**Chapter one**

1. **Meanings of social psychology**

* *Social psychology is the* ***scientific study of how people think about, influence and relate to one another*** *(Myers, 1999)*.
* Social psychology can be defined as a **discipline** that uses **scientific methods to understand and explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others**. (Worchel et.al, 1991; Hogg and Vaughan (1998).
* It seeks to understand the **nature and causes of individuals' behaviors and thoughts in social situations** Baron and Byrne (1997)**.**
* It is the scientific study of the **personal***and* ***situational factors that affect individual’s social behavior***.

It is the study of the **interaction** between **individual characteristics and social situations**.

1. **Historical Development of Social Psychology**

* The discipline of social psychology, as its modern-day definition, began in the United States at the **beginning of the 20th century**. By that time, the discipline had already developed a significant foundation.
* **In 1898;** [**Norman Triplett**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Norman_Triplett) published first experimental study on the phenomenon of **social facilitation**
* During the **1930s**, many [**Gestalt**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gestalt_psychology)**psychologists**, most notably [**Kurt Lewin**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kurt_Lewin)**,** were instrumental in developing the field as something separate from the [behavioral](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Behaviorism) and [psychoanalytic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Psychoanalysis) schools that were dominant during that time, and *social psychology has always maintained the legacy of their interests in*[perception](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Perception)*and*[cognition](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognition).

[**Attitudes**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Attitude_(psychology))**and**[**small group**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Communication_in_small_groups)**phenomena were the most commonly studied topics in this era.**

* During World War II, social psychologists **studied**[**persuasion**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Persuasion) **and**[**propaganda**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Propaganda)for the U.S. military.
* After the war, researchers became interested in a variety of ***social problems including***[**gender**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gender) ***issues and***[**racial prejudice**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Racial_prejudice)***,***. Most notable, revealing, and contentious of these were the [**Stanley Milgram shock experiments**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stanley_Milgram_shock_experiments) on [**obedience to authority**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Obedience_to_authority).
* In the sixties,(**1960’s**) there was growing interest in new topics, such as [**cognitive dissonance**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognitive_dissonance)**,**[**bystander intervention**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Bystander_effect)**, and**[**aggression**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aggression).
* By the **1970s**, however, social psychology in America had reached **a crisis**. There was heated **debate** over the ethics of laboratory experimentation, *whether or not attitudes really predicted behavior, and how much* ***science*** *could be done in a* **cultural context**.This was also the time when a radical [situationist](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Situationism_(psychology)) approach challenged the relevance of self and personality in psychology.
* Throughout the **1980s and 1990s** social psychology reached a more **mature level**. Two of the areas social psychology matured in were ***theories and methods***. Careful [**ethical standards**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Research_ethics) now regulate research.

Modern researchers are interested in many phenomena, but [**attribution**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Attribution_(psychology))**,**[**social cognition**](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Social_cognition), and the **self-concept** are perhaps the **greatest areas of growth in recent years**. Social psychologists have also maintained their applied interests with **contributions** in the *social psychology of health, education, law, and the workplace.*

1. **Social Psychology’s Relation to Other Fields of Inquiry**

* Social psychology is poised **at the crossroads of a number of related disciplines and sub-disciplines.** It is a sub-discipline of general psychology, and is therefore concerned with explaining human behavior.
* Social psychology therefore *draws up on the store house of sociology, cultural anthropology, personality psychology, and cognitive psychology among other behavioral sciences*. *But it largely retains a primary emphasis on the psychological level of analysis.*
* Social psychology is often represented as a **half way between psychology** (individual sciences) on one side **and sociology** and **cultural anthropology** (group sciences) on the other side.
* It has greater links with **sociology, political science, psychology of personality, anthropology, economics, history, art, music...etc.**

1. **important concerns of social psychology today are**

* **Theory development**: theory is an integrated set of principles that explain and predict observed events. Thus social psychologists engage in relentless efforts to develop new ones and substantiate the available theories in the various topics of foci to the discipline.
* **Research**: rigorous research is another concern of tremendous value in social psychology. The ever-changing facets(aspects) of social behavior require systematic investigation of knowledge in the area. Since many theories and findings considered vital would be obsolete (out dated) if they are not supported by updated research.
* **Application**: while defining social psychology we have categorized it under applied psychology, this is so because the discipline is not mainly meant to accumulate knowledge and understanding in the area but **to apply the understanding to solve human problems.** We shall see this in more details in each unit.

