UNIT I

LESSON - 1

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY: DEFINITION AND NATURE

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1.0 Aims and Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to

- Define and explain social psychology.
- Explain the factors that affect social interaction of individuals
- Describe the various perspectives of social psychology.

1.1. Introduction

Human life, in fact, is connected by thousands of invisible threads. The places that people live, the situations they meet are all continuously and consistently shape them as well as get shaped by them. The situations an individual meet creates a good number of possibilities for him to behave. Social psychology is a specific branch in psychology that scientifically tries to understand how people influence as well as gets influenced by one another. It is a systematic body of knowledge focusing on the social thinking, social influence and social relations. A fundamental theme of social psychology is to discover how a social situation leads very different people to act very similarly. As well as how very similar people act very differently. Social Psychology is a scientific discipline. It is deeply committed to understand the nature of social behavior and social thought. For this reason it makes sense to describe the filed as a scientific in orientation. Such rich field has a systematic development over the periods of history. And as the field progressed the focusing of its area also get changed. All these processes are presented in this lesson. A
fundamental theme of social psychology is to discover how a social situation leads very different people to act very similarly. As well as how very similar people act very differently.

1.2. Definitions of Social Psychology
The study of Social psychology is found to have been carried out from the very beginning of the scientific study of psychology was born. The history of the subject matter of social psychology seems to be continuously undergoing change adapting to the changing needs of the society. The present day science and technology, specifically, the information arena is getting new shapes and heights, which in turn, brings enormous change in the behavior patterns of every individual. Hence, coming out with a formal definition of social psychology is really a complex task. Every person gets chance to play various types of activities. Due to this every one has to mix with or has to live among the midst of different types of people. In this context, so many physical, social and environmental factors necessarily influence human behavior. Reflecting on the above facts, social psychology can be comprehensively defined as, the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and causes of individual’s behavior and thought in social situations Baron and Byrne (2006). But, the annals of the history of social psychology brings the following definitions as well. Social psychology is an attempt to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals is influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others (Allport, 1985)

1.3. Social Psychology Seeks to Understand the Causes of Social Behavior and Thought
Social psychologists are primarily, interested in understanding the many factors and conditions that shape the social behavior and thought of individuals. Mainly, how individuals form ideas relating to the actions, feelings, beliefs, memories and inferences concerning other persons. A huge number of different factors play a role in this regard. The factors affecting social interaction fall into five major categories. They are, the actions and characteristics of others, basic cognitive processes, ecological variables, cultural context and biological factors.

1.3.1 The Actions and Characteristics of Others
One person’s behavior and their characteristics expressed in the behavior directly influence other person’s feeling and action. For example, suppose you are standing on the railway reservation line. If a stranger goes to the counter straightly without standing on the line, it will defiantly create different types of feelings and as well action from the people who are already waiting in the line. It is clear that the actions of others affect everyone. The behaviors of other persons often exert powerful effects on the behaviors and social thoughts of every individual. For example, When many people are attending a concert in a theatre when a person seated nearby receives a call on his cell mobile phone and begins a loud conversation about very private topics what happens to the people around him? The next idea in this line is that, the behavior of a person often affected by
others appearance. For example, People normally feel uneasy in the presence of a person with a physical disability. People differently behave towards highly attractive person than toward less attractive person.

### 1.3.2 The Cognitive Processes

The Cognitive processes such as perception, memory and inferences play a key role on the understanding and behavior of every individual in the society. Reactions to a certain situation by an individual strongly depend on the memories of others past behaviors and the inferences an individual formed about these behaviors. If anybody wants to clearly understand the causes of others behavior in a social situation it is a must that one should understand what went on in the thinking pattern and understanding process of those people when they behaved in a particular social situation. For example, if your friend fixes an appointment with you in a particular time. You are waiting for him at a particular point in a particular time, if he comes late what would be your reaction. In such a situations, cognitive process plays a crucial role in the social behavior and social thoughts of every individual. A study of how people perceive, think bout and remember information about others are really have a contributing effect of human social behavior. Social cognition is a growing area of social psychology.

### 1.3.3. The Environmental Factors

The weather and the climate a person experiences has a say in his/her behavior. The findings of research indicate the physical environment necessarily influences the feelings, thoughts and behavior of everyone. The climatically conditions make a person either happy or sad. For example, if there is a continuous rain for a few days most of the people’s day to day life gets disturbed. Another example is that people become more irritable and aggressive when the weather is hot and steamy than when it is cool and comfortable. The environmental factors create different types of impact on the perceptual experiences of individuals. The cognitive, affective, interpretive, and evaluative responses of individuals change drastically. Further, if a person is exposes to a particular environment for a long time he or she will adapt to that environment and will feel habituated for that condition. The environmental stimulations facilitate physical and psychological arousals. The increased arousals will either improves or impairs individual performances. Hence, role of environment on the social behavior of individual has become one of the very important factors of study in social psychology.

### 1.3.4. The Cultural Context

People live in different cultural settings. Each culture comes out with its own rules and norms to be systematically followed in different facets of human life cycle. The practices followed in one culture will be different than the other cultures. If a person is hailing from a particular culture he/she has to adapt appropriately the behavior patterns accepted by his/her culture. In all these process an individual is continuously influenced by the culture from which he/she is hailing. Social behavior and social thoughts are often strongly affected by the cultural norms and factors. For example, there are cultural specific behavior patterns exist for the birth of a newborn, the age attainment ceremony, the marriage ceremony, and finally, the funeral ceremony. These are some of the specific cultural behaviors expressed by every culture. The cultural ideas also get changed by the
passage of times. For example, previously love marriages were viewed in negative terms as drastic action but now the cultural beliefs and values about it have changed greatly. But, whatever the changes takes place in a culture, person living in anyone of the cultures is expected to follow the practices of that culture.

1.3.5 The Biological/Evolutionary Factors
This is a new branch of social psychology that seeks to investigate the potential role of genetic factors in various aspects of human behavior. It is also called as genetic factors. According to this view as any other species human beings also have a process of biological, evolution throughout history. This evolutionary process takes three basic components. They are of the view that man is getting emancipated as the generation processed by. Every time man is getting a new height in all his endeavors. This has lead to the possible difference in body shapes and structures, the improved inheritance qualities and better selection of passing the genetic variation to the coming generations. Since the individuals evolutionarily differ on their biological structures their social interactions will also gets varied in nature. The biological inheritance usually affect ones preferences, behaviors, emotions and attitudes. For example, hair color, skin color body structure gets changed from person to person in a long run.

1.4. Social Psychology in the new Millennium
As the Social Psychology tries to understand the individuals thoughts and behaviors in social settings, the subject matter of Social Psychology goes on changing as the years passes by. Due to the tremendous changes happening in the fields, the present day human beings are well advanced in every sphere. The speedy growth found in every areas of human life, the present day subject matter of the social psychology found to incorporate the latest developments into its subject matter. This has led to the changing and formulating of new perspectives in the study of social psychology. Mainly, cognitive perspective, application perspective, multicultural perspectives and evolutionary perspectives have become the focus of research on social psychology.

1.4.1. Cognitive Perspective
Social psychology is the field that studies both social behavior and social thought. The definition reflects the fact that both social psychologist have always been interested in how individuals think about other person and about social situations. The cognitive side of social psychology has grown dramatically in importance. Most social psychologist belief that how people act in various situations are strongly decided by their thoughts. The cognitive perspective and recollected in social psychological research in many ways, but two are most important. First, social psychologists have attended to apply basic knowledge about memory, reasoning and decision making to various aspects of social thought and behavior.

For instance, within this context, researchers have sought to determine whether prejudice stems, at least in the part from our tending to remember only information consistent with stereotypes of various groups, or tendencies to process information about one’s own
social group differently from interaction about other social groups; secondly there has been growing interest in the question of how one process social information.

1.4.2. Multicultural Perspective
As recognition of the importance of cultural, ethnic and gender differences has grown, the field of Social Psychology has adopted an increasingly multicultural perspective, an approach that pays careful attention to the rate of culture and human diversity as factors that influences social behavior and social thought.

1.4.3. Evolutionary Perspective
An important trend in the modern social psychology is the increasing influence of a biological or evolutionary perspective (Buss, 1999). Evidence suggests that biological and genetic factors play a role in many forms of social behavior. Mueller and Mazur (1996) predicted that men who looked dominant would attain higher military rank in their careers than would men who did not look dominant. In general, studies conducted from the evolutionary perspective suggest that biological and genetic factors play some role in many aspects of social behavior.

1.4.4. Application Perspective
A major theme in social psychology today is growing concern with the application of the knowledge gathered by social psychology. An increasing number of social psychologists have turned their attention to questions concerning personal health, the legal process, social behavior in work settings, environmental issues and the study of entrepreneurship.

1.5 Let us Sum Up
Social psychology is the study of human behavior in social situations. It seeks, mainly, to understand the causes of individual’s social behavior and social thought by identifying the factors that shapes human feelings, behaviors and thoughts in social situations. It tries to accomplish this goal through the use of scientific methods. Social psychology takes careful notice of the facts that a wide range of social, cognitive, environmental, cultural and biological factors influence social thoughts and actions of individuals. Speculation about social behavior and thought has continued since antiquity, however, a scientifically oriented field of Social Psychology emerged only during the twentieth century. Once the subject got established it grew rapidly. And Social Psychology currently investigates every conceivable aspect of social behavior and social thought with the help of the cognitive, multicultural, evolutionary and applied perspectives.

1.6 Lesson-end Activities
2. Define Social Psychology? Describe the various perspectives in social psychology.
3. Elaborate the current perspectives of social psychology?

1.7 References
LESSON - 2

UNDERSTANDING THE CAUSES OF OTHERS BEHAVIOR

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2.0 Aims and Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to
  • Define and explain the theories of Attribution
  • Explain errors in Attribution
  • Explain impression formation and management.
  • Explain Asch’s experiment

2.1 Introduction
In day to life, the accurate knowledge of the current moods or feelings of other persons will be highly beneficial for the smooth functioning of an individual. Human beings usually uses various methods to understand the lasting traits or characters of the every individuals whom they interact. They also show interest to know the causes of other persons behaviors. The interest people show in such an understanding stems from the basic desire of human beings to understand the cause-and-effect relationships in the social world (Pittman, 1993). In other words, people not only want to know how others have behaved, but they want to understand why they have behaved so. Because, knowing about others behavior will help people predict the way the other persons will behave in future. This awareness about other persons’ behavior will enable an individual to have effective and appropriate interaction with others. The process through which an individual collects the information about others is termed as attribution. In fact, every one takes some effort to understand the causes relating to other person’s behavior and at times, his/her behavior as well. It is also normally found in society that everyone continuously make it his/her business to explain other person’s behavior. Social Psychologists try to explain how everyone explains the reasons for other’s behavior. Further, they also analyze and discuss why things happen as they do, especially when to experience something negative or unexpected from others, etc (Bohner & et.al., 1988; Weines,1985). Studies on attribution have been carried out for many years in the field of Social Psychology. Hence, a good number of theories and explanations are available on the topic attribution. They are presented below.

2.2 Definitions on Attribution
Since lot of research has been carried out on attribution, the literature carries different types of definition on attribution. A more clear definition is stated by Baron in 2007 is, “the process through which an individual seeks to identify the causes of others behavior and so gain knowledge of their stable traits and dispositions. Attribution is referred as an individual’s efforts to understand the causes behind others behavior on some occasions. The theories of attribution analyses how people explain other persons behavior.

2.3 Theories of Attribution
The meaning and definition of attribution is such a complex one different persons have come out with various kinds of theories to elaborate attribution. People tend to attribute someone’s behavior or the outcome of an event either to internal factors or to external factors. The internal factor means dispositional factors such as the particular person’s biological or psychological causes. On the contrary the external factor means situational factors such as, environment and other persons are the causes.

2.3.1 Dispositional Attribution
Attributing behavior to the person’s disposition and traits. For example, the motivation, the intelligence and the effort of the individual are considered as dispositional factors.

2.3.2 Situational Attribution
Attributing behavior to the environment. For example, good whether, parental support, good friends and effective teacher are considered as situational factors. The following interesting example will clearly explain the dispositional and situational factors people
use in understanding the causes of other’s behavior. A teacher may wonder a child’s underachievement is due to lack of motivation and ability (a dispositional attribution) or to physical and social circumstances (a situational attribution).

2.3.3 Jones and Davis (1965) theory of correspondence interference

This theory tries to explain the specific traits or dispositions that remain fairly stable over time in an individual, which are the causes for that person’s behavior in day-to-day life situations. The authors emphasize that by observing others behavior directly for a quite some time people come to a conclusion for the reasons other’s behavior. This idea may seem to be a very easy one but it is not so. The reason is that every individual come out with complex of behavioral patterns every time. A person may act in a particular manner not because of his or her own preferences but may also be due to external pressure. For example, if a child is crying, it doesn’t mean that it needs sweet but it may be due to his mother might have gone to next room leaving her alone. The child may behave calm and quite in general the crying behavior may be rare occurrence. Situations like this are quite common in a family. If one doesn’t know the child’s normal behavior he/she may misleading the attribute the reasons.

Jones and Davis have explained that using certain specific types of information people normally attribute or otherwise understand or explain the causes of others behavior. Both of them have found out that the following three specific types of information’s people use in understanding other’s behavior.

- **Noncommon effects**: This is a specific factor, which leads to a particular behavior from an individual, which cannot be found in any other persons.
- **Low Social desirability**: This is the behavior expressed by the individual in a particular situation is a peculiar one which other individual in the same situation will not express such behavior.

According to the theory proposed by Jones and Davis it is evident that others behavior reflects there normal, stable traits. That is, people arrive correspondent inferences regarding other’s behavior when that person’s behavior is freely chosen, comes out distinctive noncommon effect and is in fact low in social desirability.

2.3.4. Kelly’s (1972) Theory of Casual Attribution

This theory attempts to explain why people behave in a particular manner and what are the major reasons for their behavior. Everyone wants to know why other persons have behaved in a particular way? Unless a person is able to understand the causes behind others behavior he/she may not be able to manage the social world appropriately. To understand others behavior, generally, persons think either the other person behaves mainly from his/her internal causes such as traits motives and intentions or from external causes such as physical world society norms etc. At times, people may also think both causes in combination might have contributed for a particular behavior.
Kelly explains people use three major sources of information in order to understand the causes of others behavior. They are:

- **Consensus**: The extent to which other persons react to some stimulus or even in the same manner as the person we are considering
- **Consistency**: The extent to which an individual responds, to a given stimulus or situation in the same way on different occasions.
- **Distinctiveness**: The extent to which an individual responds in the same manner to different stimuli or events.

These three factors – consensus, consistency, and distinctiveness – influence whether to attribute someone’s behavior to internal or external causes. For example, If Mary and many others criticize Steve (with consistency) and if Mary is not critical of other’s (high distinctiveness) then to make an external attribution (it’s something about Steve). If Mary alone (low consensus) criticize Steve, and if she criticizes lots of other people, too (low distinctiveness) then to drawn to an internal attribution (it’s something about Mary).

### 2.3.5. Commonsense Attribution

Commonsense psychology often explains behavior logically. But Kelly also found that people often discount a contributing cause of behavior if other plausible causes are already known.

### 2.4. Errors in Attribution

The attribution researchers have found a common problem with our attributions, When explaining someone’s behavior, to often underestimate the impact of the situation and overestimate the extent to which it reflects the individual’s traits and attitudes.

#### 2.4.1. Fundamental Attribution Error: (observers underestimating the situations)

The tendency for observers to underestimate situational influences and overestimate dispositional influences upon others behavior. This type of error is also called as correspondence bias, because often people see the behavior as corresponding to a disposition only.

The fundamental attribution error in everyday life;

- His own behavior people often explain in terms of the situation. For example, X was angry because everything was going angry.
- When inferring individual’s behavior typically people use the verbs that describe his or her own actions and reactions.
- In real life, these with social power usually initiate and control conversations, which often leads underlines to overestimate their knowledge and intelligence. For example, Medical Doctors are often presumed to be experts on all sorts of questions related to medicine.
• To illustrate the fundamental attribution error most of the people need look no further than their own experiences.
• Attributions of responsibility are of the heart of many judicial decisions (Fincham & Jaspais, 1980)

2.4.2. Perspective and situational awareness on Attributional Errors

• An actor observer difference: attribution theorists point out that to observe others from a different perspective than to observe ourselves (Jones & Nisbett., 1971., Lones 1976)
• When to act the environment commands our attention: When to watch another person act, that person occupies the center of our attention and the environment becomes relatively invisible.
• The camera perspective bias in some experiments, people have viewed a videotape of a suspect confessing during a police interview (Lassiter & others., 1986). The camera perspective influenced people’s guilt judgments even when the judge instructed them not to allow it to (Lessiter, et. al., 2002).

2.5 Self – Awareness
Circumstances can also shift our perspectives on ourselves. Seeing ourselves on television redirects our attention to ourselves, seeing ourselves in a mirror, hearing our tape – recorded voices, having our pictures taken to focus the attention inward, making us self – conscious instead of situation – conscious. A self – conscious state in which attention focuses on oneself. If makes people more sensitive to there own attitudes and dispositions.

2.6 Cultural differences
Cultures also influence the attribution error (Ickes, 1980., Watson, 1982). A western worldwide predisposes people to assume that people, not situations, cause events internal explanations are more socially approved (Jettison & Green, 1981) The fundamental attribution error occurs all cultures studied (Krull & others, 1999). Some languages promote external attributions in collectivist cultures; people less often perceive others in terms of personal dispositions (Lee & others, 1996). Psychology students explain behavior less simplistically than similarly intelligent natural science students (Fletcher & others, 1986). So remembering this overriding aim – developing our capacity for critical thinking.

2.7 Impression Formation and Management
The old saying, “first impression is the best impression” has an effective meaning even in today’s social world. When one meets a person first time whatever the person says, behaves or even the silent language has an influencing effect on the way he or she behaves with that person. The first impression the person makes shapes the entire future interaction with that person. Social Psychologists have come out with interesting research findings to explain the role of impression formation on human social behavior. They’re of the opinion that cognitive processes plays an important role in the process of impression
formation. The impression formation and management becomes an important topic of study in social psychology.

2.7.1. Impression Formation
It is a process through which an individual forms impressions about others. Every individual organizes information about another person to form an overall impression of that person. Impression formation focused on the way in which people pay particular attention to certain unusually important traits – known as central traits – to help them to form an overall impression of others.

2.7.2. Asch’s Experiment
Solomon Asch (1976) has presented an interesting note regarding forming first impressions. He says that, “we look at that person and immediately certain impression of his character forms in us. A glance, a few spoken words are sufficient tell us a story about a highly complex matter ……”. According to him everyone collects pieces of information and forms a full picture of others. During the time of Asch research gestalt psychologist came with a idea of “the whole is greater than the sum of its parts”. That is gestalt psychologist suggest that people interpret and understand the world only in terms of its relationships to other part of the world. Taking the lead from the gestalt psychologist Asch states that people do not form impressions simply by adding together all of the characters or traits they observe in other persons but they perceive this characters and traits in relation to one another. People understand other person as integrated dynamic whole rather than single characters or traits. To explain this idea, Asch has conducted a novel technique. He simply gave individuals list of characters or traits supposedly possessed by an unknown person and asked them to indicate their impression of that person. For example, he gave the following to lists of characters to the subjects:

Intelligent- Skillful – Industrious- Warm- Determined- Practical- Cautious
Intelligent- Skillful – Industrious- Cold- Determined- Practical- Cautious

The differences between the above two lines are the words warm and cold. Other characters remaining same, anyone will feel that any subject in this experiment will give same type of assessment regarding these two sentences. But, on the contrary, subjects who read the list containing the word warm indicated that the stranger is a generous, happy, good nurtured, sociable, and popular. The subjects who have read the list containing the word cold rated the stranger as just opposite. Asch concluded his research stating that certain traits normally called as central traits strongly shaped overall impressions of the stranger and colored the other adjectives in the list as well. Hence, Asch has summarized forming impression of others involves more than simply adding together individual characters or traits. He further, states that information received tends to be weighted more heavily than information received later. This idea is known as primacy effect.

