
- 5. Are there any special rooms at home (for example, a store, an office, a workshop) that is used only by one individual?*
- 6. Is there a chair that "belongs" to one individual in the living room or TV room?*
- 7. Does anyone in your family have his or her own telephone or television?*

13.4. Crowd

The influence of personal space on human behavior leads to a related discussion of the effect of crowding. What happens when we have the experience of being among many people? Being surrounded by many people seems to most persons to be generally upsetting and unhealthy. In fact, crowding has been considered responsible for causing mass starvation, pollution, higher crime

rates, riots, war, mental illness, drug addiction, family disorganization, a loss of freedom, and a drop in the quality of life. But there is little research conducted on impact of crowding in humans.

With regard to crowd behavior in human beings, the French Sociologist Gustave Le Bon (18135) devoted a whole book to study the nature or crowds, he described how the people in a crowd often think, feel and act in extreme ways (mob scenes, crowd hysteria etc.) and how they accept or reject ideas uncritically. He contrasted the behaviour of people when they are alone with their behaviour and when they are members of large groups. Floyd Allport (11324) described a crowd as a collection of individuals who are all attending and reacting to some common object, their reactions being of a simple proponent sort and accompanied strong emotional responses.

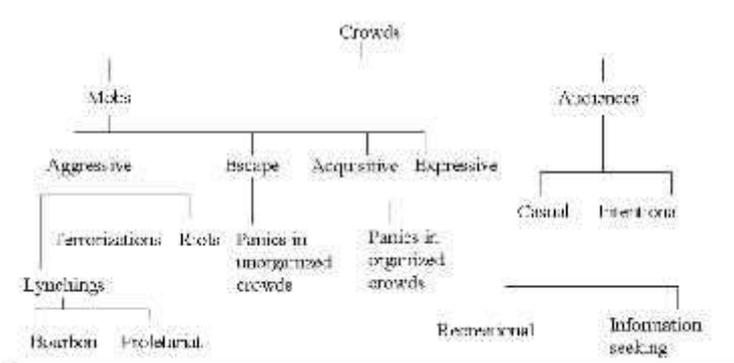
Crowds are temporary collection of human beings contrast to groups which are more enduring. While groups have hierarchic structure, there is no such structure in crowds. Though they are temporary and though they are without structure, crowds are of great significance in social life.

The crowd is the most transitory and unstable of all social groups. It is an unorganized group. Crowds form quickly and also dissolve quickly as we can see in the market place. The crowd differs from the audience; the participants in an assembly, public meeting, and cinema house etc., and fall into the predetermined order and are arranged according to some principle of selection; but in a crowd there is no such order whatever. People just gather together.

Milgram and Toch (11368) describe collective behaviour as "group behaviour which originates spontaneously, is relatively unorganized, fairly unpredictable and plan less in its course of development, and which depends on interstimulation among the participants." It includes crowd behaviour, riots, protest movements, public revolts etc. The persons in a crowd may behave in the most noble and heroic manner as well as in the most savage and destructive manner. It is because of this that collective behaviour may serve as vehicle of social change as in French Revolution or the Satyagraha movements in India under the leadership of Gandhi in 11320, 11330 and 11342 or the VimochnaSamera in Kerala in 11358 which led to the unseating of ruling party. In this manner social unrest and social movements are indicators of historical change. They also indicate the breakdown of existing social order. This is how the study of collective behaviour helps in the understanding of the basis of stability in the everyday social world.

13.4.1. Types of Crowd

Brown divided the crowds into mobs and audiences. The further division is as follows



Thus, he distinguished between two kinds of crowds: (i) mobs which may be aggressive or escape mobs or acquisitive or expressive mobs and (ii) audiences which may be casual or intentional.

When there is social unrest, protest meetings and processions to express the grievances are organized. Thus, the protest meetings or processions are organized crowds -they are audiences and not mobs. But a protest meeting may become disorganized when two parties clash or when the police come to disperse the meeting or procession, if it is in violation of the magistrate's order. Under such circumstances an intentional, organized audience becomes an aggressive mob, pelting stones at the policemen or setting fire to buses etc. In a similar manner an organized audience may become a panic mob when fire breaks out in the hall or at the meeting place. Sometimes the mob may also be organized into an audience when the leader comes and appeals to them to calm down and understand the exact situation or problem.

13.4.2. Features of Crowd

The crowd is an aggregation of people. Generally the crowds tend to form in a circle. From all sides people come up to see what is happening. Formation of a circle helps most people to observe the event. Such a ring will have a structure. The speaker or the snake charmer will be in the centre. There will be some space around him which is free. The persons who arrive early tend to form the first circle around this empty space. The crowd may be four or five or more deep in concentric circles. Then there will be an outer boundary. The Figure illustrates the structure of the ring.

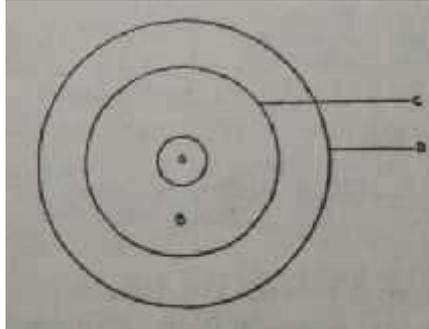


Fig. showing the structure of the ring in crowd formation

- A. The speaker
- B. The inner space
- C. Inner Boundary
- D. Outer Boundary (the crowd will be between C and D)

There will be considerable movement between the inner boundaries. The late comers will try to push their way to the inner boundary to get a good view. The early comers who have satisfied their curiosity or who lose interest will struggle to move out. Thus, it may be assumed that those who form the inner boundary are more highly motivated than those who are at the periphery. Secondly, the larger the inner space, the wider the circle and so the greater the number of people who can witness the event. Sometimes the ring of admirers may be so close to a celebrity that he is unable to come out of it unless the policemen break the ring and make a pathway.