1. **Theories of social psychology**

The five pertinent theories in social psychology are the following. They are more related to answering the questions raised earlier:

1. ***Genetic Theorists***: they *assume that large component of* ***social behavior is related to unlearned genetic causes***.

* Social behavior is thought to be **caused by instincts**.
* They have made researches to make comparison in identical twins, fraternal twins, siblings, distant relatives and non-relatives in their social behavior to see similarities in terms of genetics. Each group was developed in a similar to control the effects of environment difference. Results showed marked similarity in identical twins more than fraternal and fraternal more than other siblings and siblings more than distant relatives, clearly demonstrating effect of genetics on social behavior.

1. ***LearningApproach***:

* *Social phenomena are thought to arise through learning.*
* The learning approach deals with ***observable behavior***.
* They assume that internal mental processes could be inferred through observed behaviour.
* Many of human social behaviour is thought to be a *product of learning observable behavioural actions and may be formed through****reinforcement*** or ***social modelling,*** or ***operant conditioning*** or ***classical conditioning.***

1. ***Psychoanalytic Theory***: explains

* Social behaviorare a**result of activity in the unconscious part of the brain**.
* E**arly experience and repressed wishes as major causes of social behavior**. Childhood experiences are considered vital in shaping adult behavior.
* But this theory is difficult to test scientifically for it relies on the unobservable and the unconscious ones.

1. ***Role Theory***:

* Social behavior is ***shaped by the roles*** *that society provides for individuals to play*.
* Society has certain expectations for certain roles we are assigned for. There are behaviours that we expect from a priest, police, teacher, medical practitioner, accountant, lawyer, nurse, guard, housewife, farmer and other occupations.
* Thus people are e**xpected to behave in accordance with these expectations, and social behaviour develops in this manner.**

1. ***Cognitive Approach***:

* Direct opposite of the learning approach.
* Assumes that the **thinking process and perception of our social world** are examined to explain social behavior.
* Relates to **how people come to understand and represent the world** and this is crucial in **development of social behavior**.
* **Internal mental processes are focused**.
* Theories in social psychology can generally be clustered into **meta-theories**. Modern social psychologists often find that they cannot fully understand the topics they study using any **single general theory**, such as social learning theory.
* Rather, they combine and integrate ideas from different theoretical traditions. Instead of focusing primarily on overt behaviour, thinking, or emotions new theorists seek to understand the interrelationship among behaviours, thought, and feelings.

An example to demonstrate how the various theories could be employed in explaining a given social behaviour is presented below.

***Observed social behaviour: in a class some students are shy***. *To explain this social behaviour the different theorists use their own viewpoint.*

* *The* ***genetic theorist*** *will state that excess or* ***lowness of some hormones*** *or some problem in the* ***nervous system*** *or* ***inherited traits from family caused shyness****.*
* *The learning theorist would say that one would be shy because he has* ***learned*** *this from his/her family because some* ***families encourage silence*** *and shyness as* ***good quality*** *or in some cultures this is promoted.*
* *A psychoanalyst might say that the students, becomes shy because* ***repression*** *is one defense mechanism in life; so the student is repressing his/her wishes and feelings.* **Early experience** *is also considered to influence him/her. At early age a child may be indoctrinated* ***(Learned)*** *to be quiet, not to talk with the elderly, not to touch some objects and this is endorsed by some families as a good quality, this influences school life.*
* ***Role theory*** *point of view, in some cultures for example in Ethiopia the role of a child is* to *keep quiet and accept* orders *from adults. It is this role expectation that is influencing children in school to keep silent in front of the teacher.*
* *A* ***cognitve theorist*** *may explain shyness at schools as being a product of mental feelings and thoughts. Children may feel that they* ***are not capable and they are incompetent to express their ideas.*** *They may think that speaking in class is the task of the teacher.*

**Research methods in social psychology**

Methods in social psychology can generally be classified **into two.**

***A). Experimental Methods***

**5**. **Experimental Method:** designed by the researchers to investigate whether there is **cause-effect relationship** between two or more variables. It produces **change** in one variable and observes the **effects** on the other variable. Ideally, everything in the experimental situation except the **independent** variable is held **constant**- that is, kept the same for all participants and this situation ensures that whatever happens is due to the researchers’ **manipulation** and nothing else. It allows you to rule out other **interpretations**.

* **Experimental and Control Conditions:**

**Control condition**, subjects are **treated exactly as** they are in the experimental condition, **except** that they are **NOT** exposed to the same **treatment**, or **manipulation** of the independent variable. Without a control condition you **can’t** be sure that the behavior you are **interested** would **not** have occurred anyway, even without your **manipulation**.