2.7.3. Central Traits
A set of major characteristics that makes up the core of a person’s personality it considered in forming impressions of others. In one classic study, students were told that
they were about to hear a guest lectures (Kelley, 1950). One group of students was told the lecturer was “a rather warmer person, industrious, critical, practical, and determined”, while the second group was told that he was “rather cold person, critical, practical, and determined”. The simple substitution of “cold” for “warm” was responsible for drastic differences in the way of the students in each group perceived the lecturer even though he gave the same talk in the same style in each condition. Students who had been told he was “warm” rated him considerably more positively than students who had been told he was “cold”. The findings from this experiment led to additional research on impression formation that focused on central traits. According to this work, the presence of a central trait alters the meaning of other traits. (Asch, 1946; Widmyer & hoy, 1988). The schemas to employ are susceptible to a variety of factors that affects the accuracy of our judgments (Kenny, 1991; Bernieri et al, 1994). For ex; our mood affects how to perceive others. People who are happy from more favorable impressions and make positive judgments those people who are in a bad mood (Forgas & Berner, 1987; Esber, 1981) Even when schemas are not entirely accurate, they serve an important function. They allow us to develop expectations about how others will behave, permitting us to plan our interactions with others more easily and serving to simplify the complex world.

2.7.4 Impression Management
Self – presentation refers to one wanting to present a desired impact both to an external audience (other people) and to an internal audience (ourselves). To work at managing the impressions to create, to excuse, justify, or apologize as necessary to shore up our self – esteem and verify our self – images (schlenker & weigold, 1992). People, in general, use lot of techniques, either directly or indirectly, to manage their impression to others. The reason is that the early impressions decide whether a social interaction is positive or negative. Favorably impressing other person will create a cordial relationship between two individuals. Hence, people spent lot of time on this issue

2.7.5 The Fine Art of Looking Good
Presenting oneself good or positive gains important advantage in many situations. There are number of techniques people use to manage their impressions. Mainly two major categories get the attention of the social psychologists.

- Self-Enhancement: Efforts to boost ones own image
- Other-Enhancement: Efforts to make the other person feel good in his presence.

**Self- Enhancement:** It includes efforts made by a person his own appearance. This can be achieved through changing the dress style, grooming personal appearance for this people use things such as cosmetics, hairstyles, use of perfume or cologne. Further judiciously using the nonverbal cues or their mannerism people try to achieve self-enhancement. Research carried out by Forsythe, Drake and Cox (1985) showed that women who dress in a professional manner where often evaluated for management positions than women who dress in a more traditionally famine manner. People even take risks in the self-enhancement process. The findings of the study Sharp and Getz (1996) found that some people who drink alcohol as a technique to impress others.
**Other-Enhancement:** In order to impress others people at times use flattering as a technique that is agreeing every views of the other person, showing high interest doing small favors to them, asking their advice and feedback. In total using verbal and non-verbal methods to create they like the other person (Wayne and Ferris, 1990).

A systematic research on this topic showed that if these techniques are used with skill and care all the techniques can bring favorable help to the person who uses them.

### 2.8 Minimizing The Impact of Attribution Errors

Attribution at times generates errors in perception. The net result will be very costly. Hence, it is better to avoid attribution are minimize the errors in attribution. Social Psychologists come out with three methods to minimize the attribution errors they are:

- **The Correspondence Bias** otherwise termed the fundamental attribution error. There is a strong tendency to attribute other’s behavior to internal causes even though strong external factors might have contributed to such behavior. To reduce this type of errors social psychologist have suggested that try to put yourself in the shoes of the person whose behavior you are explain. This is nothing but trying to see the world through the other person’s eyes.

- **The actor-observer effect** People have strong tendency to attribute their own behavior to external cause but of others to internal causes. This will lead to false generation about other. To minimize this type of error individuals should raise questions in their mind why would they have acted in that way. Asking such a question will bring out the internal causes for their own behavior.

- **The self-serving bias** this is nothing but attributing positive outcome to internal causes such as the persons own abilities or efforts. On the contrary negative happenings to external factors such as luck or chance. To minimize these type of error person’s must be simply be aware that all the good happenings are not his/her own contribution all the times at the same time negative happenings may also be caused by his/her own actions.

### 2.9. Let us Sum Up

Two major points have been discussed in this lesson. The first one is understanding the causes of others behavior that is attribution. The second one is impression formation and impression management. By attributing ideas or information people understand the causes of other’s behavior. Just by observing the verbal and nonverbal information people try to attribute others behavior. Even though it helps in understanding other’s behavior it also brings the wrong idea on others. In the same way just with few information people try to form impression on others, here again both correct as well as incorrect impressions people get. The first impression creates an wonderful
understanding on others; people use lot of methods for impression management. In all these activities there is a possibility of errors in judgment. To minimize the mistakes, social psychologists have brought out effective strategies.

2.10 Lesson-end Activities
1. Define Attribution. Explain the theories of attribution
2. Briefly describe attribution errors
3. Discuss the role of impression formation on the individual.
4. Discuss Kelly’s Theory of Casual Attribution.

2.11 References

LESSON - 3

SOCIAL COGNITION: THINKING ABOUT THE SOCIAL WORLD

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3.0 Aims and Objectives

After studying this unit, you should be able to

- Describe schemas, Heuristics and errors in social cognition.

3.1. Introduction

Understanding others behaviors and the social events are highly useful for the better social living. Human mind continuously collects every bit of information from the social world and tries to know why this happens. In fact, every human being in his or her own way interprets, analyses, remembers, and uses the information regarding the social world. These qualities, otherwise, are called as social cognition. There are several points about human cognition. It is the essence of the human mind, how it works and how one understands the world around him. This forms the basis of social cognition. Social Psychologists use this term to refer to the ways one interprets, analyze, remember and use information about the social world. In short how one thinks about others. Social cognition is the manner in which one interprets analyzes and uses information about the social world.

Social cognition is an very important area of research in Social Psychology. To get familiar with some of the truly fascinating aspects of social thought, a detailed understanding of the following terms are essential. Firstly, a basic component of social thought is the Schemas. These are mental frameworks that allow the individual to organize large amount of information in an efficient manner. That is, human mind in order to have easy functioning simplifies the information and makes it meaningful representation of every event. Once schemas are formed these frameworks exert strong effects on social thought, effect that are always not beneficial from the point of view of accuracy. Secondly, the Heuristics, other wise called as mental shortcuts; the techniques people use to reduce the cognitive effort. The study on social cognition brings out another interesting findings, that is, as people use the above two types of methods to understand the behavior and the social events there is a possibility of committing errors. They are called as Errors in Social Cognition. Finally, the social cognition is directly influenced by another psychological factor called affect or feelings or emotions. All these points are narrated in this lesson.

3.2 Schemas: Mental Framework for organizing and using Social Information

Schemas are mental frameworks centering on a specific theme that help the individual to organize social information. Once schema is formed, they exert powerful effects on several aspects of social cognition and social behavior. Research findings suggest that
schemas exert strong effects on three basic processes. Attention, encoding and retrieval. Attention refers to the processes through which one notices, encoding refers to the processes through which information one notices get stored in the memory. Finally, retrieval refers to the processes though which one recovers from memory in order to use in some manner, for example in making judgments about other people. Schemas have found to influence all of the basic aspects of social cognition. Sometimes schemas produce effects, which are described as self-fulfilling prophecy predictions that make themselves come true.

3.3 Heuristics, the mental short cuts
The sense organs are always alert and receive information. At times, this will lead to a state of information overload which cannot be handled by the individual’s cognitive system. Such a situation may arise very often to every individual. Every individual adopts various strategies to stretch the cognitive resources. To be successful, such strategies must meet two requirements. They must provide a quick and simple way of dealing with large amount of social information and they must work, reasonable accurate much of the time. Many potential shortcuts for reducing mental effort exist but among these the most useful are heuristics. Heuristics are simple rules for making complex decisions or drawing inferences in a rapid and seemingly effortless manner. There are different types of heuristics. They are:

- **Representative Heuristics**: Strategy for making judgments based on the extent to which current stimuli or events resemble other stimuli or categories.

- **Availability Heuristics**: Strategy for making judgments on the basis of how easily specific kinds of information can be brought to mind.

- **False Consensus Effect**: The tendency to assume that others behave or think as people do to a greater extent than is actually true.

- **Priming**: Effect that occurs when stimuli or events increase the availability of specific types of information in memory or consciousness.

- **Automatic Priming**: Effect that occurs when stimuli of which individuals are not consciously aware alter the availability of various traits or concepts in memory.

3.4 Errors in Social Cognition
Every one in his or her own way uses certain methods to understand the information that he or she receives from the social world. This process normally facilitates errors in the mental process or social cognition. One point every one should keep in mind is that though there is a possibility of committing error in our mental processes, social cognition is help every one to concentrate on important points and leaves the rest. The errors or tilts in social cognition formed in different ways. They are presented below.

3.4.1 Negative and Optimistic Bias
The Negativity bias refers to the fact that one shows greater sensitivity to negative information than to the positive information. Negative reflection reflects features of the external world that may be threatening to the safety and security of the individual. Several research findings offer support for this reasoning. For example, the ability to recognize facial expression of others at times people focus only on the negative features of the face. The results of many studies indicate that individuals are faster and more accurate in detecting negative facial expressions than positive facial expressions. The Optimistic bias refers to the predisposition to expect things to turn out well overall. This tendency is seen in many different contexts, most people believe that they are more likely than others to get a job, happy marriage and live to a ripe old age, but less likely to experience negative outcomes such as being fired, getting seriously ill or being divorced. (Schwarzer, 1994). Yet another example is with respect to planning fallacy. The tendency to believe that one can get more done in a given period of time than one actually can. Research suggests that another factor can play an important role in planning fallacy. It is referred to as motivation to complete a task. When predicting what will happen individuals often guess that what will happen is what they want to happen. In cases in which they are strongly motivated to complete a task they make overoptimistic predictions concerning when this desired state of affairs would occur.

3.4.2 Cost of Thinking Too Much
There are many instances in which the individual adopts an intuitive approach to thinking about the social world. Yet there are other instances in which one tries to be as rational and systematic as possible in the thought despite the extra effort this involves. To determine if this actually happens Wilson and Schooler (1991) compared the judgments made by the participants who analyzed the reasons behind their ratings, and the judgments made by those who did not with ratings by a panel of experts persons who make their living comparing various products. Participants who simply rated the jams agreed much more closely with the experts than did participants who tried to report the reasons to the various jams. Similar findings have been obtained in several related studies, so there appear to be strong grounds for concluding that, thinking too much can get in to serious trouble.

3.4.3 Counterfactual Thinking
Thoughts such as counterfactual thinking occur in a wide range of situations not just the ones in which one-experience disappointments. Counterfactual thinking is the tendency to imagine other outcomes in a situation than the ones that actually occurred to think about. “What might have been”. Counterfactual thinking involves imaging better outcomes than actually occurred and is closely related to the experience of regret. These regrets seem to be more intense when they involve things that the individual did not doubt or wish he/she had rather than things the individual did do that turned out poorly. Neal Roese(1997) a social psychologist who had conducted many studies on counterfactual thinking, engaging in such thought can yield a wide range of results. Some of which are beneficial and some are costly to the persons involved. An effect of counterfactual thinking, is anticipating that the individual will engage in it, known as inaction inertia. This occurs when an individual has decided not to take some action and loses the opportunity to gain a positive outcome. Recent research findings that human
beings are susceptible to magical thinking. These are thinking involving assumptions that don’t hold up rational scrutiny, the belief that things that resemble one another share fundamental properties. One principle of magical thinking is the law of contagion. It holds that when two objects touch, they pass properties to one another and the effects of that contact may last well beyond the end of the contact between them. Another is the law of similarity, which suggests that things that resemble one another share basic properties. In short, thinking about many situations including social ones is influenced by magical thinking.

3.4.4 Thought Suppression
At some time or the other, everyone has tried to suppress certain thoughts to keep ideas and images from coming in to the consciousness. Basically, this is referred to as thought suppression, which simply means efforts to prevent certain thoughts from entering the consciousness. According to Daniel Wegner a social psychologist that has studied thought suppression, efforts to keep thoughts out of consciousness involve two components. Firstly, there is an automatic monitoring process, which searches for evidence that unwanted thoughts are about to intrude. Secondly, is the operating process involves effortful conscious attempts to distract oneself by finding something else to think about. Under normal circumstances, the two processes do a good job of suppressing unwanted thoughts. When information overload occurs or when individuals are fatigued, the monitoring process continues to identify unwanted thoughts but the operation process is no longer has the resources to keep them from entering consciousness. The result, is the individual experiences a pronounced rebound effect in which the unwanted thoughts occur at even higher rate than was true before efforts to suppress them.

3.5. Let us Sum Up
Human beings always notice the surrounding, interpret them and remember them for later use. The executions of all these things are carried out by social cognition. Social Psychologists view that people use mental frameworks, mental models to understand their social world. Since enormous information’s are continuously received by the human mind, people use shortcuts to process the information’s.

3.6 Lesson-end Activities
1. Write an essay on Social Cognition.
2. Describe the role of Heuristics in the individual’s social world.
3. Narrate the various errors in Social cognition.

3.7 References
UNIT II

LESSON - 4

BEHAVIOR AND ATTITUDES

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4.0 Aims and Objectives
After studying this unit, you should be able to
• Describe the various learning principles
• Explain attitudes
• Describe persuasion and cognitive dissonance

4.1. Introduction
In the ever changing and developing the world, leading a successful and meaningful life, in fact, is a difficult task for anyone. But, the human mind uses a unique way to solve this problem. Every individual tries to form his or her lasting evaluations of every aspects of the social world. The past experiences and present learning helps in a big way to understand clearly the various happenings of an individual’s social life. This lesson clearly brings out the related topics on attitude formation, changing attitudes and its related points.

4.2 Definition of Attitudes
Social Psychologists refer attitude to people’s evaluation of virtually any aspect of the social world. People can have favorable or unfavorable reactions to issues, ideas, specific individuals, entire social groups and objects. And again, the individuals mixedly form the positive or negative attitudes. The definitions of attitudes are large in number. Some of the important ones are presented here below. Attitudes are enduring “residues of experience” or “acquired behavioral disposition” (Donald Campbell, 1963). Another definition is that Attitudes are best described as determinant or consequences of beliefs and behavioral intentions (Fishbein, 1980). Some other psychologists have defined Attitudes as associations between attitude objects (virtually any aspect of the social world) and evaluations of those objects (Fazio & Roskos – Ewoldsen, 1994).

4.3 Forming Attitudes

Attitude is considered to be the central theme in social Psychology. Generally, it refers to an individual’s evaluation about the social world. The extend to which people have favorable or unfavorable reactions to any issues, ideas, persons, social groups or objects. Attitude is one of the seriously researched topic in social psychology. The reason is that attitudes strongly influence human thoughts, feelings and behaviors. The evaluation an individual makes about his or her world is very important one. It forms the basis of social cognition. Eagly & Chaiken (1998) suggest that social thoughts are slowly and steadily build by attitudes. Attitudes are learned. Some evidence suggests that attitudes may be influenced by genetic factors too.

For example, on individual may like vegetarianism another may like non-vegetarianism. One may have a positive approach to one political party another may have a total negative approach to that party. Certain Social Psychologists of view that at times people take neither positive nor negative stand instead they take a middle stand, otherwise called ambivalent (Priester & Petty, 2001; Thomson, Anna & Griffin, 1995). It is also an important point that people find it very difficult to change any attitude.

4.4 Social Learning

Most of human behaviors are acquired or learned from the new information, the patterns of behaviors in social situation or the attitudes of other persons only. While interacting with others as well as by observing or watching the behaviors expressed by the people around every one people learn the style of behaving in such a situations. In short, this process is called as social learning. Psychologists have also given various methods of learning principles people use in acquiring others behavior. Thy are presented below.

4.4.1 Classical Learning: Learning based on Association

Basic form of learning in which one stimulus, initially neutral, acquires the capacity to evoke reactions through repeated pairing with another stimulus. Studies indicate that classical conditioning can occur below the level of conscious awareness – even when people are not aware of the stimuli that serve as the basis for this kind of conditioning.

In yet another study (Krosnick, et al., 1992) students saw photos of a stranger engaged in routine daily activities such as shopping in a grocery store or walking into her apartment. While these photos were shown, other photos, known to induce either positive or
negative feelings, were exposed for very brief periods of time – group of participants was exposed to photos that induced positive feelings (e.g., a bridal couple, people playing cards and laughing) while another was exposed to photos that induced negative feelings (open-heart surgery, a werewolf). Later both groups expressed their attitudes toward the stranger. Results indicate that even though participants were unaware of the photos, these stimuli significantly affected their attitudes toward the stranger. Those exposed to the positive photos reported more favorable attitudes toward this person than those exposed to the negative photos.

These findings suggest that attitudes can be influenced by Subliminal Conditioning – classical conditioning that occurs in the absence of conscious awareness of the stimuli involved.

4.4.2 Muscle Movements and Attitudes Formation
Studies indicate an even more surprising mechanism for the conditioning – and hence formation – of Attitudes. This mechanism involves the movement of certain muscles and appears to involve a very basic fact: we draw things we like toward ourselves by flexing our arm muscles, but push things we do not like away by extending our arm muscles. Apparently, the association between these muscle movements and positive or negative feelings can serve as the basis for attitude conditioning.

4.4.3 Instrumental Conditioning: learning to state the “Right” views
This is a basic form of learning in which responses that lead to positive outcomes or that permits avoidance of negative outcomes is strengthened. By rewarding children with smiles, approval, or hugs for stating the “right” views - the ones they themselves favor parents and other adults play an active role in shaping youngsters’ attitudes

4.4.4 Modeling: Learning by Example
Individuals also learn many things and new forms of behaviors merely through observing the actions of others. One important thing is that with regard the formations of different types of attitudes, mainly everyone uses modeling. Through these process only children form attitudes even when parents have no desire to transmit specific views to their children. For example, If a parent who smokes tells his son not to smoke, the children learn to do what their parents do and not what they say.

4.4.5 Social Comparison and Attitude Formation
The process through which individuals compare themselves with others in order to determine whether their view of social reality is or is not correct. On some occasions, moreover, the process of social comparison may contribute to the formation of new attitudes, one’s that individuals didn’t previously hold.

4.5 Genetic Factors
Genetic factors can influence our height, eye color, and physical characteristics, the idea that they might also play a role in our thinking seems strange, to say the least. In fact, a
small but growing body of empirical evidence indicates that genetic factors may play some small role in attitudes (e.g., Arvey et al., 1989; Keller et al., 1992).