Boundary maintenance is an important problem in organized collectivities. When large crowds are expected the persons responsible for the assemblage will plant poles and tie thick cords to demarcate the areas. One can see such arrangements being made in Tirupati temple where tens of thousands of devotees crowd to go into the temple for darshan. The temple authorities draw up ropes on either side so that the crowd moves in a Q-fashion. Thus orderliness is created in a situation which would otherwise be chaotic. Similar arrangements are made when the Prime Minister visits the various parts of the country.

Another major feature of crowd activity is differential participation. Though it is assumed that a crowd is generally homogeneously acting, careful scrutiny will reveal that while a good proportion may be attending to the speaker, some others will be engaged in private conversations and other activities. Those who come as onlookers may be engulfed in the crowd but they may not be interested in the issue.

Polarization is another feature. When all or most of the members of a group are facing one object there is attention towards it. This gives unity to the group. When the speaker is able to maintain the attention of the group there is polarization. Similarly, when the actors on the stage are able to sustain the attention of the group there is polarization. Polarization is also related to the structure of the group; those near the centre will be more highly polarized than those at the periphery. When there is no polarization at all then the persons form a mere assemblage; they are no more a crowd. A crowd is distinguished from a mere aggregate because of some common interest or purpose which leads to polarization. When polarization diminishes the crowd is broken up; when individuals lose interest, they disengage themselves and move on. A typical example of lack of polarization is when people gather to hear music in a park on a Sunday evening. Some people may listen to some items with interest; but generally they will be moving around, conversing, buying eatables and so on. When the songs are very popular there may be some polarization.

Another feature of the crowd is its changing composition. Just as the stream is the same but the water flowing changes, similarly the crowd may persist but the individuals composing it keep on changing except for the small core of people committed to the cause or issue. The ruffians in the area may join when the crowd becomes riotous so that they can take advantage of the situation and turn the attention of the crowd to looting. The composition of the crowd may also determine the form of collective behaviour that arises. For example, when the crowd consists of a good number of women, it may not break off into violence; also the police who come to check the activities of the crowd may not resort to 'lathi charge, tear gasing etc., when there are many women in the crowd.

13.4.3. Negative Impacts of Crowd

Crowding exists when persons experience more social contact than they want at a particular time. In other words, they lose their privacy-they cannot control how much contact they maintain with others. When this occurs, the boundary that we normally maintain between ourselves and others break down, and the level of stimulation becomes excessive. There are two major negative effects of loss of control over privacy due to crowding: Stimulus overload and loss of personal freedom.

Stimulus Overload

Stimulus Overload occurs when the level and rate of input from the environment exceed the organism's capacity to adjust. The person may use a variety of coping mechanisms to deal with this heightened level of social stimulation. For instance, individuals may selectively define who their friends are and devote energy only to those who are regarded as important. An injured or sick person on the street may be disregarded because persons feel they have only limited time to give others. According to the stimulus overload idea, crowding represents a threat to self to the degree that persons feel overwhelmed by environment inputs. In an overload situation persons are faced with more information than they can process. This overload often impairs performance on tasks that require recalling characteristics of a fast-changing and complex environment. As one example, when tested, customers in large department stores could not recall details of merchandise or the layout of the store under crowded conditions. But they could do so in uncrowded conditions. We can only imagine what would happen when more important decisions are involved.

Freedom of Choice is threatened

We generally feel that we have freedom to choose what we will do in a variety of situations. When we realize that freedom to engage in a particular behavior is threatened or eliminated this provokes psychological reactance, a motivational state involving feeling threatened, and behavior directed at re-establishing freedom. A large number of person's surrounding one individual may represent a threat to freedom of choice. This produces a feeling of reactance and crowding in the individual. Someone caught in a traffic jam, trying to get home form a day in the city, feels crowded and frustrated because everyone else is moving the same direction. The psychological stress experienced in crowded conditions will depend on the person's feelings of how important freedom of choice is at a particular time. When persons in large cities -such as Tokyo, New York, London, or Moscow squeeze into a bus, almost everyone accepts this restriction in space as unavoidable. Freedom of choice is not an important factor in that situation. But when a person is in a hurry, others may be viewed as a source of interference, since they prevent the person from getting somewhere quickly.

Freedom of choice is important in influencing reaction to crowding. This is demonstrated by studies that show that persons who feel they can leave a crowded situation at any time are better able to endure frustration in some post- crowding experience than persons who believe, that they do not have this freedom of choice. Psychologist Jonathan Freedman has a different theory of crowding He argues that a large group of people intensifies a person's normal reactions to a situation. If a person is feeling good having more people present makes the person feel better. If a person is feeling bad, having more people present makes the person feel worse. Freedman believes that crowding may have positive effects if persons are already in a relatively pleasant mood. For example, a party often seems more interesting when a large number of people are in the room. At athletic events the cheering of the crowd increases one's personal excitement.

Research by Freedman shows that both pleasant and unpleasant feelings are more intense under high-density conditions. In one study persons were placed either in a large, comfortable room or in a small, crowded room. They were supposed to give speeches that the others would criticize. In a positive situation the audience was asked to give only favorable feedback, describing how good the talk had been. In a negative situation the audience was asked to give only unfavorable feedback,

describing how bad the talk had been. The positive and negative situations occurred in both the large and small rooms.