Most of this evidence involves comparisons between identical and nonidentical twins. Because identical twins share the same genetic inheritance while nonidentical twins do not, higher correlations between the attitudes of the identical twins would suggest that genetic factors play a role in shaping such attitudes. This is precisely what has been found: the attitudes of identical twins do correlate more highly than those of nonidentical twins. (e.g., Waller et al., 1990).

4.6 Attitudes Influence on Behavior
Social psychologists came with lot of research evidences that attitudes influence human behavior. For example, if one believes that a person is threatening, he may feel dislike and therefore act unfriendly with that person. It seems several factors determine the extent to which attitudes influence human behavior. To say a few, the situation, features of the attitude and strength of the attitude decides the effect of influence on behavior.

4.6.1. Attitudes, Reasoned Thought, and Behavior
The first of these mechanisms seems to operate in situations where to give careful, deliberate thought to our attitudes and their implications for our behavior. For example, in their theory of planned behavior, Ajzen & Fishbein (1980) suggest that the best predictor of how to act in a given situations is the strength of our intentions with respect to that situation (Ajzen, 1987).

Perhaps a specific example will help illustrate the eminently reasonable nature of this assertion. Suppose a student is considering body piercing – for instance, wearing a nose ornament. According to Ajzen and Fishbein, these are strongly influenced by three key factors.

The first factor is the person’s attitude toward the behavior in question. If the student really dislikes pain and resist the idea of someone sticking a needle through his nose, his intention to engage in such behavior may be weak.

The second factor relates to the person’s beliefs about how others will evaluate this behavior (this factor is known as subjective norms). If the students think that others will approve of body piercing, his intention to perform it may be strengthened. If he believes that others will disapprove of it, his intention may be weakened.

Finally, intentions are also affected by perceived behavioral control – the extent to which a person perceives a behavior as hard or easy to accomplish. If it is viewed as difficult, intentions are weaker than if it is viewed as easy to perform. Together, these factors influence intentions; and these, in turn, are the predictor of the individual’s behavior.

4.6.2. Attitudes And Immediate Behavioral Reactions
The model described above seems to be quite accurate in situations where to have the time and opportunity to reflect carefully on various actions. But in some situations to have to act quickly. For example, a panhandler approaches on a busy street, in such situations; attitudes seem to influence behavior in a more direct and seemingly automatic manner.

According to one theory – Fazio’s attitude – to – behavior process model (Fazio & Roskos – Ewoldsen, 1994) – the process goes something like this. Some event activates an attitude; the attitude, once activated, influences our perceptions of the attitude object. At the same time, our knowledge about what’s appropriate in a given situation (our knowledge of various social norms) is also activated. Together, the attitude and this stored information about what’s appropriate or expected shape our definition of the event; and this definition or perception, in turn, influences our behavior. Let’s consider a concrete example.

Imagine that a penhandler does approach a person on the street. This event triggers his attitudes toward panhandlers and also his understanding about how people are expected to behave on public streets. Together, these factors influence the definition of the event, which might be “Oh no, another one of those worthless bums!” This definition of the event then shapes our behavior.

In short, it appears, that attitudes affect our behavior through at least two mechanisms, and that these operate under somewhat contrasting conditions. When to have time to engage in careful, reasoned thought, it can weigh all the alternatives and decide, quite deliberately, how to act. Under the hectic conditions of everyday social life, however, to often don’t have time for this kind of deliberate weighing of alternatives; in such cases, our attitudes seem to shape our perceptions of various events, and hence our immediate behavioral reactions to them.

4.7 Persuasion: Changing the Attitudes.
The process by which a message induces change in beliefs, attitudes, or behaviors. Joseph Goebbels, Germany’s minister of “popular enlightenment” and propaganda from 1933 to 1945, understood the power of persuasion. Given control of publications, ratio programs, motion pictures, and the arts, he undertook to persuade Germans to accept Nazi ideology. Julius Streicher, another member of the Nazi group, published Der Sturmer, a weekly anti-Semitic (anti-Jewish) newspaper with a circulation of 500,000 and the only paper read cover to cover by his intimate friend, Adolf Hitler. Streicher also published anti-Semitic children’s books and, with Goebbels, spoke at the mass rallies that became part of the Nazi propaganda machine.

4.7.1. Cognitive Approach
Understanding the entire process of persuasion – is really a cognitive one. Process of persuasion contain in two distinct ways.
First of these is known as systematic processing or the central route, and it involves careful consideration of message content and the ideas it contains. Such processing is quite effortful, and absorbs much of our information – processing capacity.

The second approach, known as heuristic processing or the peripheral route, involves the use of simple rules of thumb or mental shortcuts – such as the belief that “experts statements can be trusted” to the idea that “if it makes me feel good, I’m in favor of it.” This kind of processing is much less effortful and allows us to react to persuasive messages in an automatic manner. It occurs in response to cues in the message or situation that evoke various mental shortcuts (e.g., beautiful models evoke the “What’s beautiful is good and worth listening to” heuristic.)

Modern theories of persuasion such as the elaboration likelihood model and the heuristic – systematic model provides the effortful type of processing (systematic processing) when our capacity to process information relating to the persuasive message is high.

4.8 Resistance to persuasion
Changing the existing attitudes is not such an easy task. One formed the attitudes is strongly gets into out thought processes. Hence, several factors, together, enhance the individual’s ability to resist even highly skilled efforts at persuasion. They are summarized below.

4.8.1 Reactance
Negative reaction to threats to one’s personal freedom. Reactance often increases resistance to persuasion. Research findings indicate that in such situations, often really do changes on attitudes in a direction exactly opposite to that being urged – an effect known as negative attitude change.

4.8.2 Forewarning
Advance knowledge that one is about to become the target of a attempt at persuasion. Forewarning often increases resistance to the persuasion that follows. First forewarning provides more opportunity to formulate counter arguments that can lessen the message’s impact. In addition, forewarning also provide more time in which to recall relevant facts and information that may prove useful in refuting a persuasive message.

4.8.3 Selective Avoidance
A tendency to direct attention away from information that challenges existing attitudes. Such avoidance increases resistance to persuasion. These tendencies to ignore or avoid information that contradicts our attitudes while actively seeking information consistent with two sides of what make the focus of attention helps ensure that our attitudes remain largely intact for long periods of time.

4.9 Cognitive Dissonance
An unpleasant internal state that results when individuals notice inconsistency between two or more of their attitudes or between there attitudes and their behavior.

4.9.1 Cognitive Dissonance: what it is how it is reduced?
Dissonance theory focuses on three basic mechanisms. First, one can change their attitudes or behavior so that these are more consistent with each other. For instance, in the first example above, the person in question can become more favorable toward having minority persons as neighbors.

In that example, in contrast, the individual can actually push the dessert away before finishing it, thus reducing the inconsistency between present behavior and his underlying attitudes. Second can acquire new information that supports our attitude or behavior. For instance, persons who smoke may search for evidence suggesting that the harmful

4.10 Let us Sum Up

Every one evaluates everything in the social world. The evaluations, though, relatively permanent are stormed in memory for the day-to-day usage. This forms the attitudes of the individuals. These lasting evaluations of the attitudes are learned through social experiences, from other person’s behavior and genetic factors. The individuals use all types of learning principles for this purpose. Once attitudes are formed they directly influence human behavior. Of course, various factors give strength for the attitude-behavior relationships. The attitudes once formed also as already stated get changed through the process of persuasion. But changing attitudes receives resistance as well by the individuals. In this course, if people fact inconsistency between their attitudes and behavior then they face a psychological disturbance, called cognitive dissonance. Whatever be the problems involved, attitudes are considered as a hinge on which human behavior revolves.

4.11 Lesson-end Activities

1) What is attitude? Bring out the factors contributing for the formation of attitudes.
2) Elaborate the attitude behavior relationships.
3) Can we change attitudes? State the process of attitude change.
4) Resistance to change attitude – Discuss.
5) Describe the factor of Cognitive Dissonance.

4.12 References

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LESSON - 5

SOCIAL IDENTITY

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5.0 Aims and Objectives
   After studying this unit, you should be able to
   • Describe the major components of social identity.
   • Describe self-concept, self-efficacy and self-esteem

5.1 Introduction
   Human beings as they mature begin to learn who they are. Individuals develop a social
   identity or a self-definition that includes how one conceptualizes and evaluates oneself.
   (Deaux, 1993a; Ellemers, Wike,& van Knippenberg,1993). For every individual this
   identity includes unique aspects such as one’s name and self-concept and aspects shared
   with others (Sherman, 1994). For example, ones gender and relationships such as woman,
   man, daughter, son, divorced person. Vocation such as student, musician, psychologists,
   salesperson. These categories mentioned above are tied with the interpersonal world.
   When a person’s social context changes, it places a strain on his/her social identity that
   requires a degree of coping. This lesson describes two of the major components of social
   identity.
5.2 Social identity

A person’s definition of who he or she is; includes personal attributes (self–concept) along with membership in various groups (aspects shared with others). There is two of the major components of social identity. First, describe some of the crucial elements of the self, including self – concept, self – esteem, self – focusing, self – monitoring, and self – efficacy. Second examine gender, especially the social determinants of gender identity, gender roles, and the way behaviors influenced by these attributes.

5.2.1 The Self: Components of one’s identity

The self is the center of each person’s social universe. Self – identity, or self – concept is acquired primarily through social interactions that begin with immediate family and continue with the other people to meet throughout life.

The self-concept is an organized collection of beliefs and feelings about oneself – in other words, it is a schema that functions like other schemas. Self – concept is a special framework that influences how to process information about ourselves – such as our motives, emotional states, self – evaluations, abilities, and much else besides (Klein, Loftus, & Burton, 1989; Van Hook & Higgins, 1988)

5.2.2 Self – reference effect

The greater efficacy of cognitive processing of information relevant to the self compared to processing of other types of information. Self-relevant information is most likely to catch attention, to be retained in memory, and to be recalled easily. Psychologists have pursued the question of how information relevant to the self is processed more efficiently. Klein and Loftus devised a very clever experiment to determine whether either or both of these types of processing are involved when people deal with self – relevant material. In effect, they compared recall of material relevant to the self with recall of material that was primarily processed elaborative or primarily processed categorically. Research participants were shown a series of words and asked either to think of a definition of each (to encourage categorical processing), or to think about whether each word reminded them of an important personal experience (to encourage self – relevant processing). Afterward, individuals in each group were asked to write down as many of the words as they could remember. By comparing performance on different word lists and the different kinds of processing cues, the investigators were able to show that recall of self – relevant material is most6 efficient because it is based on both elaborative and categorical processing.

5.3 Self-Concept

Each person’s self – concept, is acquired through interaction with others. The self operates as a schema that determines how we process information about the world around us and about ourselves. The self – reference effect means that we process information about ourselves better than any other kind of information. The self – concept is not a fixed entity. Self – concept changes with age and in response to situational changes. The elements of self-concept, the specific beliefs by which individuals define themselves are self-schemas (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Schemas are mental templates by which
individuals organize the social world. Self-schemas are beliefs about self that organize and guide the processing of self-relevant information. The self-schemas that make up the self-concepts help catalogue and retrieve the experiences.

5.3.1 Self-Reference
A phenomenon when information is relevant to the self-concept. Individuals process it quickly and remember it well (Higgins & Bargh, 1987; Kuiper & Rogers, 1979; Symons & Johnson, 1997). The self-reference effect illustrates a basic fact of life. The sense of self is the center of the social world. Individuals tend to see themselves on center stage; underestimate the extent to which other’s behavior is aimed at. Often human beings see themselves responsible for events in which they played a small part. (Fenigstein, 1984). When judging someone else behavior or performance individuals spontaneously compare it with his or her own, and if talking with another person if someone mentions an individual’s name the individuals auditory radar shifts his/her attention.

5.4 Self – Efficacy
The term self-efficacy was coined by Psychologist Albert Bandura (1997, 2000). It refers to a sense that one is competent and effective, distinguished from self-esteem, one’s sense of self-worth. In everyday life, self-efficacy leads us to set challenging goals and to persist in the face of difficulties. Literature on self-efficacy predicts that when problems arise, a strong sense of self-efficacy leads individuals to keep calm and seek solutions. Competence and persistent striving equals accomplishment, with accomplishment self-confidence grows.

5.4.1 Self Efficacy and Performance
The appropriate type of self-efficacy enhances performance in both physical and academic tasks. For ex, those high in athletic self – efficacy are able to continue longer at exercise requiring physical endurance than those low in such self – efficacy (Gould & Weiss, 1981). One reason for this ability is that feelings of high self – efficacy for physical tasks stimulates the body to produce endogenous opioids, and these function as natural painkillers that it possible for a person to continue a physical task (Bandura et al., 1988). Also, high self – efficacy concerning physical ability leads to perceived success at an exercise task and attributions of personal control over this behavior (Courneya & McAuley, 1993).

5.4.2 Self – Efficacy in Social Situations
Interpersonal behavior is also affected by feelings of self – efficacy with respect to social interactions. Among the reasons for low social self – efficacy is the lack of social skills, and the consequences include anxiety and avoidance of such situations (Morries, 1985).

Attributions about social failure are affected by social self – efficacy (Alden, 1986). When provided with negative feedback about the outcome of a given social behavior, high – efficacy individuals perceive the cause as external (something unique to a given situation), while those low in efficacy make internal attributions (lack of ability).
5.4.3 Increase a person’s feelings of self – efficacy

Self – efficacy is by no means fixed and unchanging. When a person receives positive feedback about his or her skills (even false feedback), self – efficacy is likely to rise (Bandura, 1986). In a pioneering experiment, Bandura and Adams (1977) were able to show that a phobia such as

5.5 Self – Esteem

Perhaps the most important attitude each person holds is his or her attitude about self, an evaluation that can label Self – Esteem (James, 1890). A person with high self – esteem perceives he or herself as better, more capable, and of greater worth than does someone with low self – esteem. Self – evaluations based in part on the opinions of others and in part on how to perceive specific experiences. Interestingly, negative self – perceptions lead to more predictable behavior than positive self – perceptions. Presumably, this happens because negative self – views involve more tightly organized schemas than positive ones (Malle & Horowitz, 1995); as a result, someone with low self – esteem can interpret a success in a variety of ways, but someone with low self – esteem tends to over generalize the implications of a failure (Brown & Dutton, 1995).

Though most of the research on self – esteem is focused on a global indication of self – evaluation, it is also clear that people subdivide aspects of their self. A slightly different approach to assessing self – esteem is to compare a person’s self – concept with his or her conception of an ideal self. The greater the discrepancy, the lower the self – esteem.

5.5.1 Self – Esteem and Social Comparison

These social comparison are a major determinant of how to evaluate us. (Brown et al., 1992). This fact explains some research findings that might otherwise seem surprising. For example, given the very real problems of racism and sexism, to might expect women and minority group members to be low in self- esteem. Instead, women and minorities tend to express higher self – esteem than white males (Crocker & Major, 1989). Clearly, social comparisons must differ for these different groups of people.

Several lines of research help clarify some of the ways in which these complex social comparisons operate. To compare oneself to others, his esteem goes up when he perceive some inadequacy in them. – a contrast effect. This kind of comparison with someone who is worse off (a downward comparison) arouses positive feelings and raises his self – esteem (Reis, Gerrard, & Gibbons, 1993). When, however, the comparison with someone to whom he feel close, he perceive something very good about feel close

5.6. Self Serving bias

The tendency to attribute our own positive outcomes to internal causes (e.g., our own traits or characteristics) but negative outcomes or events to external causes (e.g., chance, task difficulty).
Whatever the precise origins of the self-serving bias, it can be the cause of much interpersonal friction. It often leads person who works with others on a joint task to perceive that they, not their partners, have made the major contributions. Similarly, it leads individuals to perceive that while their own successes stem from internal causes and are well deserved, the success of others stem from external factors and are less merited. Also, because of the self-serving bias, many persons tend to perceive negative actions on their own part as reasonable and excusable, but identical actions on the part of others as irrational and inexcusable (Baumeister, Stillwell, & Wotman, 1990). Thus, self-serving bias is clearly one type of attributional error with serious implications for interpersonal relations.

5.7. Gender Identity

Every human being has a gender identity. That simply means a labeling as male or female. Between the ages of four and seven, children gradually acquire the concept of gender consistency. It refers to the concept that gender is the basic enduring attribute of each individual. Children accept the principle that a gender is a basic attribute of each person. As soon as these cognitions are firmly in place, the perceptions are affected by what the children believe about gender. According to Bem (1981, 1983) who formulated the Gender Schema theory, children have a “generalized readiness” to organize information about the self in a way that is based on cultural definitions of what is appropriate behavior for each sex. Once a young child learns to apply the label “girl” or “boy” to herself or himself, the stage is set for the child to learn the “appropriate” roles that accompany these labels. As childhood progresses sex typing occurs wherein children learn in detail the stereotypes associated with maleness and femaleness in their culture. Bem views that up to the 1970’s psychologists, along with people in general tended to think of masculinity and femininity as lying at the two ends points of a single continuum. Every individual was either masculine or feminine and there was no way to be both highly masculine and highly feminine. A question to which psychologist wanted an answer was what if the varied personal characteristics associated with masculinity and femininity lie on independent continuums that range from low to high masculinity and from low to high femininity? The answer to this question was Androgyny. An androgynous person is one who combines traditional masculine and traditional feminine behavioral characteristics. In order to measure the gender-related characteristics the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) was developed. Research evidence indicates that 30 percent of males adhere to the masculine gender type and a similar percentage of females to the feminine gender type, while about one-third of each sex is androgynous.

5.7.1. Sex and Gender

It is clear from the studies of gender identity that social factors determine the ways in which maleness and feminality are defined. Cross-cultural research also provides evidence that the characteristics associated with each gender differ when cultural influences differ. According to

5.7.2. Gender Stereotypes

Living indifferent cultural background for long years, people have formed certain gender specific characteristics. This is insisted as well as expected by everyone. Such a
stereotypes concerning the traits supposedly possessed by females and males, which distinguish the two genders from each other is called as gender stereotypes. When a male or a female does not keep up to the expectation or preconceived types of behavior they have to face the wrath of that society (Aube & Koester, 1992). For example, in many cultural societies males are expected to behave decisively, forcefully, confidently, ambitiously, and rationally. On the contrary, the females are expected to behave passively, submissively, indecisively, emotionally and dependably (Deaux, 1993 and Unger, 1994). But, nowadays there may be difficult to find out these types of gender stereotypical behavior, among the males and the females of different cultures. However, the existing evidences present following findings: First, in the ability to send and read nonverbal messages both males and females differ to some extend (DePaulo, 1992). Second, in expressing and experiencing aggression various among the sex is noticed to certain extent ( Baron & Byrne, 2007). And, the third, in having same sex friends slight variations were found among males and females (Elkins & Peterson, 1993).