13.4.4. Positive Impacts of Crowd

Psychologist Jonathan Freedman has a different theory of crowding. He argues that a large group of people intensifies a person's normal reactions to a situation. If a person is feeling good having more people present makes the person feel better. If a person is feeling bad, having more people present makes the person feel worse. Freedman believes that crowding may have positive effects if persons are already in a relatively pleasant mood. For example, a party often seems more interesting when a large number of people are in the room. At athletic events the cheering of the crowd increases one's personal excitement.

Research by Freedman shows that both pleasant and unpleasant feelings are more intense under high-density conditions. In one study persons were placed either in a large, comfortable room or in a small, crowded room. They were supposed to give speeches that the others would criticize. In a positive situation the audience was asked to give only favorable feedback, describing how good the talk had been. In a negative situation the audience was asked to give only unfavorable feedback, describing how bad the talk had been. The positive and negative situations occurred in both the large and small rooms. As we might expect, the experience was more enjoyable under positive feedback than under negative feedback conditions. But the size of the room intensified both kinds of reactions. In the positive situations people enjoyed the experience more in the small room than in the large room.

13.5. Summary

Aggression refers to physical or verbal behavior intended to hurt someone. This can be in the form of slaps, direct insults, even gossip. The oldest and probably most famous explanation for human aggression attributed it to biological factors, our basic nature as a species.

One effective means of reducing human aggression—perhaps a very effective one—is strengthening the internal mechanisms that usually operate to control such behavior. Catharsis hypothesis, the view that providing angry persons with an opportunity to express their aggressive impulses in relatively safe ways will reduce their tendencies to engage in more harmful forms of aggression.

Personal space refers to the physical area surrounding an individual that is considered personal or private. Personal space should not be considered a static construct because it varies across individuals and situations. Predominantly, interpersonal distance is influenced by the nature of the relationship between the two interacting individuals.

There are at least four major kinds of body - buffer zones that individuals choose to maintain in relation to other people; intimate, personal, social, and public. Intimate distance are very close space between people.

Part of our self - identity depends on our ability to regulate our level of contact with other people. We need to be able to set up boundaries between ourselves and other persons. Thus, one function of privacy is that it gives us a sense of self-competence and a sense of personal freedom and choice in interacting with the environment.

Crowds are temporary collection of human beings contrast to groups which are more enduring. While groups have hierarchic structure, there is no such structure in crowds. Though they are temporary and though they are without structure, crowds are of great significance in social life.

13.6. Key Words

Drive Theories: Need for protection, security, order, law, limits, and stability

Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis: Physiological needs are the basic needs for survival these needs include, food, water shelter, sex and sleep.

Personal space refers to the physical area surrounding an individual that is considered personal or private. Typically, when another person intrudes in this area, the individual experiences discomfort.

Territory is defined as a live organism's boundary to determine their demands, mark, and defend it.

Crowd:-Crowds are temporary collection of human beings contrast to groups which are more enduring. While groups have hierarchic structure, there is no such structure in crowds.

13.7. Self-Assessment

1. Most famous supporter of biological perspective of aggression is Abraham Maslow
 - A. John Dollard
 - B. Sigmund Freud
 - C. Neal Miller
 - D. KonradLorenz
2. Which perspective begins with the idea that Human beings are not born with a large array of aggressive responses at their disposal.
 - A. Biological Perspective
 - B. General Aggression Model
 - C. Evolutionary Perspective
 - D. Social Learning Perspective
3. Crowds have a proper structure.
 - A. True
 - B. False
4. Aggression can be reduced by controlling internal mechanisms.
 - A. True
 - B. False
5. According to the general aggression model (GAM), overt aggression is result of
 - A. Situational Factors
 - B. Personal and Situational Factors
 - C. Personal Factors
 - D. None of these
6. What is a bubble or body buffer zone?
 - A. certain individuals in a physical space
 - B. certain distance or physical space between people
 - C. lots of individuals in closed spaces
 - D. no individual in physical space
7. What are at the four major kinds of body - buffer zones
 - A. Territorial, personal, societal, public
 - B. Intimate, personal, social, public
 - C. Territorial, Intimate, Social,Personal
 - D. Public, Intimate, Outer, Social
8. Territories are used to
 - A. Support and clarify social roles
 - B. Regulate interactions
 - C. Minimize conflict

-
- D. All of these
9. What is one of the major features of crowd activity?
- A. Demarcation
 - B. Polarization
 - C. Differential Demarcation
 - D. Delienation
10. Freedom of choice is important in influencing reaction to crowding.
- A. True
 - B. False
11. Generally the crowds tend to form in a
- A. Hexagon
 - B. Rectangle
 - C. Circle
 - D. Square
12. Stimulus Overload occurs when the level and rate of input from the environment exceed the organism's capacity to adjust.
- A. the level and rate of input from the environment exceed the building's capacity to adjust.
 - B. the level and rate of input from the organism exceed the environment's capacity to adjust.
 - C. the level and rate of input from the environment exceed the organism's capacity to adjust.
 - D. All Of The Above
13. Brown divided the crowds into mobs and audiences
- A. Mobs
 - B. Audiences
 - C. Both of these
 - D. None of these
14. Part of our self - identity depends on our ability to regulate our level of contact with other people.
- A. True
 - B. False
15. Which of these is character of territoriality
- A. Ownership or rights of a place
 - B. Personalization or marking of a certain area
 - C. The right to defend yourself from outside interference
 - D. All of these

Answers				
01	02	03	04	05
B	D	B	A	B
6	7	8	9	10
B	B	D	B	A
11	12	13	14	15
C	C	C	A	D

13.8. Review Questions

1. Discuss the various perspectives to aggression.
2. What are the ways to reduce aggression?
3. What are different types of territory?
4. What are the zones of personal space?
5. Discuss the negative impacts of crowd.