5.7.3. Gender role behavior

Though there is no strong clear cut specific gender role behavior exists in society, due to the natural as well by practicing certain types of behaviors continuously for long time people learn certain specific pattern of gender relevant behavior characteristics. People expect these types of characteristics from every one and consider these as appropriate behaviors (Chatterjee & McCarrey, 1991). Social psychologists have come out with four patterns of gender role behavior. They are: masculine, feminine, androgynous and none of these. Everybody knows masculine and feminine characteristics. But, Androgyny is the tendency to report having both traditionally “masculine” and traditionally “feminine” characteristics. An androgyous person is one who combines traditional masculine and traditional feminine behavioral characteristics in his behavior. Sandra Bem (1970) explained these androgynous types of behavior patterns in individuals. Androgyny is also found to be good for people who use in their day-to-day interaction with others. Major. et. al., (1981) revealed that androgynous men and women were liked by others better; they were found to be better adjusted in life (Orlofsky &O’Heron, 1987); they were found to be more adaptable to situational demands (Prager &Bailey, 1985); they were found to be more comfortable with their sexuality (Garcia, 1982); they were found to be more satisfied in their interpersonal relations (Rosenzweig & Daley, 1989); and they showed high flexibility in coping with stress (McCall & Struthers, 1994): The androgynous elderly showed more satisfaction with their lives (Dean-Church &Gilroy, 1993). Married couples having androgyous characteristics reported happiness in their marriage life (Zammichieli, Gilroy & Sherman, 1988).

Another point to be kept in mind is that, adhering strongly to any type of the traditional gender role creates problem to the individual. A strong tradition male gender role person seems to behave more violently than men who have certain type of feminine characters as well (Finn, 1986). Females and males who have higher levels of feminine characteristics are found to have low self-esteem than masculine as well as androgyous individuals (Pleack, et. al., 1993).
As a final note on gender role behavior it could be stated that the gender roles still influence on the behavior of individuals in home as well as in work place. Whatever is nature of job husbands and wives do, even today, the males perform garbage cleaning, repairing things, and yard cleaning; while the women clean the house, cooking and engage in child caring. In fact, women spend more time doing housework than men invariably of their gender characteristics (Gunter & Gunter, 1991).

Gender also affects the expectancies of individuals. Subich, et. al., (1986) found out that men take up even unknown fields for their job than women. And with all the modern development women still are discriminated in many places. But the trend of present day research reveal that the stereotypes related to gender gets diminished day by day.

5.8. Let us Sum Up
By interacting with others people develop their social identity. The self-concept and other related ideas remain relatively permanent in individuals. They have the tendency to get modified by new information and new type of interaction. In this the maleness and femaleness have a strong influence on the behavior of individuals. The strong traditional gender roles do have a special place even in to-days world. But, apart from these gender roles androgynous characters seems to increase the effective of the individuals. Whatever be the characters of individuals the gender role has its own effect in human social life.

5.9 Lesson-end Activities.
1) Explain social-identity. Elaborate various factors determining social identity.
2) What is Gender-identity? Bring out the salient features of Gender-identity.
3) Critically analyze the Gender stereotypes.
4) Narrate the Gender role on human behavior.

5.10 References
UNIT III

LESSON - 6

PREJUDICE AND DISCRIMINATION

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6.0 Aims and Objectives
After studying this unit you should be able to
• Define and describe the nature, origin and sources of prejudice.
• Describe the technique for countering the effects of prejudice.

6.1. Introduction
The social life of an individual depends on interacting, influencing and interchanging information between him and others. When an individual engages in this type of processes, it becomes inevitable that he or she forms certain types of prejudgment about the person’s whom they come across. This has a strong and systematic effect among the behavioral patterns among individuals. Social Psychologists have studied such a phenomenon from the very beginning of the study of human behavior. The terms used by the social psychologists to denote such a phenomenon is prejudice and discrimination. This lesson brings out the origin, nature and conceptual details on these topics.

Prejudice and discrimination are normally used interchangeably in the literature. But, both of them have a separate and clear cut meanings. Baron and Byrne (2006) state that prejudice is an attitude, usually negative, toward the members of some group, based solely on their membership in that group. A person who is prejudiced toward some social group tends to evaluate its members in a negative manner merely because they belong to
that group. The individuals traits or behaviors are not counted to understand them instead they are often disliked, simply because they belong to a specific group. Gordon Allport (1954) explained the term prejudice as an antipathy based upon a faulty and inflexible generation. If an individual prejudiced or forms negative evaluation on someone or a group of persons he will normally dislike the person or persons because they are different from himself and will behave discriminatively believing that they are either dangerous or ignorant. Further, prejudice also involves negative feelings or emotions on the part of prejudiced persons when they are in the presence of, or merely think about members of the group they dislike.

The main causes for forming negative evaluation and leading to negative behavior towards other person or persons are varied in number. Though the prejudice springs from different sources, social psychologists have classified them in to three sources. They are social sources, motivational sources and cognitive sources of prejudice. Mainly, by social learning and by the support of social institutions prejudice are acquired and preserved in the society.

6.2.1 The Social sources of prejudice
Social inequalities, scarcity of goods and services, acquired value systems; religious practices conformity and institutional support are found to contribute for the formation of prejudice based on social sources.
Social Inequalities: Social inequalities give strength for the emergence of prejudice. An old principle states that unequal status brings prejudice. Allport (1958) has brought out that wherever imperial expansions have taken place, the colonized people where considered as inferior, needs protection and in a long run burden to be tackled. People normally respect those who are high in status but dislike them very clearly. A study conducted by Fiske and her coworkers (1999) concluded that Asians, Jews, Germans, non-traditional women, assertive African and American and gray man were tend to be respected well but they were not liked so well.

Scarcity of goods and services: It is a fact that the things people want and value most are good jobs, nice homes, high status which are always in short supply. According to this view, prejudice stems from competition among social groups over valued commodities or opportunities. If the competition continues for a long time, the members of the groups involved come to view each other in increasingly negative terms. They label each other as “us” and “them”. People will view their own groups as morally superior and draw the boundaries between themselves and their opponents more and more firmly. The result is that what starts out as simple competition relatively free from hatred gradually develops in to a full scale, emotion-laden prejudice.

Acquired value systems: Researchers carried out to find out the psychological causes of killing millions of Jews by the Nazi Germans and making millions of Europeans in to indifferent spectators revealed that hostility toward Jews co existed with hostility towards other minorities as well. It means, prejudice appeared to be less an attitude specific to one group than the way of thinking of those who are different (Theodor and et., al., 1950). This is otherwise called as ‘ethnocentric’. The ethnocentric refers to the belief in
the superiority of one’s own ethnic and cultural group, and having a corresponding inferiority for all other groups. When an individual is on the state of ethnocentric will have intolerance for weakness, a punitive attitude and a submissive respect for the ingroup’s authorities. They will go in line with the common saying “Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn”. Further, people having high in social dominance orientation and ethnocentric personality are among the most prejudiced persons in any society.

Religious Practices: There are two types of views regarding the relationship between religion and prejudice William James (1902) noted, “Piety is the mask” that is, the leaders invoke religion to accept the inequality prevailing in the society. Number of researchers on the role of religion on prejudice emphasis the same findings (Altemeyer & Hunsberger, 1992; Batson and others, 1993; Woodberry & Smith, 1998). These findings leads to the conclusion that there may not be correlation between religion and prejudice in casual manner, instead, people with less education may seems to have more fundamental attitude as well as prejudice. Further, religious belief system may make people to believe that all people possess free will, hence, minorities have to be blamed for their own lower status. The studies carried out revealed that serious faithful believers are found to be less prejudiced (Batson and Ventis, 1982), those for whom religion is an end in itself express less prejudice than those for whom religion is a means to other ends reveal more prejudice (Gordon Allport and Michael Ross 1967), people who have high spiritual commitment welcome and accept any person openly (Gallup and Jones 1982), the religious priests and ministers gave more support to civil rights movement than the common man (Fichter 1962; Hadden 1969) and during the Nazis regime many clergy’s in Germany opposed the Nazi regime (Reed 1989). All these have lead to the idea that the role of religion is paradoxical. It makes prejudice and it unmake prejudice as well.

Conformity: Negatively viewing others, forming prejudice, is accepted as a social practice many people will accept and confirm to this idea. In fact, out of need the people will hate others Thomas Pettigrew (1958) found out that those people who conformed to the social norms were found to be most prejudiced. Minard, (1952) and Reitzes (1953) showed that in the mills and the mines, workers accepted integration but in their neighborhoods the norms was rigid segregation. This has lead to the idea that prejudice was clearly not a manifestation of personal characteristics but simply of the social norms.

Institutional Support: The schools, colleges and other social institution facilitate cultural attitude. Though the institutional support for prejudice or not deliberate attempts they simply reflect cultural assumptions. If an institution enjoys social and economical superiority will facilitate the prejudicial belief systems among its members.

A second possible explanation of prejudice suggests that prejudice is learned and it develops in much the same manner and the same mechanisms as attitudes. According to social learning view, children acquire negative attitudes toward various social groups because they hear such views expressed by parents, friends and teachers and others and because they are directly rewarded. The tendency to divide the social world in to two separate categories is called as categorization, which is the byproduct of an individual’s
thinking process. Similarly, the tendency to make more favorable and flattering attribution about members of one’s own group than about members of other groups

6.2.2 Motivational (Psychological) sources of Prejudice
Motivation plays a double role. It facilities prejudice as well as reduces it. The scapegoat theory explains the motivational sources of prejudice. The pain and frustration evoke hostility when the causes of pain and frustration is unknown the anger is or the motivational produced is often redirected to hostile objects. Anybody whom people hate will be the target of their prejudiced belief system. Allport in 1958 quoted that “The Jew is just convenient…if there were no Jews, the anti-Semites would have to invent them”. Further, dissatisfaction will trigger prejudice. Nietzsche, (1887) has put forth the idea that “However is dissatisfied with himself is continuously ready for revenge”.

Social Identity: People live in groups. They found happiness in their groups, kill for their groups and die for their groups as well. The groups in which he has membership identify every individual. This is otherwise called as social identity. The social identity theory put forward by Turner and Tajfel observed that people categorize, that is, people find it useful to be in one group due to that different categories emerge. For example stating one as teacher, policeman or bus driver is a easy way to identify a person. People identify that is people associate themselves with certain groups and gain self-esteem. This is otherwise called as ingroup, that is a group of people who share a sense of belonging and a feeling of common identity. Finally, people compare that is one group of people compare with other groups of people in all respects. This is otherwise called as outgroup, that is a group people perceive as distinctively different from apart from their ingroup. People evaluate themselves partly by their group membership Thus, many youths find pride, power identity in gang affiliations.

Ingroup Bias: There is a tendency to define one’s own group positively in order to evaluate oneself positively (Turner, 1984). The mere experience of being formed in to groups may promote ingroup bias. Sack and Elder (2000) found that those who are living nearer showed lesser racial differences. Further, an individuals group is small and lower in status relative to status ingroup bias emerges (Ellemers and others 1997). Due to the social identification people confirm to their group norms. Hence it is clear ingroup bias results as much or more from perceiving that ones’ own group is good (Brewer 1979).

Need for Status Self-regard and belonging: Status is a relative term. Feeling superior or inferior initiates prejudicial ideas. A man who doubts his own strength will identify women as dependent and will boost his masculine image. An experiment by Randy and Kathleen 1982 showed that men with low self-acceptance strong non-traditional women. On the other hand, men with high self-acceptance preferred them. It shows that self-image and self-regard has a relationship with prejudice. The sense of comradeship among the workers is often when they all feel difference of opinion toward their management. This has lead to the idea that the need to belong is a prerequisite for ingroup activities.

6.2.3 Cognitive Sources of Prejudice
The way one thinks about the world as well as remembers about the events that take place have a contributing role in establishing the role of cognitive sources on prejudice. The perceptual illusions have an effective part in making a person prejudiced.

6.3 Discrimination
Discrimination refers to harmful or negative behaviors directed toward people who are the object of prejudice. Dovidio, et al., (1996) stated that discriminatory behavior often has its root in prejudicial attitudes. Gordon Allport (1958) came out with two basic types of discrimination. The one is blaming oneself. That is, withdrawal, self-hate and aggression against one’s own group. The second one is blaming external causes. That is, fighting back, suspiciousness and increased group pride. Whatever be the types, the net result are negative it is a typical example of discrimination. In the present world scenario, due to government laws, it becomes difficult to express negative action towards a single person or group of persons. On the other hand, subtle form of discriminations is found in society. Mainly, discrimination based on gender could be traced in social living. Fisher (1992) showed that females continue to occupy a relatively disadvantaged position in many societies. They were given mainly low-paying, low status jobs. Though the literature brings out different types of reasons for the lower status of women in society, it is a clear manifestation of discrimination. Another type of subtle discrimination is the sexual harassment. Social psychologists clearly researched the presence of discriminate behavior. The prominent types of discrimination are presented below.

6.3.1 Reverse Discrimination Giving with one Hand Taking with the other.
This type of discrimination occurs in situations in which persons holding at least some degree of prejudice toward the members of social group lean over backward to treat members of that group favorably, more favorably that they treat other persons. Reverse discrimination refers to the tendency to evaluate or treat persons belonging to certain groups (especially ones that are the object of ethnic or racial prejudice) more favorably than members of other groups. Reverse discrimination might be beneficial for the person it affects. On one level this is certainly true, people exposed to reverse discrimination do receive raises, promotion and other benefits. On the other level, it may prove harmful also.

6.3.2 Tokenism
Instances in which individuals or groups perform trivial positive action for people toward whom they feel prejudice and then use these actions as an excuse for refusing more meaningful and beneficial behavior. A person will feel disturbed when he is treated or accepted in a company or in a group because he hails from a specific group or community. Further, if the fellow members came to know that so and so is hired since he has been a token of representative from a particular ethnic, racial, community or religious group there is a possibility of perceiving him negatively (Summers, 1991).

6.3.3 Subtle forms of discrimination
Due to the advancement of science and technology and as well due to the multicultural set up prevailing in today’s society, overt discrimination seems to be reduced. Instead a
subtle form of discrimination still remains. For example treating the females, children and minorities as lower in job market, workplace and in official environment.

6.4 Techniques for countering the effects of Prejudice
Prejudice is an inevitable part of human societies. But, it is negative in nature. It creates damaging effects both to the person who is prejudiced and discriminated as well as the groups that get affected. Hence, social psychologist lot of time and energy to evolve certain effective strategies in order to curtail the ill effect of prejudice. They are systematically presented below.

6.4.1 Learning Not to Hate
The answer to the question that whether children are born with prejudice is still answered. Social psychologists are of the view that children acquire prejudice from their parents, adults and their peers. A technique of compacting this would be to introduce parents’ attention to their own prejudice. Once they come face to face with their own prejudices they, modify their words and behavior so as to encounter lower levels of prejudice among their children. Persons who are prejudiced appear to live in a dangerous social groups and they experience anger, anxiety and fear. In short, it is clear that persons holding intense racial and ethnic prejudices suffer many harmful effects. Many parents want to do everything they can to further their children’s well-being calling these costs to their attention may be effective in discouraging them from transmitting prejudiced views to their offspring.

6.4.2 Direct Inter Group: The Potential Benefits of Acquaintance
In order to understand direct inter group prejudice, a common idea is the contact Hypothesis. This theory is that increased contact between the members of various social groups can be effective in reducing prejudice. It also seems to be valid only when contact takes place under specific favorable conditions. There are several reasons to predict that the above hypothesis may prove effective. Firstly, increased contact between persons from different groups can lead to growing recognition of similarities between them. Secondly, stereotypes are resistant to change, they can be alerted when sufficient information inconsistent with them is encountered, or when individuals meet a sufficient number of expectations to their stereotypes. Thirdly, increased contact may help counter the illusions of outgroup homogeneity. In sum, when used with care, direct intergroup contact can be effective tool for combating cross-group prejudice. When people get to know one another it seems, many of the anxieties, stereotypes and false perceptions that have previously kept them apart can melt in the face of new information and the warmth of new friendships.
6.4.3 Recategorization
In daily life situations, individuals sometimes tend to have a situation where there is a shift between “us” and “them”. These shift are termed by social psychologists as Recategorization. This refers to the shifts in the boundary between an individual’s ingroup (“us”) and various outgroups (“them”) causing persons formerly viewed as outgroup members now to be seen as belonging to the ingroup. A theory proposed by Gaertner, Dovidio, and their colleagues (1989, 1993) suggests a concept called Common Ingroup Identity Model, which emphasizes that when people belonging to different group jointly start working for a specific goal, in due course, they start viewing themselves as one group or single social entity. The negative evaluation gets reduced and positive regards get increased. This in turn, promotes positive contacts between the groups. The psychological dynamism involved in this situation is that eliminating the idea of “us” and “them” enables the persons from various groups to reduce the prejudice and hostility towards each other. This change in mind is beneficial and useful for social living. Now comes the question, how to bring such a change in a specific groups. Answer to this question is also available in the literature. Gaertner and his team of researchers (1990) brought out the idea that the experience an individual gets when he is working together cooperatively with others enables him to get reduced the differences. They emphasize that when individuals initially belonging to distinct groups work together toward shared goals, they come to perceive themselves as a single social entity. In due course the feelings of bias or hostility towards the outgroup gets gradually fades away along with the prejudice. An ample support for this view has been noticed in a field study carried out by Gaertner, Dovidio, and their associates (1993). The study was conducted among the 1,300 multicultural high school students who came from many different backgrounds namely, African, American, Chinese, Hispanic, Japanese, Vietnamese and Caucasian. The results revealed that the perception of cooperative interdependence between students from different groups was positively related to the students’ belief that the students as a whole are a single group. In other words, the greater the students felt they belonged to a single group, the more positive was their feelings toward outgroup members. As a final note, Recategorization seems to reduce prejudice to a considerable extend.

6.4.4 Cognitive Intervention
This is the fourth technique social psychologists suggest to minimize the effect of prejudice among different groups of people. One of the ways prejudice emerges could be attributed to the tendency to think about others in terms of their membership in various groups or categories. Using cognitive factor, otherwise called, category-driven processing to reduce the effect of prejudice and discrimination the following methods were formulated by the researchers.

(1) By paying attention to the unique characteristic features of the individuals, instead of their membership in different groups reduces the effect of prejudice. This idea emphasizes the role of attribute-driven processing. In this process individuals are informed that their own outcomes or rewards in a situation will be affected by other person’s performance. And again, telling them that it is very important to be accurate in informing an impression of another person. Here, the important
factor is that individuals are motivated to be accurate which in turn will reduce the stereotypical tendencies (Neuberg, 1989).

(2) Using the principle of attribution the impact of stereotypes can be reduced. Allison, et al., (1990) found out that individuals make inferences about others on the basis of their outcomes while ignoring the factors that might have produced these outcomes. For example, a person came to know that a woman was promoted to a higher-level managerial job in his company. And the person understands that the company has a strong affirmative action program and actively seeks to promote women and minorities. He will start reducing his stereotypical tendencies. Though this type of procedures found to be little complex, they are effective in reducing the prejudice and stereotypes. Number of studies proved this procedure very effect (Mackie, et al., 1992). This technique promoted the affirmative action programs to reduce prejudice.

6.5 Let us Sum Up
Prejudice and discrimination go hand in hand in many situations. Negative thoughts initiates negative behavior. The above presentation highlighted different reasons for prejudice and discrimination. Though the factors contributing for prejudice and discrimination are seems to be interrelated, their very complex ones. At the same time, the researchers have come out with lot of methods to reduce prejudice and in turn minimize the discriminate actions.

6.6 Lesson-end Activities
1. Define prejudice and describe the causes of prejudice?
2. Discuss the nature of discrimination?
3. Critically analyze the role of prejudice and discrimination in social living?

6.7 References

LESSON - 7

INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION

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7.0 Aims and Objectives

After studying this unit you should be able to
  • Describe the concepts on interpersonal attraction namely proximity, emotions, friendship and interdependent relationships.