Further Readings



Taylor, S.E., Peplau; L.A., Sears., D.O. Social Psychology. Twelfth Edition.
Pearson Education.2006

Unit 14 Social Psychology in Action

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Objectives

This unit will enable you to:

Get an understanding of various health behaviors and attitudes

Define the ways psychology impacts our physical environment;

Understand the various ways of inducing pro-environmental attitudes and behaviors

Explain the role of psychology in legal system

Introduction

Social Psychology in today's times is not only limited to its traditional aspects. It has moved beyond towards areas that are relevant in present times. Be it the changing scenarios of health among population, or ever changing relationship of humans to their physical world or the impact psychology has on legal systems around the world, social psychologists can be found contributing immensely to all these areas. This unit will focus on the ways social psychology can be used to ascertain better understanding of health among population, in helping people to understand dynamics of environmental changes and aiding legal system to deal with dark desires of human nature and mind.

14.1. Social Psychology and Health

Our physical health is affected by a wide range of factors. Both health and illness are determined by a complex interaction among genetic, psychological and social factors (Taylor, 2002). The attitudes and beliefs that we have about health and our lifestyle play a very important role in our health. Many researches show the important role of our behavior in our health. Wiley & Camacho (1980) conducted a study over a ten year period in which many adults were assessed on whether they follow certain health practices like sleeping seven to eight hours each night, eating breakfast, not smoking, drinking no alcohol or in moderation, maintaining weight within normal limits and exercising regularly. Important links between health-related behaviors and personal well-being were found. The participants who reported being involved in all or most of these behaviors were less likely to die during the study period than those who undertook few or none of these behaviors. Since social psychology studies topics which are closely linked to lifestyle like coping with stress, attitudes and beliefs, social support etc, it can contribute a lot to the understanding of the factors affecting health and well-being.

14.1.1. Health Attitudes

Health Behaviors are actions undertaken by healthy people to enhance or maintain their good health. These behaviors include consuming healthful foods; getting regular exercise; avoiding the use of tobacco, alcohol and drugs; getting adequate sleep; using seat belts; using sunscreen; using condoms; controlling weight; and making use of health-screening programs (Taylor, 2003).

Genetic factors play a very important role in how long we are going to live and how healthy we will be in life. But, environmental factors too play a very important role. The attitudes that we hold about our health are really crucial. Levy, Slade, Kunkel & Kasl (2002) conducted a study stretching across 22 years to measure individual's self perceptions of aging. This related to people's beliefs about what would happen to them as they grow older. The participants were divided into two groups- those who had positive perceptions about their aging and those who had negative perceptions. It was found that those with positive beliefs lived on an average seven and a half years longer than those with negative beliefs. This difference is due to the will to live (Levy et al., 2002). Those with positive beliefs perceived their lives as hopeful and worth living and those with negative beliefs perceived their lives as worthless. This could be due to the fact that the positive perception individuals would have taken better care of themselves and hence lived a more healthy lifestyle leading to a longer life. Many studies have also shown that attitudes related to health do not exert a direct influence on health generating behaviors (e.g., McAuley, Pena, Jerome, 2001). Rather, such effects operate through attributions and self-efficacy.

The practice of health behavior centers on five sets of beliefs (eg. Bandura, 1986; Rosenstock, 1966): 1. General health values, including interest in health and concern about health. 2. The perception that the threat to health posed by a disorder or disease is severe. 3. A belief in personal vulnerability to a disorder or disease. 4. A belief that one can perform the response necessary to reduce the threat (self-efficacy). 5. A belief that the response will be effective in overcoming the threat (response efficacy).

Health beliefs predict health behaviors including exercise (Wurtele & Maddux, 1987), brushing and flossing teeth regularly (Tedesco, Keffer, & Fleck-Kandath, 1991), AIDS-preventive sexual behavior (Aspinwall, Kemeny, Taylor, Schneider, & Dudley, 1991), and dieting to control obesity (Uzark, Beeker, Dielman, & Rocchini 1987). Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) gave the reasoned action model which talks about another attitudinal component that predicts health behavior. The theory of reasoned action maintains that a behavior is a direct result of a behavioral intention. Beliefs about one's sense of self-efficacy are also important in the practice of health behavior (Bandura, 1986). Self-efficacy predicts behaviors such as exercise (McAuley, 1993), diet change (Schwarzer & Renner, 2000) etc. Some adverse health behaviors can result from a negative mood and may contribute to some eating disorders (Heatherton, Striipe, & Wittenberg, 1998). Alcohol makes it difficult for people to exert self-control and can increase the likelihood of smoking or unprotected sex in young adults (MacDonald, Zanna, & Fong, 1996). When a health issue is perceived to be personally relevant, it is more likely to be processed systematically through central attitude-change routes; but when an issue is perceived to be less self-relevant, people are more likely to use heuristically based judgment strategies (Rothman & Schwarz, 1998).

14.1.2. Changing Health Attitudes

Persuasive messages that increase feelings of vulnerability as well as increase feelings of self-efficacy and response efficacy might induce people to modify their behaviors. Social psychologists

have undertaken several types of interventions to motivate people to change their health habits. One approach deals with self-affirmation. This works on the idea that when people have an opportunity to affirm important values, their self-image becomes more positive, and this in turn enables them to confront personally relevant, potentially threatening information.

Persuasion and Social Influence in Media Health Coverage

When interactions with other people lead to changes in our attitudes, principles, morals, and behavior, it is known as social influence. Any type of intervention can be used as a form of social influence. Persuasion means a particular type of social influence in which a specific communication or plea is used to try to alter somebody's attitudes or beliefs (DiMatteo & Martin, 2002).

Informational appeals and fear appeals are two types of persuasive messages. Informational appeals deliver facts and arguments to people on the importance to engage in certain health behaviors. An informational message will only be successful in persuading people if it comes from a source that is viewed as reliable, attractive to the target audience, and perceived as alike to the members of audience. The most important aspect for effectiveness of a message is its noticeability for the audience. Fear appeals work on the notion that individuals will give consideration to a message, and try to alter their health behavior, if their related fears are triggered. Fear-victimization paradox refers to the finding that sometimes the people who are most fearful are actually the least likely to be victimized. Family, Peer, and School Influences An individual is influenced by people around him. The family, peers, school etc have immense influence on the life of an individual especially his health behaviors.



https://doi.org/10.1300/J010v17n03_06

14.1.3. Changing Health Behaviors

Some of the most influential theories related to change in health behaviors are: the health belief model, the theory of planned behavior, and the stages of change model.

Health Belief Model: - Various factors ranging from demographic factors, socialization of healthy habits, emotive factors, access to the health habits, health care system's accessibility, and cognitive factors (Taylor, 1991) have an impact on people's healthy behaviors' practices. Cognitive factors like beliefs about the chances of one catching a disease and also the perceptions of how likely it is that particular health practices might promote health or prevent illness. The health belief model (Janz & Becker, 1984; Rosenstock, 1974) deals with these cognitions and how they predict people's health protective behaviors. Health belief model states that our actions that improve our health are dependent upon various variables like general health values, perceived susceptibility to illness, perceptions of illness severity, self-efficacy etc.

Theory of Planned Behavior: - This theory (Ajzen, 1991) maintains that the way to alter people's behavior is to change their behavioral intentions. Behavioral intentions are the best predictors of what people will do. For people to adopt healthier behaviors, they have to change their behavioral intentions. Three factors influence behavioral intentions: attitudes toward the behavior, subjective norms regarding the behavior, and perceived behavioral control. This theory has been applied to a number of different health behaviors and safety practices, including using condoms, using sunscreen while sunbathing, engaging in breast screening practices, performing testicular self-examinations, and participating in exercise (Taylor, 2003).

Stages of Change Model: - This model is developed by Prochaska and DiClemente (1983, 1986). It focuses on how to handle individual differences while trying to change health behaviors. This model classifies people into five stages with respect to making a particular health behavior change. An individual at any given time can be at any of these stages. These stages are: - pre-contemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, or maintenance.

14.2. Social Psychology and Environment

In terms of environmental issues, the role of psychologists is to examine a variety of topics related to preserving the natural environment. The focus of environmental psychologists goes beyond recognizing the ways in which physical environment affects our behavior, thinking, and well-being and includes the ways our behavior affects environment. There are social psychological aspects to

many of these topics: violence in jails; weather and altruism; the design of the built environment in relation to crime, privacy, crowding, and territoriality; the effects of noise and lighting on interpersonal relations; spatial arrangements in offices and schools; social aspects of managing natural resources; and our role in climate change.

14.2.1. Environmental influences on well-being and behavior

Behavior constantly happens in the context of a physical environment. The physical environment plays a crucial role in our thoughts, feelings, performance, behavior and well-being. For instance, many people feel uncomfortable in the heat, and get irritated by others very easily when temperatures are high. Traffic noise may lead to stress and cardiovascular diseases. Due to suburbanization, people have to commute for longer distances. Work performance shows improvement if the work environment is properly illuminated. Poor building design, noise, water pollution and toxic substances all threaten health and well-being, performance and behavior. The extent to which these environmental stressors affect us depends in part on social psychological factors. The relationship between noise level and annoyance is moderated by social psychological factors. Some environmental psychologists dealing with the built environment contribute to better adaptation of buildings to human needs by advising architects and designers in their work. Environmental psychologists have been involved in the planning stages of construction, formal design, have a special role in evaluating completed buildings and also in determining whether the goals set in the planning and design stages were fulfilled in the completed building (e.g., Zeisel, 2006).



Division 34: Society for Environmental, Population and Conservation Psychology members apply psychological knowledge and practice to improve interactions between humans and our natural and built environments.

14.2.2. Effects of behavior on the environment

Conventionally, the focus of environmental psychologists was to understand the ways in which physical environment affects humans. But, recently, the focus has shifted at the reverse relationship: how we affect the environment, like, through our energy, water, vehicle and land use. The use of fossil fuels results in carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions, urbanization and building construction diminishes farmland and natural landscapes and extinction of some animal species because of actions of humans. Environmental psychologists study such interactions between humans and their physical environments.

Environmental quality is seriously threatened all over the world. Some of the most important environmental problems are urban air pollution, noise pollution, shortages in freshwater availability, overfishing of the seas, loss of biodiversity and global warming. Global warming refers to climate change, and, more specifically, to an increase in the earth's average temperature, caused in part by the emission of greenhouse gases, most of which can be attributed to the combustion of fossil fuels (EPA, 2004). Most of these environmental problems are rooted in human behavior. For example, car use contributes to global warming (CO₂ emissions), the fragmentation of natural areas (caused by construction of roads and buildings), noise annoyance and urban air pollution. Consequently, environmental problems can be reduced through changes in human behavior, and social psychologists can play an important role in this respect. Environmental behavior can be defined as behavior that changes the availability of materials or energy from the environment or alters the structure. Pro-environmental behavior is often associated with higher personal costs in terms of time, money or effort). For example, for many people, travelling by public transport is less convenient and attractive than driving a car. Organically grown food is more expensive, and recycling takes effort. Hence, theories/models that examine why people sacrifice personal gains in favor of the common good are especially promising in the environmental context.