7.1 Introduction

Forming attitudes is a continuous process in human life. People go on evaluating everyone with whom they interact, the ideas they share and the events they meet. Psychologists opine that individuals evaluate every word, sound, picture and persons as soon as he or she perceives the other person. The evaluation of other people with respect
to how much one likes or dislikes them is termed as interpersonal attraction. Generally, people make positive evaluations when their feelings are positive and form negative evaluations when their feelings are negative. That is, the types as well as levels of emotions mainly determine the interpersonal likes and dislikes. Hence, anything that influences or affects emotions has a direct link in influencing or affecting the interpersonal attraction. Thus, attraction begins when people come in to contact with one another. Attraction towards each other, normally, breeds friendship in due course. With all these effects, some people either avoid the relationships or do not even get one. It is also a fact that everyone experiences loneliness in some point of his or her lifetime. On the other hand, some people extend their relationships beyond the friendship level and enter into conjugal relationship. All these related concepts on interpersonal attraction are elaborated in detailed manner in this lesson.

7.2 Proximity and Emotions
Though six billion people live in the planet earth, everyone interacts only with a very small percentage of that. Many persons remain strangers for every individual. The reason for this type of behavior is nothing but the nearness and regular persons along with the feeling everyone exerts seems to play the role. Repeated contact, repeated exposure, closeness or proximity, positive feelings or mood are found to be the crucial factors in interpersonal attraction.

7.2.1. Physical Surroundings: Repeated Interpersonal Contact Leads to Attraction
Physical surroundings, that is, if individuals’ regularly meet, they tend to get attracted to each other. Evidences suggest that when two strangers regularly pass the same place or meet in the same time, these casual unplanned contacts lead to mutual recognition. In due course they may even exchange the greetings such as, “hai” and continue even to share their ideas and things. Zajonc (1968) proposed that repeated exposure to a new stimulus - frequent contact with that stimulus - leads to more and more positive evaluation of the stimulus. In one research conducted by Moreland and Beach (1992) asked one female research assistant to attend a college class fifteen times during the semester, another one ten times, the third one five times and the fourth one not to attend at all. Then at the end of the semester all four individuals came to the classroom and the experimenter asked the students to indicate how much they liked each one on a rating scale. The assistants were fairly similar in appearance and none interacted with any of the class members during the semester. But, the attraction between these assistance and the students increased as the number of classroom exposures increased. In short, it is clear that repeated exposure improved the liking.

The repeated interpersonal contact, otherwise, termed as proximity. In normal social living, it is inevitable that people has to remain close to each other due to their residences, classroom seats, work areas, etc. The greater their closeness the better will be the their interpersonal attraction. Brooks-Gunn and Lewis (1981). Found out that infants tend to smile at a photograph of someone they have seen before but not at a photograph of someone they are seeing for the first time. The reason would be that repeated exposure decreases the feelings of anxiety and makes the person or object familiar. Further, the repeated exposure breeds’ familiarity even when one is not consciously aware of it. It is due to subliminal conditioning (Bornstin and D’Agostino, 1992).
People living in the same area develop positive relationships. Evans and Wilson (1949) found that two thirds of students developed friendship from among the students living in the same floor in their hostels.

7.2.2 Emotions: Positive and Negative Affect
Emotions are mixed in our day-to-day behavior. Emotions influence perception, motivation, cognition, decision-making and even interpersonal attractions. The intensity or the strength of the emotions and the direction or the positive/negative emotions play the role in liking or disliking the individual. Smeaton and Byrne (1988) stated that the positive and negative emotions are two separate independent dimensions. Experiments conducted by Dovidio, et al., (1995) consistently indicated that positive feelings or emotions lead to positive evaluations of others while negative feelings or emotions lead to negative evaluation of others. Normally people feel good towards those who do good things to them and feel bad about those who do bad things about them. It becomes clear that people prefer or like the persons who brighten their day by giving sincere compliments to them. People also like someone when they are in a positive state and dislike a person when they are in a negative state. Further, Kleinke, Meeker and Staneski (1986) in their study revealed that if a person positively interacts with a stranger the stranger will start liking the person positively. This idea emphasizes that if a positive climate is initiated people who are involved in the circumstances will start liking each other and vice versa.

7.3. Becoming Acquainted: The Need to Affiliate
Psychologists’ state that human behavior is also gets triggered by a number of need patterns. One of the prominent need patterns is the need for affiliation. The need for affiliation refers to the motive to seek interpersonal relationships. Individuals spend a good part of their lives in interacting with other people. This tendency to affiliate seems to have a neurobiological basis. The need to affiliate with others is similar to the psychological needs, such as, hunger and thirst. Without it individuals will feel they are not safe as well their survival is at stake. The affiliation improves the chances of survival for the pre-historic ancestors (Wright, 1984). Individuals who have strong affiliative need found to interact more with other persons and they start developing close relationship with others as well. Hill (1987) brought out four basic motives for making a person to get affiliated with others. They are, positive stimulation, emotional support, social comparison and attention. Individuals seek the company of others because it is very interesting and lively. This is nothing but positive stimulation. People want the company of others whenever a problem arises. This is to get emotional support whenever a crises comes. People also get motivated to reduce uncomfortable feelings of uncertainties of what is going on through social comparison. Finally, everyone interested in receiving praise and acceptance by others. This is called as attention motive. The literature on need for affiliation also brings out affiliation need is a state of mind. Sehachter (1959) investigated the effect of affiliation need as a state and explained that whenever a critical situation occurs even the strangers get affiliated. Human infants are born with the motivation and the ability to seek understanding of their interpersonal world (Baldwin, 2000) and even newborns are predisposed to look toward faces in preferences to other stimuli.
7.3.1 Dispositional Differences in the Need to Affilitate
One of the leading psychologists on motivation Murray (1938) on the motivational aspects of personality put forth a good number need patterns. Wherein he emphasized the need for affiliation as one of the dispositional factors of individuals, which shapes their behavior. Investigations on this line showed that behavioral differences exist between those high and those low in the need to affiliate. Using both self-report measures and the projective measures the levels of need for affiliation of individuals have been assessed by the scientists. College students scoring high on an explicit measure were found to be very sociable, and they interacted with multiple people, whereas those scoring high on implicit measure were likely to interact in two-person situations involving close relationship (Crasig, Koestner, & Zuroff, 1994).

7.4. Moving toward Friendship: Similarity and Mutual Liking
In order to form any kind of relationship two people must come into contact. This is facilitated by physical proximity. Once the contact has occurred, this in turn will pave the way to increase the positive relationship between those two persons. The next step towards interpersonal closeness involves communication. The two steps in communication are the degree to which the interacting individuals discover areas of similarity and the extent to which they indicate mutual liking by what they say and what they do.

7.4.1 Similarity: Birds of the same feather really do flock together.
The role of similarity in fostering interpersonal attraction is quite common one. This phenomenon has been observed and discussed for over a two thousand years beginning with Aristotle’s (330.B.C./1932) essay on friendship. Research findings from Sir Francis Galton(1870/1952) obtained correlational data on married couples and found that spouses resembled one another in many respects. In the first half of the twentieth century correlational studies continued to find that pairs of friends and spouses revealed a greater than chance degree of similarity.

7.4.2 Mutual Liking: Likeness begets liking.
Once two people discover that they are sufficiently similar to be able to move toward establishing a friendship, one additional step is crucial. Each individual must somehow communicate liking and a positive evaluation of the other (Condon & Crano, 1988). Most people are pleased to receive positive feedback and displeased to receive negative evaluations (Gordon, 1996). Though liking and positive evaluations are often expressed in words, at times, the first sign of attraction may be non verbal cues. For example, when two persons enter into along discussion of politics or religion or any common idea and share the likes and dislikes on these matters, they will start discovering that they both agree on almost everything each one start liking the other. The more the persons come to know that both have same attitudes, the more they will like each other (Donn Byrne, 1871). The likeness leads to liking effect has been tested by many social psychology researchers and all confirmed the same (Theodore New comb, 1961; William Griffitt & Russell Veitch, 1974: Royce Lee & Michael Bond, 1996; Rick van Baaren, et. al., 2003)
7.5 Interdependent Relationships With Family and Friends

The binding force in every close relationship is interdependence. That is, an interpersonal association in which two people consistently influence each other’s lives focus their thoughts and emotions on one another and regularly engage in joint activities whenever possible. Close relationships with friends, family members and one’s spouse include an element of commitment. Interdependence occurs across age groups and across quite different kinds of interaction. According to the evolutionary theory the tendency to form emotional bonds contribute to reproductive success in terms of increasing the odds that an individual was able to conceive and care for offspring. Studies of DNA, field studies of apes and evolutionary theory suggest strongly that the natural selection has shaped the emotional and social tendencies of humans.

7.5.1 Family: The First Relationships

The Parent-child interactions have important implications in the family setting in which the individual learns, how to deal with other people. According to Dissanayake (2000) an individual comes in to the world ready to interact with other human beings. During the first year of life, when the range of possible behaviors is limited, human infants are extremely sensitive to certain sounds, facial expressions and bodily events.

7.5.2 The Interactions of Parents and their Offspring

The study of family relationship extends beyond the boundaries of Social Psychology. Research evidences suggest that men and women show consistent patterns in their relationship with mothers, fathers and romantic partners. According to Galambos (1992), adolescents are found to love parents to the extent that they like them and to the extent that the adolescents are a decent person who behaves in a moral and ethical way. Most teenagers feel that such love toward their mother and father and feel loved in return. This kind of happy and satisfying relationship within a family is associated with the ability to experience empathy, high self-esteem and interpersonal trust.

7.5.3 The Factors influencing Close Relationships

Mainly Attachment Styles, Equity and Self-disclosure influence the ups and downs of close relationships.

Attachment Styles: It is an infant’s degree of security in mother-infant interactions, believed to result in secure, avoidant, or ambivalent attachment style, which affects interpersonal behavior throughout life. It is a fact that sensitive, responsive parenting during the child’s first years leads to secure attachment otherwise it would be avoidant or ambivalent relationship between the child and the mother and also with others. If a child is secure, it will trust and love another persons. If not secure it will develop mistrust and will avoid everyone. And if the child experiences a mixed response of neither secure nor insecure, it will neither trust nor mistrust. Becker and Becker (1994) brought out certain characteristic features to explain the secure relationship. They are the amount of physical contact, visual contact, verbal contact and the mother’s awareness of and responsiveness to the infant’s needs. The following table presents neatly these effects.
The attachment formed during the infancy stage seems to determine the nature of adult relationships. The secured individuals seek closeness and comfortable in having to depend on the partner. Further, they are not worried about losing the partner. On the other hand, avoidant individuals are uncomfortable about intimacy and closeness. They don’t even trust the other partner. The ambivalent individual will seek the relationship but will have fear attitude. Because, he will perceive his partner as distant, unloving, and likely to break off the relationship any time (Hazan & Shaver, 1990). The secure individuals will be able to form long-lasting, committed, satisfying relationships (Shaver & Brennan, 1992). Other studies in the same line also confirm the fact that secure individuals form warm parental relationships, while avoidant and ambivalent individuals form cold or inconsistent relationships (Bringle & Bagby, 1992). Further, the study conducted by O’ Leary (1995) emphasized the role of discipline, that is, the way of making the child follow the rules. Instead if the parents are harsh, excessively lenient and inconsistent the child may become aggressive or delinquent. Psychologist John Bowely (1980) succinctly stated that, “Intimate attachments to other human beings are the hub around which a person’s life revolves…. From these intimate attachments people draw strength and enjoyment of life.”

Equity: The equity factor of attraction is propounded by Elaine Hatfield, et. al., (1978). It is a condition in which the outcomes people receive from a relationship are proportional to what they contribute to it. Again equitable outcomes needn’t always be equal outcomes. In the normal sense, if two persons contribute equally in their relationship they will expect equal outcome. If one of them does not contribute equally the other will feel it, generally, unfair. But, those who are in enduring relationship, including room-mates and those in love instead of checking whether each one is equally contributing will feel freer to maintain equity by exchanging a variety of benefits and eventually to stop keeping track of who owes whom (Berge, 1984). Margaret Clark and Judson Mills (1979 & 1993) presented that people even take pains to avoid calculating any exchange benefits. When the reciprocation is not possible at times, the true friends get along well (Clark, et. al., 1989). In fact, close friendship emerges when sharing is unexpected (Miller, et. al., 1989). Bunk and Van Yperen (1991) found out that happily married couples never notice how much they give and how much they get. Other researchers put forth the idea that People having an equitable relationship are more content (Flecher et. al., 1987; Hatfield, et. at., 1985; Van Yperen & Buunk, 1990). There are also a study that emphasizes the role of equity even in the marital relationships. For example, when one of the spouse felt unfair because the other partner contributed little to the cooking, housekeeping, parenting (Robert Schafer & Patricia Keith, 1980); Perceiving inequity triggers marital distress (Nancy Grote & Margaret Clark, 2001). Hence, whatever be the form equity has a direct influence on the close relationships between individuals.

Self-Disclosure: Revealing intimate aspects of oneself to others are termed as self-disclosure. In a good relationship or in a good marriage this delicious experience is possible. Due to the trusting of each other the anxiety between them gets displaced. Then both of them will openly share everything without the fear of losing the affection (Holmes & Rempel, 1989). As the close relationship grows, the partners go on revealing
their inner selves to each other and both them gain more information about each other. In normal situation, people tend to like those who disclose more information about them. After liking such a person the first person will start disclosing his or her details to the liked person. Jourard (1964) stated that when a persons starts revealing or unmasking him to the other person love gets nurtured. Intimate self-disclosure brings happiness in companionate love. Marriage is such a type of friendship sealed with commitment.

7.6 Relationship Beyond Friendship/Family and Close Relationship
Beginning with childhood, every individual establish casual friendships with peers who share common interests. Having friends is positive because they boost ones’ self-esteem and help in coping with stress, but friends have a negative effect if they are antisocial, withdrawn or unstable

7.6.1 Close Friends Versus Other Friendly Relationships
Individuals when they grow in maturity develop close friendships, which have several distinctive characteristics. For example, people tend to engage in self-enhancing behavior with non-friends but they are more likely to exhibit modesty when interacting with friends. Friends avoid lying to one another unless the purpose of the lie is to make the other person feel better. Once close friendships are established individuals spend more time together, self-disclosing, providing mutual emotional support. A casual friend is someone who is fun to be with while a close friend is valued for his or her generosity, sensitivity and honesty.

7.7 Loneliness: Life without Close Relationship
Though there may be a biological need to establish relationships and though the rewards of relationship are rewarding to human life people also remain lonely. This is one of the byproduct of social living. Loneliness is an emotional and cognitive reaction to having fewer and less satisfying relationship that one desires. An individual who doesn’t want friends is not lonely, but someone who wants friends and doesn’t have them is lonely (Archibald, et.al., 1995). Here, it is also to be noted that many people prefer solitude—they may be alone, but not lonely (Burger, 1995). Loneliness appears to be a common phenomenon. People who are lonely tend to spend their leisure time in solitary activity and are found to have casual friends rather than close friends (Bell, 1981; Berg & McQuinn, 1989 and Williams & Salano, 1983). Loneliness, generally, is accompanied by negative affect, including feelings of depression, anxiety, unhappiness and dissatisfaction. Research findings also confirm that loneliness brings negative affect in the individual. It is also proved that a failure to develop appropriate social skills in childhood results in unsuccessful interactions with peers and thus leading to loneliness. Normally, lonely persons feel they are left out and they do not have anything common with others. Again the lonely people are found to have less interpersonal trust (Rotenberg, 1994).

Duggan and Brennan (1994) tried to find answer for the question why some people desire relationship but are unable to establish it? They are of opinion that dismissing and fearful individuals are found to have hesitance to develop close relationship. Another reason is that if a child fails to develop appropriate social skills he or she may not have the
capacity to have close relationship, which then lead to loneliness. (Braza, et. al., 1983). Further, Johnson et, al., (1991) found out that a withdrawn or aggressive child will get rejected by their playmates. Due to that they may face loneliness in their life. Third reason is social phobia. During the adolescence period most of the young ones distance themselves from their parents and family (Herbert, 1995). The adolescents may feel that the social situations is frightening due to that he/she may totally avoid the social situations in order to protect himself or herself from embracement or humiliation. The fourth point is hopelessness. Some teenagers may feel the life is hopeless because they may not have the capacity, ability to reach the highest position in the society. This tendency may develop a feeling of desire, which may lead some of the teenagers to the state of suicide (Page, 1991).

7.7.1 Reducing Loneliness
The loneliness phenomenon will not get alright just by passing of time. Since, so many factors either contribute or facilitate loneliness an active and systematic intervention programs alone will reduce the extent of loneliness of individuals. Revenson, (1981) revealed that lonely people at times take a negative models to reduce their loneliness for example, retreating in to wish-fulfilling fantasies, too much involvement in work or resort to alcohol and drugs to reduce their pain of loneliness. The positive interventions are cognitive therapy and social skill training (Hope, et. al., 1995). The cognitive abilities of lonely and non-lonely people are found to be differing. Mainly, self-schema and self-concept of non-lonely people will be always positive. On the other hand lonely persons will be negative in nature (Frankel and Prentice-Dunn, 1990). Hence, a systematic cognitive reconstructing has to be initiated and proper positive training has to be practiced to reduce the loneliness. The next strategy would be exposing the lonely people to observe interpersonal successful role models either through videotapes or through real life situations. This type of exercises by the lonely person may make him acquire social skills, which will make them appropriate in social interaction. Ultimately will reduce the loneliness. Of course, a third method has also been available, that is, music. Listening to a music may reduce loneliness. But on the contrary, if a lonely person listens to music related to separation, heartache, and sadness, feeling of loneliness will get increased (Davis and Kraus, 1989).

7.8 Marriage: The Ultimate Close Relationship
Apart from attraction, friendships, selecting a marital partner are also important for the individual. Marriage is found to be one of the ultimate aim of interpersonal attraction in the society. Marriage is a unique social event most of the persons face in their social life. From time immemorial marriage has undergone various changes in its meaning, definition and nature. The Compact Oxford Reference Dictionary (2001) states that marriage is the formal union of a man and a woman, by which they become husband and wife. Britannica Ready Reference Encyclopedia (2004) defines marriage as legally and socially sanctioned union, usually between a man and a woman, that is regulated by laws, rules, customs, beliefs and attitudes that prescribe the rights and duties of the partners and accords status to their offspring, if any. The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Current English Eighth Edition (1990) defines marriage as, (1) the legal union of a man and a
woman in order to live together and often to have children (2) an act or ceremony establishing this union (3) one particular union of this kind (by a previous marriage) and (4) an intimate union (the marriage of true minds). Jim Tally (1991) a marriage counselor described marriage as the union of two people in an emotional, moral, and legal conventional agreement.

7.8.1. Marital Love, Careers, Parenthood and the Changing Composition of Families
The reality of marriage entails much more than falling in love, having a wedding ceremony and then experiencing unending bliss. Then the two partners interact with each other on a daily basis and find ways to deal with a multitude of challenges, such as deciding on household chores, dealing with ups and downs of daily life and meeting demands of an outside jobs. Any married individual who is employed faces a potential conflict between the motivation to do a good job at work and the motivation to engage in family activities. These two motivations can easily lead to conflict, alienation, and eventually to emotional exhaustion. If both the spouses work outside the home the potential conflict becomes even more intense. A major task for two employed spouses is to discover how best to adjust to the demands of a two-career family (Gilbert, 1993).

7.8.2. The Psychology of Marriage
The institution of marriage is both extremely important to individual’s well-being and is at the same time very fragile. Married individuals are happier, healthier, and longer-lived than unmarried individuals (Jared Bucker & Flower, 2002). In the late 1970s Glenn and Weaver Revealed that married persons had considerably higher levels of overall happiness than divorced, separated, widowed, and never-married persons (Glenn, 1975; Glenn & Weaver, 1979; 198). Although there existed a strong positive relationship between marital status and happiness, the quality of marriage was an important contributor to a person’s level of overall happiness (Glenn & Weaver, 1981).

7.8.3. Married Relationship
Whatever is said about interpersonal attraction and attachment, and close friendship holds good for marital relationship. Similarity factor establishes a strong connection for marital relationships. Spouses similar in their attitudes, values, interests, and other attributes found to contribute for the positive marriage relationship (Pearson & Lee, 1993; Schuster & Elderton, 1906 and Smith, et. al., 1993). A study conducted from the time of engagement to two decades of marriage showed the coupes remained similar in all their characters (Caspi, et. al., 1992). Though similarity is an important factor in cherishing and sustaining married relationship, it becomes very difficult to find such a perfect match. Hence, people, in general, make compromises. People find someone with more positive than negative qualities. But, one thing is certain that numerous studies conducted by the researchers confirmed the role of similarity and happiness positively.

7.8.4. Trouble in Marital Relationships
Remaining in intimate relationship involves certain degree of compromise. In their day-to-day activities taking decisions are very important. In such situations one of the spouse has to come in line with the other for so many reasons. Otherwise, differences crops,
yielding trouble in family relations (Baxter, 1990). Couples, in general, report that conflicts arise often (McGonagle, et. al., 1992). Most of the spouses overestimate how much they agree on most matters (Byrne & Blaylock, 1963). They even don’t realize that their views differ even when they believe they are communicating (Sillers, et. al., 1994). One of the major problem arises when spouses respond to the negative words or deeds of the other in an equally negative way (Yovetich & Rusbult, 1994). The reaction stems from the characteristics features found in spouses, especially, such as, hostility, defensiveness, and depression.(Newton, et. a., 1995). Other reasons for conflicts between spouses are dissimilarity in various aspects of life, for example, neatness (Byrne & Murnern, 1988); Spending money, saving, how best to respond to child’s misbehaviors and dealing with aged parents (Baron & Byrne, 2007); Unfulfilled sexual satisfaction (Henderson-King & Veroff, 1994); Negative feeling due to conflicts and disagreement (Margolin, et. al., 1989) and expressing mutual negative feelings (Bradbury &Fincham, 1992).

7.8.5. Solutions for Troubles in Marital Relationship
Though marriage brings lot of problems, the secret of successful marriage or solution of the problems are very neat and practical. They are placing emphasize on friendship, commitment, similarity and efforts to create positive feelings in all the endeavors of human life (Lauer & Lauer, 1986). Maintaining positive feeling in every activity proved fruitful in making a marriage happy, even in old age (Levenson, et, al.,1994). Couples who have good communication with each other experience positive feeling and intimacy (Bray & Jouriles, 1995).

7.8.6. Effective Married Relationships
Argyle and Henderson (1985) have brought out the most significant marital rules for good couple relationship. They are: Showing emotional support, Sharing news of success, Remaining faithful, Creating a harmonious home atmosphere, Respecting each others privacy, Keeping confidences, Engaging in sexual activity with each other, Standing up for the partner in his or her absence, Disclosing personal feelings and problems to the partner, Informing one’s personal schedule to the partner, Being tolerant of each other’s friends and Not criticizing the partner publicly. If these ideas are properly followed the result will be satisfaction, happiness and wellness in married life.

7.9 Let us Sum Up
Interpersonal attraction brought out the likes and dislikes of human attitudes. Proximity or the closeness of propinquity and the emotions, either positive or negative directly influence interpersonal attractions. The likeness begets likeness and paves way for friendships, close friendships and makes people go beyond friendship. It makes people to enter into conjugal relations. In marital life various factors contribute for its success. Mainly, openness, commitment, love and positive thinking and action all facilitate effective marital relationships.
7.10 Lesson-end Activities

1) Bring out the salient features of interpersonal attraction.
2) Discuss the friendship and relationship factors in interpersonal attraction.
3) Describe the role of relationship with reference to loneliness.
4) Elaborate the marital relationship in detail.

7.11 References

UNIT IV

LESSON - 8

SOCIAL INFLUENCE

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8.0 Aims and Objectives
   After studying this unit you should be able to
   • Define and describe the studies on conformity.
   • Describe the predictors of conformity.
   • Explain the techniques used by people for influencing others.

8.1. Introduction
   A change in behavior or belief to accord with others. The word “conformity” does, however, carry a negative value judgment. Hence North American and European social psychologists, reflecting their individualistic cultures, give it negative labels (conformity,
submission, compliance) rather than positive ones (communal sensitivity, responsiveness, cooperative team play).

In Japan, going along with others is a sign not of weakness but of tolerance, self-control, and maturity (Markus & Kitayama, 1994). “Everywhere in Japan,” observed Lance Morrow (1983), “one senses an intricate serenity that comes to a people who know exactly what to expect from each other”.

8.2. Conformity
Conformity is not just acting as other people act; it is being affected by how they act. It is acting differently from the way we would act alone. Thus conformity is a change in behavior or belief to accord with others.

There are several varieties of conformity (Nail & Others, 2000). Consider two: compliance and acceptance. Sometimes to conform to an expectation or request without really believing in what we are doing. To put on the necktie or dress, though to dislike doing so. This outward conformity is compliance. To comply primarily to reap a reward or avoid a punishment. If our compliance is to an explicit command, we call it obedience. Sometimes genuinely believe in what the group has convinced us to do. Joining millions of others in drinking milk because we are convinced that milk is nutritious. This sincere, inward conformity is called acceptance. Acceptance sometimes follows compliance.

8.2.1 Sheriff’s studies on conformity
Muzafer Sheriff (1935, 1937) wondered whether it was possible to observe the emergence of a social norm in the laboratory. Like biologists seeking to isolate a virus so they can then experiment with it, Sherif wanted to isolate and then experiment with norm formation.

As a participant in one of Sheriff’s experiments, one might have found himself seated in a dark room. Fifteen feet in front of him a pinpoint of light appears. At first, nothing happens. Then for a few seconds it moves erratically and finally disappears. Now he must guess how far it moved. The dark room gives him no way to judge distance. So he offers an uncertain “Six inches”. The experimenter repeats the procedure. This time he says, “Ten inches.” With further repetitions, he estimates continue to average about eight inches.

The next day he returns, joined by two others who the day before had the same experience. When the light goes off for the first time, the other two people offer their best guesses from the day before. “One inch,” says one. “Two inches,” says the other. A bit taken aback, he nevertheless says, “Six inches.” With successive repetitions of this group experience, both on this day and for the next two days, will his responses change? The Columbia university men whom Sheriff tested changed their estimates markedly. Sheriff had taken advantage of an optical illusion called the autogenetic phenomenon.

Sheriff and others have used this technique to answer questions about people’s suggestibility. Remarkably, they continued to support the group norm.
Struck by culture’s seeming power to perpetuate false beliefs, Robert Jacobs and Donald Campbell (1961) studied the transmission of false beliefs in their Northwestern University laboratory. Using the auto kinetic phenomenon, they had a confederate give an inflated estimate of how far the light moved. The confederate then left the experiment and was replaced by another real participant, who was in turn replaced by a still newer number. The inflated illusion persisted (although diminishing) for five generations of participants. These people had become “unwitting conspirators in perpetuating a cultural fraud.” The lesson of these experiments: Our views of reality are not ours alone.

In everyday life the results of suggestibility are sometimes amusing. One person coughs; laughs, or yawns, and others are soon doing the same. Comedy show laugh tracks capitalize on our suggestibility. Just being around happy people can help us feel happier, a phenomenon that Peter Totterdell and his colleagues (1998) call “mood linkage.” In their studies of British nurses and accountants, people within the same work groups tended to share up and down moods.

Another form of social contagion is what Tanya Chartrand and John Bargh (1999) call “the chameleon effect.”

Suggestibility can also occur on a large scale. In late March 1954, Seattle newspapers reported damage to car windshields in a city 80 miles to the north. On the morning of April 14, similar windshields damage was reported 65 miles away and later that day only 45 miles away. By nightfall, the windshield-pitting agent had reached Seattle. Before the end of April 15, the Seattle police department had received complaints of damage to more than 3,000 windshields (Medalia & Larsen, 1958). That evening the mayor of Seattle called on President Eisenhower for help.

I was Seattle 11-year old at the time. I recall searching our windshield, frightened by the explanation that a Pacific H-bomb test was raining fallout on Seattle. On April 16, however, the newspapers hinted that the real culprit might be mass suggestibility. After April 17 there were no more complaints. Later analysis of the pitted windshields concluded that the cause was ordinary road damage.

In real life, suggestibility is not always so amusing. Hijackings, UFO sightings, and even suicides tend to come in waves. Sociologist David Phillips and his colleagues (1985, 1989) report that known suicides, as well as fatal auto accidents and private airplane crashes (which sometimes disguise suicides), increase after well-publicized suicides. For example, following Marilyn Monroe’s August 6, 1962, suicide, there were 200 more August suicides in the United States than normal. Moreover, the increase happens only in areas where the suicide story is publicized. The more publicity, the greater the increase in later fatalities.

Although not all studies have found the copycat suicide phenomenon, it has surfaced in Germany, in a London psychiatric unit that experienced 14 patient suicides in one year, and in one high school that, within 18 days, suffered two suicides, seven suicide attempts,
and 23 students reporting suicidal thoughts (Joiner, 1999; Jones 1992). In both Germany and the United States, suicide rates slightly following fictional suicides on soap operas, and, ironically, even after serious dramas that focus on the suicide problem (Gould & Shaffer, 1986; Hafner & Schmidtke, 1989; Phillips, 1982). Phillips reports that teenagers are most susceptible, a finding that would help explain the occasional clusters of teen copycat suicides.

8.2.2 Asch’s studies on Conformity

Social psychologist Asch recreated his boyhood experience in his laboratory. Asch's studies on Conformity comes from a series of studies carried out in the 1950’s by Solomon Asch in 1951. In the experiments, subjects thought they were participating in a test of perceptual skills with a group of six of their subjects.

The subjects were shown one card with three lines of varying length and a second card, which had a fourth line that, matched one of the these

The task was seemingly straightforward: The subjects had to announce aloud which of the first three lines was identical in length to a standard line. Because the correct answers were always obvious, the task seemed easy to the participants. All the subjects agreed on the first few trails the procedure appeared to be quite a simple one. But the something odd began to happen. From the perspective of the subject in the group who got to answers last all of the first six subjects answers seemed to be wrong. In fact unanimously wrong. And this pattern persisted over and over again; the first six subjects provided answers that contradicted what the last subjects behaved to be corrected one. The dilemma that this situation posed for the last subject was whether to follow his or her own perceptions or to follow the group and repeat the answers that everyone else was giving. As people might have guessed the situation in the experiment was more contrived than it first appeared. The first six subjects were actually confederates of the experiments and had been instructed to give unanimously erroneous answers in many of the trials. The study had nothing to do with perceptual skills. Instead the issue under the investigation was conformity. The findings was that in about one third of the trials, subjects conformed to the unanimous but erroneous group answers with about 75% of all subjects conforming at least one. However there were strong individual differences some subjects confirmed nearly all the time, where as others never did so.

8.2.3 Milgram’s Studies on Conformity

Milgram’s experiments tested what happen demands of authority clash with the demands of conscience these have become social psychology’s most famous and controversial experiments. “Perhaps more than any other empirical contribution in the history of social science. Notes lee ross (1988), they have become part of our societies shared intellectual legacy, that a small body of historical incidents, classic literature that serious thinkers feel free to draw on when they debate about human nature or contemplate human history.”

Hear is scene staged by Mailgram, a creative artist who wrote stories and stage plays. Two men came to Yales University, psychology laboratory to participate in a study of
learning and memory. A stern experimenter in a gray technicians court explained that this is a pioneering study of the effect of punishment on learning. The experiment requires one of them to teach a list of words pairs to the other and to punish errors by delivering shocks of increasing intensity. To assign the roles they draw slips out of a cat. One of the men mild mannered 47 year old accountant who is the experimenter confederates, returns that his slip says learner and he is ushered in an adjacent room the teacher take some mild sample shock and then looks into a chair and attaches an electrode to his wrist. Teacher and experimenter then return to the main room where the teacher takes his space before a shock generator, which switched ranging 15 to 450 volts in 15-volt increments. The switches are labeled slight shock, very strong shock, and danger severe shock. Under 435 & 450 volt switches appears XXX. The experimenter tells the teacher to move one lever higher on the shock generator each time the learner gives the wrong answer. If the participant compiles the experimenter requests he hears the learner grunt at 75, 90 and 150 volts. At 120 volts the learner that shock are painful. And at 150 volts he cries out experimenter get of hear. By 270 volts he protests how become screens of agony and he continues to insist to be let out. And 300 & 350 volts he screams he is refused to answer. Milligram described the experiment to 110 psychiatrist, college students and middle class adults people in all three groups guess that they would disobey by about 135 volts non expected to go beyond 300 volts. Recognizing that self-estimates may reflect self-bias, Mailgram asked how far they thought other people would go. Virtually no one expected any one to proceed to XXX on the short panel. Having expected a low rate of obedience and with planes to replicate the experiment in Germany and assess the cultural difference Milligram was disturbed. So instead of, Milligram made the learners protest even more compelling. As the learner was strapped into the chair the teacher heard him mention his slight heart condition and heard the experimenters reassurance that although the shocks may be painful they cause no permanent tissue damage. The learners anguished protest where to little away of new men in this experiment fully compiled with the experimenters demands.

8.4 The predicators of conformity
Many factors contribute for people to go inline with others or existing norms and rules. Personality and culture play key roles in making people adhere to the prevailing systems in the society. The characteristics of the individuals are shaped and formed continuously by his experiences, expectations and evaluations of the society and the people in the society. Every society consists of various cultural patterns in their normal behaviors. All these have a say in the formation of the personality of the individuals. This in turn decides how an individual behave in a given situations. Apart from these factors various others factors make a person get along with others in the same line. They are.

8.4.1 Group Size
In laboratory experiments, a group need not be large to have a large effect. Asch and other researchers found that three to five people will elicit much more conformity than just one or two. Increasing the number of people beyond five yields diminishing returns. The way the group is “packaged” also makes a difference. Rutgers University researcher David Wilder (1977) gave students a jury case. Before giving their own judgments, the students watched videotapes of four confederates giving their judgments. When the
confederates were presented as two independent groups of two people, the participants conformed more than when the four confederates presented their judgments as a single group. Similarly, two groups of three people elicited more conformity than one group of six, and three groups of two people elicited even more. Evidently, the agreement of several small groups makes a position more credible.

8.4.2 Unanimity
It’s difficult to be a minority of one; few juries is hung because of one dissenting juror. These experiments teach the practical lesson that it is easier to stand up for something if you can find someone else to stand up with you. Many religious groups recognize this.

Observing someone else’s dissent – even when it is wrong – can increase our own independence. Charlan Nemeth and Cynthia Chiles (1988) discovered this after having people observe a lone individual in a group of four misjudge blue stimuli as green. Although the dissenter was wrong, observing him enabled the observers to exhibit their own form of independence – 76 percent of the time they correctly labeled red slides “red” even when everyone else was calling them “orenge”. Others, lacking this model of courage, conformed 70 percent of the time.

8.4.3 Cohesion
The more cohesive a group is, the more power it gains over its members. In college sororities, for example, friends tend to share binge – eating tendencies, especially as they grow closer (Crandall, 1988). People within an ethnic group may feel a similar “own group conformity pressure” or Whites “act black” may be mocked by their peers (Contrada & others, 2000).

In experiments, too, group members who feel attracted to the group are more responsive to its influence (Berkowitz, 1954; Lott & Lott, 1961). Sakurai, 1975). They do not like disagreeing with other group members. Fearing rejection by those they like, they allow them, especially those who most typify the group, a certain power (Hogg, 2001). In his Essay Concerning Human Understanding, the seventeenth century philosopher John Locke recognized the cohesiveness factor: “Nor is there one in ten thousand who is still and insensible enough to bear up under the constant dislike and condemnation of his own club”.

8.4.4 Status
Higher status people ten to have some impact on lower status people. Sometimes people actually avoid agreeing with low status or stigmatized people. Studies of Jay walking behavior conducted with unwitting aid of merely 24000 pedestrians reveal that the base line jaywalking rate of 25 percent decreases to 70 percent in the presence of non jay working confederate and increases to 44 percent in the presence of another jay walker.

8.5 Role of Personality in Conformity.
During the late 16 &17 effects to link personal characteristics with social behavior such as conformity found only weak connections. In contrast to the demonstratable of
situational factors, personality scores where poor predictors of individuals behavior. During the 1980’s the idea that personal disposition make little difference prompted personality researchers to pinpoint the circumstances under which traits to predict behavior. Personality also predicts behavior better when social influence are weak. Attitudes researcher consider clarifying and a reaffirming the connection between personality and what we are and what we do. Every psychological events depents upon the straight of the person and the same time on the environment, although their relative importance is different cases.

8.6 Role of Culture in conformity
James Whitteaker and Robert Meade (1967) repeated Asch conformity experiments in several countries and found similar confirmative rates in most of the countries. The fact is that culture may change. Replication of Asch experiment with university in Britain, Canada and United states triggers less conformity than Asch observed two or three decades earlier thus conformity and obedience are universal phenomena vary across cultures from in across countries.

8.7 Compliance and Ingratiation
Well known social psychologist (Robert cialdini) decided that the best way to find out about compliance was to study what he termed compliance professionals – people whose success (financial or otherwise) depends on their ability to get others to say yes. They include salespeople, advertisers, political lobbyists, fund raisers, con artists and - one might argue – trail attorneys, professional negotiators, and politicians. Cialdini’s technique for learning from these people was straightforward: he temporarily concealed his true identity and took jobs in various settings in which gaining compliance is a way of life. In other words, he worked in advertising, (direct door to door) sales, fund raising, and other compliance-focused fields. On the basis of these first hand experiences, he concluded that although techniques for gaining compliance take many different forms, they all rest to some degree on six basic principles (Cialdini, 1994)

8.7.1 Friendship liking
In general, we are more willing to comply with requests from friends or from people we like than with requests from strangers or people we don’t like.

8.7.2 Commitment consistency
Once we have committed ourselves to a position or action, we are more willing to comply with requests for behaviors that are consistent with this position or action than with requests that are inconsistent with it.

8.7.3 Scarcity
In general, we value, and try to secure, outcomes or objects that are scare or decreasing in their availability. As a result, we are more likely to comply with requests that focus on scarcity than whit ones that make no reference to this issue.
8.7.4 Reciprocity
We are generally more willing to comply with a request from someone who has previously provided a favor or concession to us than to oblige someone who has not. In other words, we feel compelled to pay people back in some way for what they have done for us.

8.7.5 Social validation
We are generally more willing to comply with a request for some action if this action is consistent with what we believe persons similar to ourselves doing for thinking. We want to be correct, and one way to do so is to act and think like others.