Recycling one ton of paper saves 682.5 gallons of oil, 7,000 gallons of water and 3.3 cubic yards of landfill space.

14.2.3. Strategies for inducing Pro-Environmental Behavior

Since humans have greater cognitive capacity than animals, it makes sense to assume that they can anticipate difficulties and think about their solutions. Given the sorry state of affairs as regards the environment, it is very important that urgent steps are taken to safeguard the environment.

Steg and Vlek (2009) put forth four steps to take in the procedure of encouraging pro-environment behavior change:

- 1) Select a particular behavior to be altered which will mend the quality of the environment.
- 2) Inspect the chief factors underlying this behavior.
- 3) Design and apply an intervention to modify the behavior so that its environmental impact can be reduced.
- 4) Meticulously assess the effects of the intervention on the behavior and also on the quality of environmental and human life.

The main actors that underlie pro-environmental behavior (or the absence of it) are a multifaceted combination of ethics, consciousness of the problem, ecological attitudes, a sense of control, ethical and social norms, guilt, and attributions about self and others. The interventions can be divided into two broad categories: antecedent strategies focused on factors that lead the problem behavior (e.g., behavioral commitment, goal setting, information, environmental design) and consequence strategies focused at the consequences that succeed problem behavior (e.g., feedback, rewards) (Steg & Vlek, 2009).

Recycling

Recycling may be not as impactful strategy but nevertheless it is easier to adopt, and is therefore an environmentally valuable act. A study in England (Nigbur & Uzzell, 2010) examined various factors, including attitudes, intents, customs, personal control, identification with one's neighborhood, and self-identity. Attitudes, perceived control, self-identity, and norms predicted the intention to recycle, and these intentions in turn predicted behavior.



Chart out a plan to convince people in your locality to rely more on public transportation and carpooling.

Getting people to drive less

With the rise of the automobile industry more and more people now own cars. Due to this, most people like to travel by their own transport. As a result of this, there is more vehicular traffic on the roads which leads to increasing emission of carbon dioxide leading to increased pollution. This problem can be tackled by encouraging people to use public transport.

Increasing Home Energy Conservation

Schultz, Nolan, Cialdini, Goldstein, and Griskevicius (2007) conducted a study that measured the effect of normative messages in encouraging home energy conservation. The motivation behind these programs is that many individuals overestimate the prevalence of the target behavior and but once their misperceptions are corrected they will engage in fewer undesirable behaviors. This approach, therefore, relies on the influence of a descriptive norm as the actual level of occurrence of the behavior is described. As Schultz and colleagues (2007) point out, whereas many of the social norm-based programs have been successful in accomplishing an overall reduction in undesirable behavior, some have produced no behavior change or even increases in the undesirable behavior. Hence, Schultz and colleagues suggested the possible importance of a second type of norm, an injunctive norm, that is, a norm that communicates/defines what is the culturally appropriate and approved behavior.



Make a list of ways in which you can save energy in your house.

Environmental audits are another approach to home energy conservation. Energy utility companies and governments have tried to induce conservation through programs in which a company representative visits a household and examines its energy-wasting capacity. Then the auditor points out problems, suggests repairs, offers an attractive grant for major refits, and suggests contractors for doing the required work. Therefore, effective interventions aimed at lowering

household energy usage can help in reducing the negative impact of households on the environment.

Changing perceptions, cognitions, motivations and norms

Some interventions are aimed at changing perceptions, cognitions, motivations and norms. This approach expects that people will voluntarily change their behavior in accordance with these interventions. The approach assumes that increased knowledge or positive attitudes will result in more pro-environmental behaviors. Most of these strategies can be described as antecedent strategies, because they target factors that precede behavior. Information campaigns can be aimed at increasing awareness of environmental problems and knowledge about consequences of various alternatives. Information may be provided about desirable social norms. Feedback consists of giving individuals information about extent to which their behavior changes have been successful. Another intervention that can be quite effective in the environmental domain is behavioral commitment that is a written or verbal promise to perform a target behavior. However, interventions often are most effective when they are combined.

Changing the incentives

Changes in incentives may be needed in favor of pro-environmental behaviors by means of consequence strategies. Pro-environmental behavior can be made more attractive by rewarding it, and environmentally unfriendly behavior can be made less attractive by punishing it. Three strategies may be implemented. First, pricing policies can be implemented to reduce the cost of pro-environmental behavior and increase costs for environmentally unfriendly alternatives. Second legal measures can be implemented to check environmentally unfriendly behaviors. Lastly, the availability and quality of products and services can be changed.

14.3. Social Psychology and Law

Social psychology has found application in many important areas like health, work, environment etc. The application of social psychological theory and research has also been done in the field of law, criminal justice and rehabilitation. Social psychology is the study of human behavior in social settings. Since criminal behavior occurs in the social setting, the criminal justice system works in the society too, social psychology plays a very important role in understanding the area of crime as well as law.



Division 41: American Psychology-Law Society promotes the contributions of psychology to the understanding of law and legal institutions, the education of psychologists in legal matters and law personnel in psychological matters, and the application of psychology in the legal system.