8.7.6 Authority
In general, we are more willing to comply with requests from someone who holds legitimate authority – or who simply appears to do so. According to Cialdini (1994), these basic principles underlie many techniques used by professionals – and ourselves – for gaining compliance from others.

8.7.7 Tactics based on Friendship or Liking: Ingratiation
A technique for gaining compliance in which requesters first induce target persons to like them, then attempt to change their behavior in some desired manner. There are effective ingratiation techniques. Under the heading of self – enhancing tactics are such procedures as improving one’s appearance, emitting many positive nonverbal cues (e.g., smiling, a high level of eye contact), and associating oneself with positive events or people the target person already likes. In contrast, other – enhancing tactics include flattery, agreeing with target persons, showing interest in them, and providing them small gifts or flavors.

8.8. Foot in the door technique
A technique for gaining compliance in which requesters first induce target persons to like them attempts to change their behavior in some desired manner.

8.8.1 The low ball technique
An observed by Cialdini (1994), experts in compliance – salespersons, advertisers, fund raisers – often their campaigns for gaining compliance with a trivial request. The results of many studies indicate both that the foot –in –the –door technique really works and that its effectiveness stems, at least in part, from the operation of the consistency principle. The first of these conclusions – that the foot in the door really works – is supported in a fairly dramatic way by a famous study conducted by Freedman and Fraser (1966).

The foot in the door technique is not the only one based on the consistency\ commitment principle, however. Another is the lowball procedure. In this technique, which is often used by automobile salespersons, a very good deal is offered to a customer. After the customer accepts, however, something happens advantageous for the customer – for example, an “error” in price calculations is found, or the sales manager rejects the deal. The totally rational reactions for accept the less desirable arrangement.
8.9 Door in the face technique
A procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a large request and then, when this is refused, retreat to a smaller one (the one they actually desired all along).

8.9.1 And that is not all technique
Negotiators, who may begin with a position that is extremely advantageous to them, often use the same tactic but then back down to a position much closer to the one they really hope to obtain. Similarly, sellers often begin with a price they know that buyers will reject, and then lower the price to a more reasonable one – but one that is still quite favorable to them. In concession after their first request or proposal is rejected; then target persons feel obliged to make a matching concession in return – a concession that may and up giving the request what she or he wanted all along.

A related procedure is known, as that’s not – all technique. Here, an initial request is followed, before the target person can make up her or his mind to say yes or no, by something that sweetens the deal – a small extra incentive from the person sing this tactic. For example, auto dealers sometimes decide to throw in a small additional option to the car in the hope that this will help them close the deal; and often, it really does! Persons on the receiving end of the that’s not – all technique view this small extra as a concession on the part of the other person, and so feel obligated to make a concession themselves. Several studies indicate that this technique, too, really works: throwing in a small “extra” before people can say no does indeed increase the likelihood that they will say yes.

A third procedure for increasing compliance involves a more subtle use of the reciprocity principle. When people feel that they are in a relationship with another person – no matter how trivial – they often feel that they owe this person some consideration simply because the relationship exists. For example, friends help friends when they need assistance, and persons who perceive themselves as similar in some manner may feel that they should help one another when the need arises, this subtle use of the reciprocity principle underlies what social psychologists term the foot – in – the – mouth technique.

8.10 Pique technique
A technique for gaining compliance that focuses on gaining target person’s attention and so preventing them from engaging in automatic (mindless) refusal. People in general follow the path of least resistance in social cognition. Most of the time people will heed to the request of even the strangers. Here people spent very little of their cognitive capacity. Acting on the request of even the strangers is carried out by the Pique technique, that is, acting to the request of the strangers based on the special interest of the strangers or of any target persons. This technique is a highly successfully people use prevalently in social settings.

8.11 Tactics based on scarcity
It’s a general rule of life that things that are scare, rare, or difficult to posses are viewed as being more valuable than those that are easy to obtain. This principle, too, serves as
the basis for several techniques for gaining compliance. One of the most intriguing of these is playing hard to get.

A related technique based on the same “what’s scarce – is – valuable” principle is one frequently used by retailers. Ads using this deadline technique state a specific time limit during which an item can be purchased for a specific price. After the deadline runs out, the ads suggest, the price will go up.

8.12 Let us Sum Up
People are not individual entities, they are sensitive to every other persons as well as every happening in and around them. Again, for the smooth relations and acceptance of the others many a time people go in with the ideas of other individuals. The social Psychologists, Sherrif, Solomon Asch and Miligrams classic experiments are categorically emphasized in this view. Many other researchers also confirmed these findings. People in general use lot of techniques to influence other persons. All these techniques are well documented in the above presentations.

8.13 Lesson-end Activities
1) Elaborate the role of Conformity in social life of individuals.
2) Narrate the various classical experiments carried out on Conformity.
3) Narrate the techniques people use for influencing others.

8.14 References
LESSON - 9

PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR

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9.0 Aims and Objectives
After studying this unit you should be able to
  • Describe prosocial behaviour

9.1. Introduction
Actions that provide benefit to others but that have no obvious benefits for the person who carries them out. Prosocial behavior can sometimes involve risk for the one who helps. Helping behavior, charitable behavior, and volunteerism are also used to describe the “good” things that people do to provide needed assistance to others.

9.2. Prosocial Behavior
Prosocial behavior became a topic of major interest to social psychologists in the 1960s. a widely publicized event helped motivate a number of social psychologists to create theories and design experiments to explain why bystanders sometimes do and sometimes do not respond to an emergency.
The daily news provides many examples of people helping one another, sometimes even acting as heroes who risk their lives to aid a stranger in distress. Consider the following newspaper stories.

1. A sixty-year-old man was driving a delivery truck on a highway in upstate New York when he had a cardiac arrest. His heart had dropped beating and his lungs were no longer functioning when two passing motorists stopped and began cardiopulmonary resuscitation on this stranger. An ambulance came and took the truck driver to the hospital, and he survived.

2. Early one morning in New York City, a man stopped at a newsstand to help a friend unite newspapers. As they saw someone being stabbed after obtaining money from an ATM in the lobby of a bank that was not yet open. The wounded victim stumbled out of the door calling for help as the criminal gathered the bills that were scattered on the floor. The two men at the newsstand rushed over and blocked the door so the criminal could not get out. Other strangers stopped to help, and one of them called the police. The assistant was arrested, and the victim was rushed to the hospital, where he received treatment.

3. There are sometimes serious risks associated with a Good Samaritan. In the state of Washington, a man had a car wreck, and three strangers in a pickup stopped to help. They took the man home. As they were helping him enter his house, the man’s frightened thirteen-year-old son saw the strange truck parked outside and assumed that burglars were breaking in. He opened fire with a .22-caliber semiautomatic rifle, hitting one of the helpful strangers in the chest, face, and shoulder; the man died almost instantly.

### 9.3 Reasons for Helping

There are so many reasons advocated by social psychologists to explain why and when people render help to others. Social exchange theory states that human interactions are transactions that aim to maximize one’s rewards and minimize one’s costs. Human beings exchange not only materials goods and money but also social goods, such as, love, services, information and status (Foa & Foa, 1975). Again helping brings enormous internal rewards to the helper, for an example, helping reduces distress (Piliavin & Piliavin, 1973). Again the reciprocity norm (Alviin Gouldner, 1960) and social-responsibility norms (Berkowitz, 1972) facilitate helping behavior. Apart from these reasons, gender, evolutionary perspectives, Genuine altruism are all influence the helping behavior of human beings.

### 9.4 Bystander effect

The finding that as the number of bystanders increases, the likelihood of any one bystander helping decreases and more time passes before help does occur. Darley and Latane labeled the inhibiting effect of additional witness to an emergency the bystander effect. This insight about the effect of multiple bystanders makes it clear why the newspaper stories of helpfulness most often involve only one or two bystanders, and also
why thirty-eight bystanders could be expected not to respond when Kitty Genovese was being assaulted.

9.5 Personality Traits and Religious faith in helping behavior
The above presentations give an idea that either internal or external causes contribute helping behavior. But, the helper’s dispositions such as personality as well as religiosity too play specific roles in the helping behavior. They are presented below.

9.5.1 Personality Traits
Surely some traits must distinguish the Mother Teresa types. Faced with identical situations, some people will respond helpfully, other won’t bother. For many years social psychologists were unable to discover a single personality trait that predicted helping with anything close to the predictive power of the situation, guilt, and mood factors. Modest relationships were found between helping and certain personality variables, such as a need for social approval. But by and large, the personality tests were unable to identify the helpers. Studies of rescuers of Jews in Nazi Europe reveal a similar conclusion: although the social context clearly influenced willingness to help, there was no definable set of altruistic personality traits.

Personality researchers have responded to the challenge. First, they have found individual differences in helpfulness and shown that these differences persist overtime and are noticed by one’s peers. Some people are reliably more helpful. Second, researchers are gathering clues to the network of traits that predispose a person to helpfulness. Those high in positive emotionality, empathy, and self-efficacy are most; likely to be concerned and helpful. Third, personality influences how particular people react to particular situations. Those high in self-monitoring are attuned to others’ expectations and are therefore helpful if they think helpfulness will be socially rewarded. Others opinions matter less to internally guided, low self–monitoring people.

9.5.2 Religious Faith
With Nazi submarines sinking ships faster than the Allied forces could replace them, the troop ship SS Dorchester steamed out of New York harbor with 902 men headed for Greenland. Among those leaving anxious families behind were four chaplains, Methodist preacher George Fox, Rabbi Alexander Goode, Catholic priest John Washington, and Reformed Church minister Clark Poling. Some 150 miles from their destination, submarine U – 456 caught the Dorchester in its cross hairs. Within moments of the torpedo’s impact, stunned men were pouring out of their bunks as the ship began listing. With power cut off, the escort vessels, unaware of the unfolding tragedy, pushed on in the darkness. On board, chaos reigned as panicky men came up from the hold without life jackets and leapt into overcrowds lifeboats.

As the four chaplains arrived on the steeply sloping deck, they began guiding the men to their boat stations. They opened a storage locker, distributed life jackets, and coaxed the men over the side. When Petty Officer John Mahoney turned back to retrieve his gloves,
Rabbi Goode responded, “Never mind, I have two pairs.” Only later did Mahoney realize that the Rabbi was not conveniently carrying an extra pair; he was giving up his own.

In the icy, oil–smeared water, Private William Bednar heard the chaplains preaching courage and found the strength to swim out from under the ship until – he reached a life raft. Still on board, Grady Clark watched in awe as the chaplains handed out the last life jacket and then, with ultimate selflessness, gave away their own. As Clark slipped into the waters, he looked back at an unforgettable sight: The four chaplains were standing

9.6 Increasing Helping
People are not equal in their helping behavior. Of course, various factors facilitate helping behavior. When people are low in their helping it reduces the social relations and social harmony. Hence, it is important that people should be enabled to increase their levels of helping behavior. Psychologists have come with certain techniques to increase the helping behavior of individuals. They are summarized below.

9.6.1 Undoing the restraints on helping
In order to increase the helping behavior people should reduce the opposite behavior in all possible ways. Encouraging people to shift their attention to themselves to other’s selves. Apart from these the following are certain specific points, if considered will increase helping behaviors.

9.6.2 Reduce ambiguity, increasing responsibility
If Latane and Darley’s decision tree describes the dilemmas bystanders face, then assisting people to interpret an incident correctly and to assume responsibility should increase their involvement. Leonard Bickmen and his colleagues tested this presumption in a serious experiment on crime reporting. In each, supermarket or bookstore shoppers witnessed a shoplifting. Some witnesses had seen signs that attempted to sensitize them to shoplifting and to inform them how to report it, but the signs had little effect. Other witnesses heard a bystander interpret the incident: “Say, look at her. She’s shoplifting. She put that into her purse.” (The bystander then left to look for a lost child.) still others heard this person add, “We saw it. We should report it. It’s our responsibility.” Both comments substantially boosted reporting of the crime.

The potency of personal influence is no longer in doubt. Robert Foss (1978) surveyed several hundred-blood donors and found that neophyte donors, unlike veterans, were usually there at someone’s personal invitation. Leonard Jason and his collaborators (1984) confirmed that personal appeals for blood donation are much more effective than posters and media announcements – if the personal appeals come from friends. Nonverbal appeals can also be effective when they are personalized. Mark Snyder and his colleagues have found that hitchhikers doubled the number of ride offers by looking drivers straight in the eye and that most AIDS volunteers got involved via someone’s personal influence. A personal approach, as my panhandler knew, makes one feel less anonymous, more responsible.

9.7 Conflict
Conflict is a perceived incompatibility of actions or goals. The elements of such conflict are similar at all levels, from nations in an arms race, to conflicted Middle Easterners, to cooperate executives and workers disputing salaries, to a feuding married couple. Whether their perceptions are accurate or inaccurate, people in conflict sense that one side’s gain is the other’s loss.

A relationship or an organization without conflict is probably apathetic. Conflict signifies involvement, commitment, and caring, if conflict is understood, if recognized, it can end oppression and stimulate renewed and improved human relations. Without conflict, people seldom face and resolve their problems.

9.8 Reasons for conflict
Social – Psychologists studies have identified several ingredients of conflict. What’s striking (and what simplifies our task) is that these ingredients are common to all levels of social conflict, whether international, intergroup, or interpersonal.

9.8.1 Social Dilemmas
Several of the problems that most threaten our human future – nuclear arms, global warming, overpopulation, and natural resource depletion – arise as various parties pursue their self – interests, ironically, to their collective detriment. In some societies individuals benefit by having many children who, they assume, can assist with the family tasks and provide security in the parents, old age. But when most families have many children, the result is the collective devastation of overpopulation. Choices that are individually rewarding become collectively punishing. We therefore have an urgent dilemma:

To isolate and illustrate this dilemma, social psychologists have used laboratory games that expose the heart of many real social conflicts. By showing us how well – meaning people become trapped in mutually destructive behavior, they illuminate some fascinating, yet troubling, paradoxes.

Social psychologists who study conflicts are in much the same position as the astronomers,” noted conflict researcher Morton Deutsch (1999). We cannot conduct true experiments with large – scale social events. But we can identify the conceptual similarities between the large scale and the small, as the astronomers have between the planets and Newton’s apple. That is why the games people play as subjects in our laboratory may advance our understanding of war, peace, ad social justice.”

Consider two examples; the Prisoners Dilemma and the Tragedy of the commons.

9.8.2 The Prisoners Dilemma
One dilemma derives from an anecdote concerning two suspects questioned separately by the district attorney (DA) (Rapoport, 1960). They are jointly guilty; however, the DA has only enough evidence to convict them of a lesser offense. So the DA creates an incentive for each to confess privately:

- if one confesses and the other doesn’t, the DA will grant the confessor immunity (and will use the confession to convict the other of a maximum offense).
- If both confess, each will receive a moderate sentence.
If neither confesses, each will receive a light sentence. In some 2,000 studies (Dawes, 1991), university students have faced variations of the Prisoners’ Dilemma with the outcomes not being prison terms but chips, money, or course points.

9.8.3 The tragedy of the commons
Many social dilemmas involve more than two parties. Global warming stems from deforestation and from the carbon dioxide emitted by cars, furnaces, and coal–fired power plants. Each gas–guzzling Suva contributes infinitesimally to the problem, and the harm each does is diffused over many people. To model such social predicaments, researchers have developed laboratory dilemmas that involve multiple people. A metaphor for the insidious nature of social dilemmas is what ecologist Garrett Hardin (1968) called the Tragedy of the commons. He derived the name from the centrally located pasture in old English towns, but the “common” can be air, water, whales, cookies, or any shared and limited resource. If all use the resource in moderation, it may replenish itself as rapidly as it’s harvested. The grass will grow, the whales will reproduce, and the cookie jar gets restocked. If not, there occurs a tragedy of the commons. Many real predicaments parallel this story. Internet congestion occurs as individuals, seeking to maximize their own gain, surly the Web, filling its pipelines with graphical information. Likewise, environmental pollution is the sum of many minor pollutions, each of which benefits the individual polluters much more than they could benefit themselves (and the environment) if they stopped polluting. We litter public places – dorm lounges, parks, and zoos – while keeping our personal spaces clean. We deplete our natural resources because the immediate personal benefits of, say, taking a long, hot shower outweigh the seemingly inconsequential costs. Whales knew others would exploit the whales if they did not and that taking a few whales would hardly diminish the species. Therein lies the tragedy. Everybody’s business (conservation) becomes nobody’s business.

9.9. Factors to Achieve Peace
By harnessing the destructive forces peace can be established in the society. Facilitating contacts between groups, establishing equal-status, encouraging cooperative behaviors, common education, and establishing effective communication between groups and people in general will facilitate peace among people. For achieving these qualities following things should be taken into account.

9.9.1 Resolving Social Dilemmas
People have various views on lots of social issues. For example, nuclear arms, global warming, overpopulation and natural resource depletion are some of the social issues for which different people possess different types of opinions. People have certain personal interests in all these issues hence they for get the societal well-being. Social psychologists call it as social dilemmas. They also found out lot of tested methods to come out of the social dilemmas. They are:
9.9.2 Regulation
Reflecting on the Tragedy of the Commons, Garrett Hardin (1986) wrote, “Ruin is the destination to which all men rush, each pursuing his own best interest in a society that believes in the freedom of the commons, freedom in a common brings ruin to all.”
In everyday life, regulation has costs – costs of administering and enforcing the regulations, costs of diminished personal freedom.

9.9.3 Small is beautiful
There is another way to resolve social dilemmas: Make the group small. In a small commons, each person feels more responsible and effective (Kerr, 1989). In small groups, people also feel more identified with a group’s success. Anything else that enhance group identity will also increase cooperation. Even just a few minutes of discussion or just believing that one shares similarities with others in the group can increase “we feeling” and cooperation

In small rather than large groups, individuals are also more likely to take no more than their equal share of available resources.

9.10 Let us Sum Up
Prosocial behavior is an act of helping others in which the helper does not get any benefits. But various aspects of social life either encourage or even discourage such a helping tendencies. The mere presence of others either motivates are hinders helping. Apart from these factors personality and religiosity also plays roles in increasing the helping behavior of individuals. With all these dynamics still people have conflicts. Reducing the conflicts and increasing the peace among people and nations use various methods by social psychologists.

9.11 Lesson-end Activities
1) Discuss in detail the nature of prosocial behavior.
2) Explain the personality and religiosity in helping behavior.
3) Bring out the contributing factors of peace making.
4) How to reduce conflict and enhance peace?

9.12 References
UNIT V

LESSON – 10

AGGRESSION

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10.0 Aims and Objectives
    After studying this unit, you should be able to
    • Describe the theories of aggression
    • Describe the influences on aggression

10.1. Introduction
    Aggression refers to physical or verbal behavior intended to hurt someone. This can be in
    the form of slaps, direct insults, even gossip. The above definition covers two distinct
    types of aggression. Animals exhibit social aggression, characterized by rage and silent
    aggression when an animal stalks its prey. In humans, psychologists label two types of
    aggression. They are: Hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. Hostile aggression
    springs from anger and its goal is to injure. Instrumental aggression aims to hurt only as a
    means to some other end. Terrorism is a typical example of instrumental aggression. Murders
    are an example of hostile aggression.

10.2 Theories of Aggression
    Unlike earlier views, modern theories of aggression do not focus on a single factor as the
    primary cause of aggression. Rather, it draws on the advances in many fields of
psychology in order to gain added insight into the factors that play a role in the occurrence of such behavior. No single theory includes all the factors that social psychologist now view as important, one approach, the general affective aggression model proposed by Anderson, provides a good illustration of the breadth and sophistication of these new perspectives.

According to this theory, aggression is triggered by a wide range of input variables; aspects of the current situation or tendencies individuals bring with them to a given situation. Variables falling into the first category include frustration, some kind of attack from another person, exposure to other persons behaving aggressively, the presence of cues associated with aggression, and virtually anything that causes individuals to experience discomfort, everything from uncomfortably high temperatures to a dentist drill or even an extremely dull lecture. Variables in the second category include traits that predispose individuals towards aggression, certain attitudes and beliefs about violence, values about violence and specific skills related to aggression. According to the GAAM these, situational and individual differences variables can then lead to overt aggression through their impact on three basic processes, arousal, affective states and cognitions.

Modern theories like the GAAM are admittedly, much more complex than the ones offered by Freud and Lorenz. These theories are more likely to provide an accurate and complete picture of the origins of human aggression and that of course is what science is all about.

10.3. Social, Personals, and Situational Influences on Aggression

The oldest and probably best known explanation for human aggression is the view that human beings are programmed for violence by their basic nature. Such theories suggest that human violence stems from built in tendencies to aggress against others. The most famous supporter of this theory was Sigmund Freud, who held that aggression stems mainly from a powerful death wish (thanatos) possessed by all persons. According to Freud this instinct is initially aimed at self-destruction but is soon redirected outward, toward others. Until a few years ago, a few psychologists accepted such views. With the advent of the evolutionary perspective in psychology this situation has changed considerably. Social psychologist continues to reject the view that human aggression stems largely from innate factors; many now accept the possibility that genetic factors play some role in human aggression. Social Psychologists rejected the instinct views of aggression proposed by Freud and Lorenz, the view that aggression stems mainly from an externally elicited drive to harm others. This approach is reflected in several different drive theories of aggression. These theories proposes that external conditions especially frustration, arouse a strong motive to harm others. The aggressive drive, in turn leads to overt acts of aggression. By far the most famous of these theories is the well-known frustration-aggression hypothesis. According to this view frustration leads to the arousal of a drive whose primary goal is that of harming some person or object primarily the perceived cause of frustration.

10.3.1 Determinants of Human Aggression: Social, Personal, Situational

Social Psychologists interested in studying human aggression make use of the aggression machine, a valuable new research tool. It is an apparatus used to measure physical aggression under safe laboratory conditions.
10.3.2 Social Determinants of Aggression: Frustration, Provocation, Displaced Aggression, Media Violence and Heightened Arousal.

The widespread belief that frustration is a cause of aggression is from a famous hypothesis termed as frustration-aggression hypothesis. This suggests that frustration is a very powerful determinant of aggression. In its original form, this hypothesis made two sweeping assertions. Frustration always leads to some form of aggression, and aggression always stems from frustration. In short the theory holds that frustrated persons always engage in some type of aggression and that all acts of aggression in turn result from frustration. Research findings indicate that, when frustrated individuals do not always respond with aggression, on the contrary they show many different reactions, ranging from sadness, despair and depression on one hand to a direct attempt to overcome the source of their frustration on the other. Aggression is definitely not an automatic response to frustration. People aggress for many different reasons and in response to many different factors. For example, professional boxes hit their opponents because they wish to win valued prizes. During wars, air force report that flying their place is a source of pleasure and they bomb enemy targets while feeling elated or excited. Social Psychologists now accept the ideas that frustration is the only or even the most important cause of aggression. Instead most believe that it is simply one of the many factors that can potentially lead to aggression. Further, aggression may be due to physical or verbal provocation from others. When one is in the receiving end of some form of aggression from others, criticisms, sider unfair, sarcastic remarks, returning as mush as aggression as much as one has received or even more, if the individual is certain that the other person meant to harm the individual.

10.3.3 Personal Causes of Aggression

Type A, pattern consisting primarily of high levels of competitiveness, time urgency and hostility. Type B Behavior pattern, a pattern consisting of the absence of characteristics associated with the Type A behavior pattern.

Hostile Aggression: Aggression in which the prime objective is inflicting some kind of harm on the victim.

Instrumental Aggression: Aggression in which the primary goal is not to harm to the victim but, attainment of some other goal, such as access to valued resources.

10.4. The Prevention and Control of Aggression: Some Useful Techniques

Aggression is not an inevitable or unchangeable form of behavior. Aggression stems from a complex interplay of external events, cognitions and personal characteristics it can be prevented or reduced.

10.5. Punishment: An Effective Deterrent to Violence?

Existing evidence suggests that punishment can succeed in deterring individuals from engaging in many forms of behavior. Such effects are neither automatic nor certain. Unless punishment is administered in accordance with basic principles, it can be totally ineffective in this respect. Four are most important; it must be prompt, it must be certain, it must be strong, it must be perceived by recipients as justified or deserved. The
magnitude of punishment itself varies from place to place. The conditions necessary for it to be effective are simply not present.

10.6 Catharsis: Does Getting It out of Your System Really Help?
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. Catharsis does not appear to be very effective means for reducing aggression. Participating in “safe” forms of aggression or merely in vigorous, energy draining activities may produce temporary reductions in arousal, but feelings of anger may quickly return when individuals meet, or think about, the persons who annoyed them, such feelings may actually be intensified if individuals think about persons who annoyed them while engaging in cathartic activities. For these reasons catharsis may be less effective in reducing aggression.

10.7. Interventions and other Techniques
Good Excuses ones that make reference to factors beyond the excuse-giver control can be quite effective in reducing anger and overt aggression by persons who have been provoked in some manner. When a person is in anger his ability to think clearly, to evaluate the consequences of the action may be sharply reduced. In addition to this the individual is emotionally aroused and adopts modes of thought in which the individual process information in a quick and impetuous manner. A technique that could be followed is preattribution, attributing annoying actions by others to unintentional causes before the provocation actually occurs. Another technique involves preventing yourself from dwelling on previous real or imagined wrongs. This can be done by distracting in some way. Such activities allow for a cooling-off period during which anger can dissipate, and also help to reestablish cognitive controls over behavior, controls that help to hold aggression in check.

10.7.1 Other Techniques for Reducing Aggression: Exposure to Nonaggressive Models, Training in Social Skills, and Incompatible Responses
Many other techniques for reducing overt aggression have been developed and tested. These three appear to be quite effective.

10.7.2 Exposure to Non Aggressive Models: The Contagion of Restraint
Exposure to aggressive actions in others in the media or in person can increase aggression, it seems that exposure to nonaggressive actions might produce the opposite effects. The results of several studies indicate that this is so. When individuals who have been provoked are exposed to others who either demonstrate or urge restraint, the tendency of potential aggressors to lash out is reduced.

10.7.3 Training in Social Skills: Learning to get along with others:
One reason many persons become involved in aggressive encounters is that they lack basic skills. These persons do not know how to respond to provocation from others in a way that will soothe these persons rather than annoy them. Persons lacking basic social skills seem to account for a high proportion of violence in many societies. The procedure for teaching individuals social skills is not complex in nature. For example, both adults
and children can acquire improved social skills from watching other persons demonstrate both effective and ineffective behaviors.

10.7.4 Incompatible Responses: It’s Hard to Stay Angry if you smile
Another approach for reducing aggression is known as incompatible response technique. This technique suggests that if individuals are exposed to events or stimuli that cause them to experience affective states incompatible with anger or aggression these reactions are reduced.

10.8 Let Us Sum up
Purposefully inducing pain and harm to others is termed as aggression. There are various theories explain the reasons for aggression. Instinct, biological, drive, social learning and cognitive theories clearly give the reason for aggressive behavior. They all try to explain the social, personal and situations influence on aggression. Psychologists are also brought out certain methods of preventing and controlling aggression. They are punishment, cathartic activities, direct apologies cognitive deficits and following non-aggressive models and training in social skills.

10.9 Lesson-end Activities
1) What is aggression? Elaborate the theories of aggression with suitable examples.
2) Elaborate the social, personal and situational influences on aggression.
3) Narrate the methods of preventing and controlling aggression.

10.10 References
LESSON - 11

GROUP INFLUENCES

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11.0 Aims and Objectives
   After studying this unit, you should be able to
   • Define group influence
   • Describe roles, status, norms and cohesiveness of group.
   • Describe group decision process.
11.1 Introduction
Human beings cannot live alone. All individuals identify themselves with groups. Social Psychologists are of the view that individuals like to identify themselves with groups and not as individual entities. A group consists of two or more interacting persons who share common goals, have a stable relationship, are somehow interdependent and perceive that they are in fact part of a group (Paulus, 1989). The definition suggests that to be part of group individuals must interact with each other directly or indirectly. They must be interdependent. Their relationship must be stable. The individuals involved must share at least some goals that they all seek to attain. The persons involved must recognize that they are part of a group.

11.2 Group Influence
A collection of persons who are perceived to bonded together in a coherent unit to some degree. Social psychologists refer to this property of groups as entiativity, the extent to which group is perceived as being a coherent entity. Entiativity varies greatly, ranging from mere collections of people who happen to be in the same place at the same time but have little or no connection with one another, to highly intimate groups such as family or persons with whom there is romantic relationship.

11.2.1 Norms: The Rules of the Game
Norms are rules within a group indicating how its members should or should not behave. Adherence to norms is often a necessary condition for gaining status and other rewards controlled by the groups

11.2.2 Cohesiveness: The Force that Binds
Cohesiveness refers to all forces (factors) that cause group members to remain in the groups. Several factors influence cohesiveness including, status within the group, the effort required gaining entry in to the group, the existence of external threats to severe competition and size. In the past, cohesiveness was viewed as a unitary dimension ranging from low to high. It is in recent times, viewed as multidimensional terms. It involves several factors and these can vary independently of one another (Zaccaro & McCoy, 1998). For example, Cota and his colleagues (1995) suggests that cohesiveness involves two primary dimensions: task-social and individual-group. The task-social dimension relates to the extent to which individuals are interested in the goals of the group (task) or in social relationship within it (social). The individual-group dimension has to do with the extent to which members are committed to the group or to other members. According to Cota and his colleagues (1995) group cohesiveness involves secondary dimension as well. For example, in an military group cohesiveness may relate to status, ranks. Additional factors to cohesiveness include, the amount of effort required to gain entry in to the group. External threats or severe competition and size of the groups. In sum, several factors such as groups, roles status norms determine the extent of cohesiveness in groups.

11.3. How Group Functions: Roles, Status, Norms, and Cohesiveness
Roles: Differentiation of Functions within Groups
Roles refer to set of behaviors that individuals occupying specific positions within a group are expected to perform. Roles are assigned for a group. A group may select individuals to serve as leader, treasurer. Individuals acquire certain roles without being formally assigned to them. Regardless of how roles are acquired, people often internalize them; they link their roles to key aspects of their self-concept. Roles help to clarify the responsibilities and obligations of group members. Group members sometimes experience role conflict, stress stemming from the fact that the two roles they play are somehow at odds with each other.

11.3.1. Roles
In a group variety of persons perform different tasks. In short individuals fulfill different roles. Roles refer to the set of behaviors that individual occupying specific positions within a group are expected to perform. It helps to clarify the responsibilities and obligations of the persons belonging to a group. Further, it provides the way in which groups shape the behavior and thoughts of their members. Sometimes group members experience role conflict that is stress from the fact that two roles they play are somehow incompatible. An example of role conflict involves the pressures experienced by new mothers’ and fathers who find the obligations of one role parent inconsistent with the obligation of the role of student or employee.

11.3.2. Status
The social standing or rank within a group is considered to be a serious matter for many persons. This is termed as status. Status plays a key role in the perceptions of whether individuals are treated fairly by others. (Tyler, 1994). Status is another factor in the functioning of groups. Different roles or positions in a group are associated with different levels of status and people are sensitive to this fact.

11.3.3. Norms
Norms are rules, implicit or explicit, established by groups to regulate the behavior of their members. These norms are considered as prescriptions, these tell group members how to behave or how not to behave.

11.4. Formation of Group
Social Psychologists are of the view that people join groups for a variety of reasons. Groups help them to satisfy important psychological or social needs such as those for giving and receiving attention and affection. Groups help individuals achieve goals that could not be attained as individuals. Groups also help meet individual’s need for security. Above all groups contribute to the establishment of social identity.

There is no doubt that groups exert powerful effects upon the members. The question is do groups affect their members? Four aspects of groups play a key role they are roles, status and cohesiveness.

11.5. Social Facilitation: Performance in the Presence of others
Allport referred to the effects on performance of the presence of others as social facilitation, because it appeared that when others were present performance was
enhanced. Researchers today refer to social facilitation as inhibition, a phrase that more accurately reflects the complex effects of presence of other persons.

11.5.1 Zajonc’s Drive theory of Social Facilitation: Other persons as a source of Arousal
An implication of Zajonc’s reasoning is the drive theory of social facilitation. It suggests that the mere presence of others is arousing and increases the tendency to perform dominant responses. Many studies soon provided support for Zajonc’s theory. Individuals were more likely to perform dominant responses in the presence of others than when alone and their performance on various tasks was either enhanced or impaired depending on whether these responses were correct or incorrect in each situation.

11.6. Social Loafing: Letting Others Do the Work When Part of a Group
Social Psychologists refer to reduction in motivation and effort when individual’s work collectively in a group compared to when they work individually or as independent coactors as social loafing. The social loafing occurs has been demonstrated in many experiments. For example, on one of the first, Latane, Williams and Harkins (1979) asked groups of male students to clap or cheer as loudly as possible at specific times, supposedly so that the experimenter could determine how much noise people make in social settings. They performed these tasks in groups of two, four or six persons. Results indicated that although the total amount of noise rose as group size increased the amount of each participant dropped. In other words, each person put out less and less effort as group size increased.

11.6.1 The Collective Effort Model: An Expectancy Theory of Social Living
Many different explanations for the occurrence of social loafing have been proposed, the most comprehensive explanation of social loafing is the collective effort model proposed by Karau and Williams (1993). An explanation of social loafing suggesting that perceived links between individual’s effort and their outcomes are weaker when they work together with others in a group. This in turn, produces tendencies toward social loafing. The researchers suggest that social loafing can be understood by extending a basic theory of individual motivation, expectancy-valence theory, to situations involving group performance. Expectancy Valence theory suggests that individuals will work hard on a given task only to the extent that the following conditions exist. They believe that working hard will lead to better performance (expectancy), they believe that better performance will be recognized and rewarded (instrumentality) and the rewards obtained are ones they value and desire (valence). According to Karau and Williams, these links often appear weaker when individuals work together in groups than when they work alone.

11.6.2 Decision Making by Groups
Groups are called upon to perform a wide range of tasks, everything from conducting surgical operations through harvesting the world crops. One of the most important activities they perform is decision making. The process through which individuals or groups combine and integrate available information in order to chose one out of several possible courses of action.
11.6.3 The Decision Making Process: How Groups Attain Consensus
When groups first begin to discuss any issue, their members rarely voice unanimous agreement. They support a wide range of views and favor competing courses of action. After some period of discussion, they usually reach a decision. In most cases, though, some decision is reached.

11.6.4 Social Decision Schemes: Blueprints for Decisions
Social decision schemes are rules relating the initial distribution of member views to final group decisions. For example, one scheme the majority-wins rule suggests that in many cases the group will opt for whatever position is initially supported by most of its members. A second decision scheme, the truth-wins rule, indicates that the correct solution or decision will ultimately come to the fore as it correctness is recognized by a growing number of members.

11.6.5 Procedural Processes: When the procedures used to reach them influence decisions.
The decisions reached by groups can often be predicted from knowledge of member’s initial positions, it is clear that many other factors play a role in the complex process. Among the most important of these are several aspects of group’s procedures, the rules it follows in addressing its agenda, managing interactions among members and so on. One procedure adopted by many decision-making groups is the straw poll, in which members indicate their present positions or preferences in a nonbinding vote. While straw polls are nonbinding and thus allow group members to shift to other positions, research findings indicate that these informal votes often exert strong effects on members.

11.6.6 The Nature of Group Decisions
Important decisions are rarely left to individuals. They are usually assigned to groups and highly qualified groups at that. Different kinds of decisions in many different contexts groups show a pronounced tendency to shift toward views more extreme than the ones with which they initially begin. This is called group polarization. It is the tendency of group members to shift toward more extreme positions than those they initially held as a result of group discussion. Not only does the group shift toward more extreme views, individual group members too. The term group polarization does not refer to a tendency of groups to split apart in to two opposing camps or poles on the contrary it refers to a strengthening of the groups initial preferences.

11.7. Deindividuation
At times group situations may cause people to lose self-awareness, resulting less of individuality and self-restraint. Social facilitation experiments show that groups can arouse people. Results of such experiments indicate that people tend to commit acts that range from a mild lessening of restraining to impulsive self-gratification. For example, in an incident, 200 University of Oklahoma students gathered to watch a disturbed student
threatening to jump from a tower. They began to chant “Jump. Jump …………” The student jumped to his death (UPI, 1967). The incident described is provoked by the power of the group. Groups sometimes generate a sense of excitement of being caught up in something bigger than one’s self. In such group situations people are likely to abandon normal restraints to lose their sense of individual identity. Leon Festinger and Albert Pepitone and Theodore Newcomb, (1952) termed the above as deindividuation. It refers to the loss of self-awareness and evolution apprehension, occurs in group situations that foster responsiveness to group norms, good or bad.

11.8. Group polarization
Studies of people in groups have produced a principle that helps to explain the good and bad outcomes produced by groups. Group discussion often strengthens member’s initial inclination.

11.8.1. The Case of the “Risky Shift
This refers to the group-produced enhancement of members preexisting tendencies, a strengthening of the members’ average tendency, not a split within the group. Research literature from by James Stoner (1961) who tested the commonly held belief that groups are more cautious than individuals. He posed decision dilemmas in which the participant’s task was to advise imagined characters how much risk to take. Results revealed that risky shift occurs not only when a group decides by consensus but also when individuals alter their decisions. After several years of study, Stoner discovered that risky shift was not universal.

11.8.2. Group Polarization experiments
Dozens of studies confirm group polarization. Moscovici and Zavalloni (1969) observed that discussion enhanced French Students initially positive attitude toward their president and negative attitude toward Americans. Mititoshi Isozaki (1984) found that Japanese university students gave more pronounced judgments of “guilty” after discussing a traffic case. Markus Brauer and his co-workers (2001) found that French students dislike for certain other people was exacerbated after discussing their shared negative impressions.

11.8.3. Group Think
The tendency of highly cohesive groups to assume that their decisions can’t be wrong, that all members must support the group’s decision and ignore information contrary to it. This is referred to as group think. A strong tendency for decision making groups to close ranks cognitively around a decision assuming that the group can’t be wrong that all members must support the decision strongly and that any information contrary to it should be rejected.

11.9. Conclusion
When two or more people join together with common goals, act interdependently with social relationship and recognizing each other groups re formed. It is inevitable that each one are members of so many groups. All the groups influence the behavior of individuals. Groups at times facilitate the members’ performance as well as hinders. Remaining in groups serve lot of purpose for individuals. The groups mask the individual’s identity. Again, when people join together individual thinking reduces
groupthink increases. Due to this individual’s decisions are influenced by the groups ideas.

11.10 Lesson-end Activities
1. What is group? Describe the nature and functions of groups
2. Discuss Zajonc’s Drive theory of Social Facilitation
3. Describe the nature of group decision process

11.11 References