14.3.1 Origins of Criminal Behaviour

The following are the various perspectives on the origins of criminal behavior: Biological Theories Biologically based theories emphasize the role of genetics, psychophysiology, and neurological functioning in criminal behavior. Some such studies have noted that sons whose biological parents have a greater tendency to be criminals. Males have a higher tendency for physical aggression than females due to the presence of higher levels of testosterone and an extra Y chromosome XYY. Sociological Theories Sociological theories emphasize the role of various societal factors like social class, poverty, and social inequity in criminal behavior. Socioeconomic status, education, occupation, income, and the characteristics of neighborhood affect criminal behavior. Lower socioeconomic status is highly linked with a higher rate of crime. Subculture theory (Wolfgang & Ferracuti, 1981) states that individuals engaging in criminal activity follow the destructive values of lower-class culture. Social Psychological Theories According to Bandura's (1977) social learning theory, criminal behavior is learned through a person's experiences with the social environment. Andrews and Bonta (2010) gave a general personality and social psychological model of criminal behavior. They proposed that the presence of certain risk factors in an individual's life increase the likelihood that a person will engage in criminal behavior. Eight categories of risk factors are proposed: (i) An early onset of antisocial behavior. (ii) Temperament and personality conducive to criminal activity (iii) Antisocial attitudes and beliefs (iv) Association with peers who are pro crime and isolation from non-criminal peers (v) Negative parenting and family experiences (vi) Low levels of achievement in school or occupation (vii) Poor use of leisure time; low levels of involvement in prosocial leisure pursuits (viii) Abuse of drugs and/or alcohol

14.3.2. Social Psychology and Legal System

Following are the main areas which involve the relationship between social psychology and the legal system:

Eyewitness identification and testimony

Eyewitness error is the one of the main causes of wrongful conviction which could lead to the victimization of many innocent individuals. Eyewitness identifications involve three cognitive processes: acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information. Acquisition is the perceiving and interpreting of information. Storage refers to retaining information in memory. Retrieval is recalling information stored in memory.

The two types of factors that influence eyewitness identification are estimator variables and system variables (Wells, 1978). Estimator variables are the factors related to the eyewitness or the situation, such as viewing opportunity etc. System variables involve factors under the direct control of the legal system such as suggestive questioning etc. Estimator Variables Viewing Opportunity Viewing opportunity refers to how much time and attention were involved in looking at the potential suspects. When witnesses are able to look at faces properly during the acquisition phase, they are more likely to identify faces correctly. Stress and Arousal Individuals experience stress and other negative emotions while witnessing a crime which may interfere with their perception and memory of the event. Weapon Focus The weapon focus effect occurs because witnesses keep focus on the weapons. Own-Race Bias Own race bias refers to the fact that witnesses are more accurate in identifying members of their own race than another race. This occurs due to the out-group homogeneity effect. Retention Interval Retention interval refers to the time that has elapsed after witnessing the event. It has usually been seen that the accuracy of eyewitness identifications decreases with time. System Variables Suggestive Questioning Suggestive questioning refers to fact that sometimes the way witnesses are questioned affects their responses. Some of the questions asked may be suggestive.



Section 134 of the Indian Evidence Act, 1872 qualifies an eyewitness statement as highly valuable evidence as well as strengthens the status of such statements

There are three major explanations about the effect of post-event information on memory. The overwriting hypothesis states that post-event information replaces the information that witnesses perceived and encoded about an event, which changes existing memories permanently (Loftus, 1979). The second is the forgetting hypothesis. According to the source monitoring theory people retain memories of both the original event and post-event information. But witnesses usually have difficulty with source monitoring which refers to the process when people find it difficult to determine from where they acquired various pieces of information. Lineup Biases In police investigations, witnesses are required to identify a suspect who may have committed the crime. The identification procedures include showups and lineups. Showup is a procedure in which a witness is asked to decide whether a single suspect was the one who committed the crime. In simultaneous lineups, potential suspects are lined up and the witness is asked to identify the one who committed the crime. In sequential lineups, potential perpetrators are shown to the witness one by one, and they have to identify whether a person is the perpetrator before seeing the next person.

Assessing Eyewitness Accuracy

One method used to assess eyewitness accuracy involves measuring the length of time a witness takes to make identification. Witnesses who identify a suspect quickly are more likely to be accurate than are witnesses who take longer to make an identification (Dunning & Perreeta, 2002; Smith, Lindsay, & Pryke, 2000).

There are three different types of false confessions (Kassin and Wrightsman, 1985). Sometimes people make voluntary false confessions. Coerced-compliant false confessions are those which occur under pressure and people admit guilt, even though they believe they are innocent. Coerced-internalized false confessions occur when in reality people didn't commit the crime but they start believing that they committed crime. Certain questioning techniques may increase the rate of false confessions. Minimization, happens when interrogators downplay the significance of a crime to make a confession seem less serious (Kassin & McNall, 1991).

14.3.3. Social Psychologist's contribution to Legal System

Social psychologists contribute to the legal system in the following ways:

Expert Testimony Often social psychologists share their knowledge through expert testimony so that judges get a framework for evaluating the evidence in a particular case.

Amicus Curiae Briefs:-Another common role involves amicus curiae or "friend of the court" briefs. Amicus briefs summarize relevant psychological bodies to provide judges information for deciding a particular case. Criminal behavior is usually associated with violating laws. Some crimes are violent offenses which are committed against people directly such as murder, robbery etc while some are nonviolent offenses like fraud, voyeurism etc. Criminal acts can be understood from the perspective of Lewin's field theory where $B = f(P, E)$, whereby Behavior (B) is defined as a function of the person (P), the environment (E), and the interaction between the two.

Understanding the Social Psychology of a Crime

Research on bystander intervention (Darley & Latane, 1968) has shown that many factors influence whether a person will provide help in an emergency situation or not. The bystander effect states that people are less likely to help in an emergency when other bystanders are present. This occurs due to diffusion of responsibility and many other factors like pluralistic ignorance, attributions of responsibility etc.

Research on deindividuation suggests that due to anonymity people may deliberately engage in undesirable behavior. For example, Zimbardo (1989) found that female research participants who wore Ku Klux Klan-type hoods and outfits delivered shocks for twice as long to a confederate as compared to other research participants who wore name tags. Social facilitation (Zajonc, 1965) refers to fact that a person's performance on a well-learned task is enhanced by the heightened arousal caused by the presence of others. Within antisocial peer groups, deviant behavior might be considered "normative".

According to the frustration-aggression hypothesis (Berkowitz, 1989), frustration may lead to aggressive behavior when a new set of potential victims is present. Antisocial behavior may also be influenced by the presence of situational cues that incite the behavior, like proximal variables (occurring close in time to the event) and distal variables (occurring in the distant past to the event).

14.4. Summary

Both health and illness are determined by a complex interaction among genetic, psychological and social factors.

Health Behaviors are actions undertaken by healthy people to enhance or maintain their good health. These behaviors include consuming healthful foods; getting regular exercise; avoiding the use of tobacco, alcohol and drugs; getting adequate sleep; using seat belts; using sunscreen; using condoms; controlling weight; and making use of health-screening programs.

Persuasive messages that increase feelings of vulnerability as well as increase feelings of self-efficacy and response efficacy might induce people to modify their behaviors. Social psychologists have undertaken several types of interventions to motivate people to change their health habits. One approach deals with self-affirmation.

The physical environment plays a crucial role in our thoughts, feelings, performance, behavior and well-being.

Traditionally, environmental psychologists focused on how the physical environment affects us. More recently, much attention is directed at the opposite relationship: how we affect the environment.

Environmental behavior can be defined as behavior that changes the availability of materials or energy from the environment or alters the structure. Pro-environmental behavior is often associated with higher personal costs in terms of time, money or effort.

Since criminal behavior occurs in the social setting, the criminal justice system works in the society too, social psychology plays a very important role in understanding the area of crime as well as law.

14.5. Key Words

Health Behaviors: - They are actions the undertaken by healthy people to enhance or maintain their good health.

Health Belief Model: - Notion that number of factors such as demographic, social, emotional, cultural influence whether people will practice healthy behaviors.

Energy conservation: - It refers to the practice of using less energy in order to lower costs and reduce environmental impact.

Environmental Psychology: - a multidisciplinary field that investigates the effects of the physical environment on human behavior and welfare.

Legal Psychology: - It is the application of clinical specialties to the legal arena.

Eyewitness Testimony: -It refers to an account given by people of an event they have witnessed

14.6. Self-Assessment

1. Health and illness are determined by a complex interaction among
 - A. Genetic, Social Factors
 - B. Genetic, Psychological, Social Factors
 - C. Psychological and Social Factors
 - D. Social and Psychological Factors
2. Persuasive messages might induce people to modify their behaviors as they
 - A. increase feelings of vulnerability
 - B. increase feelings of self-efficacy
 - C. increase response efficacy
 - D. all of these
3. The practice of health behavior centers on which of these beliefs
 - A. General health values
 - B. Self-Efficacy
 - C. Response-Efficacy
 - D. All of these
4. When a health issue is perceived to be personally relevant, it is more likely to be processed through heuristically based judgment; but when an issue is perceived to be less self-relevant, people are more likely to use central attitude-change routes
 - A. True
 - B. False
5. There are two different kinds of persuasive messages
 - A. info-graphical appeals and fear appeals
 - B. logical appeals and abstract appeals
 - C. informal appeals and fact appeals
 - D. informational appeals and fear appeals
6. Prochaska and DiClemente proposed
 - A. Health Belief Model
 - B. Theory of planned behavior
 - C. Stages of change model
 - D. None of these

-
7. _____ model is based on the assumption “Behavioral intentions are the best predictors of what people will do”
- A. Stages of change model
 - B. Theory of Planned Behavior
 - C. Health Belief Model
 - D. All of these
8. Behavioral commitment, goal setting, information, environmental design is examples of
- A. Consequence Strategies
 - B. Antecedent Strategies
 - C. Both of these
 - D. None of these
9. Schultz, Nolan, Cialdini, Goldstein, and Griskevicius (2007) conducted a study of the effect of normative messages in promoting home energy conservation.
- A. True
 - B. False
10. Attitudes towards environment can be changed by changing perceptions, cognitions, motivations and norms
- A. True
 - B. False
11. Programs in which a company representative visits a household and examines its energy-wasting capacity
- A. Environmental Access
 - B. Environmental Audits
 - C. Environmental Cess
 - D. Environmental Vists
12. Andrews and Bonta (2010) proposed that the presence of certain risk factors in an individual’s life increase the likelihood that a person will engage in criminal behavior.
- A. True
 - B. False
13. The bystander effect states that people are less likely to help in an emergency when other bystanders are present.
- A. People do not help others in any situation
 - B. people are less likely to help in an emergency when other bystanders are present.
 - C. people are more likely to help in an emergency when other bystanders are present.
 - D. presence of bystanders has no impact on helping behavior
14. Research on deindividuation suggests that due to anonymity people may deliberately engage in undesirable behavior.
- A. True
 - B. False
15. Which is not a type of false confession?
- A. Voluntary false confessions
 - B. Self Coerced-compliant false confessions
 - C. Minimization

D. Maximization

Answers				
01	02	03	04	05
B	D	D	B	D
6	7	8	9	10
C	B	B	A	A
11	12	13	14	15
B	A	B	A	D

14.7. Review Questions

1. Write a note on health behaviors.
2. What are the various models of changing health behaviors?
3. What are the various strategies for inducing pro-environmental behaviours.
4. Discuss the role of eyewitness testimony?
5. Discuss the role of social psychologist in legal system.

Further Readings



Shelley E Taylor; Letitia Anne Peplau; David O Sears. Social Psychology. Twelfth Edition. Pearson Education.2006

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