* **Experimenter Effects:**

**Expectations** and **hopes** can influence the results of a study and **responses** through facial expressions, posture, tone of voice or some other **cue** or **hints**. Hence, subjects should **not** know whether they are in an **experimental** or a **control group**; when this is so (as it usually is), the experiment is said to be a **single-blind** study. One solution to the problem of experimenter effects is to do a **double-blind** study, means the person who run the experiment **does not** know which subjects are **in which groups** until the data have been gathered.

In an experimental research there are **two** groups:

* **The Experimental Group**- a group that **receives** the treatments
* **The Control Group** – a group that receives **no** treatments but it is **created** to see the difference created by the **treatment** given to the experimental group.

While assigning the groups into two, every possible **extraneous** variable need to be **controlled**. The **difference** between the **experiment**al &**control** groups are **only** the **treatment** provided. **Otherwise** they are the **same** in the other characteristics.

The **variables** in an experimental research are grouped into **three** namely;

* **IndependentVariable (IV)**: variables which is being **manipulated** to see its **effect** on the **dependent** variable.
* **DependentVariable (DV)** : variable that is **measured** and is **expected** to change as a result of **manipulating** independent variable
* **ExtraneousVariable (EV)**: a variable that can **influence** the results of the experiment **unnecessarily** unless it controlled properly.

**e.g.,** the research topic entitled “the effect of **tutorial** class on students’ **academic** performance”. In this statement,

* **IV** -tutorial class, **DV** -students’ academic performance
* **EV** - except, tutorial class, all other variables that may affect the results of the study unnecessarily can be extraneous variables **i.e.** the background of students, intelligence, family back ground, socio economic status

**Advantage of Experimental Method**

* It **allows** us to establish **cause-effect** relationships
* It enables researchers to study behavior that **rarely occurs** or **can’t** easily be studied in another way
* It generates **quantitative** data which can be analyzed using **inferential** statistical tests
* It is possible to **generalize** the findings of the study
* It helps the researchers to **repeat** the findings obtained

**Limitation of Experimental Method**

* Participants usually **know** that they are **taking part** in a psychological experiment
* It is **not** always possible to carry out an experiment because it would either be **inappropriate** or **unethical** to do so
* Laboratory experiments tend to be **artificial**
* Participants are **not always representative** of the larger population
* Can’t be used to **explore** some research questions
* It will be **difficult** in the real world to avoid all **extraneous** variables
* The findings are **not** applicable outside the experimental situations

***B). Non-Experimental Methods***

**1. The Naturalistic Observation Method:** here psychologists **observe** the behavior of the subjects in **natural setting** as it is. For example, psychologists study the behavior of **some animals** such as rats, dogs and children while they play. The method involves a **mere recording** of the behavior **observedwithout interference**. Based on what the **researcher has observed**, he can **describe** what the **behavior** of the **subjects’ looks like** and **generate possible explanations**.

Naturalistic observationis **not appropriate** in situations where **testing a hypothesis** is mandatory. Besides since people sometimes **see what they want to see**, **not what really exists**, it is open to **subjectivity**. More over it will be **difficult**, using such a method, to **determine** the **causes of behavior**. **Generally, it is characterized by**:

* Variables are **not** manipulated by the researchers
* **No** random assignment of variables
* Participants **display** a wide range of **verbal**&**non-verbal**behavior

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Advantages of**  **Naturalistic Observation** | **Disadvantages of**  **Naturalistic Observation** |
| * people tend to behave **naturally** * it helps to get much **information** * can be used when other methods are **not** possible | * difficult to **control** the overall situation * un able to **see reality** due to observer **bias** and observer **effect** * Problems of **reliability**&**validity** due to observer bias * difficult to determine the **causes** of behavior * difficult in **categorizing**behaviors * difficult in **replication**&**require high cost** |

**2. The Survey Method**

Here researchers will obtain **large amount of information** with **short period of time** using **fixed** set of questions **concerning** attitude, opinions, experiences & beliefs of participants. In other words, it is concerned with studying the incidence of behavior in **large population**. In such cases they use **self-reports - instruments** that ask participants such as **questionnaires**, **interview**s and **tests.**

**Advantage of Survey Method**

* helps to get **much information** from **large number** of participants with short period of time
* once developed and piloted, it is easy to apply in gathering data
* less opportunity for the researcher to influence the respondents

**Disadvantage of Survey Method**

* **can’t** be used with **children** and **miss interpretations** of different language
* respondents may **not** provide accurate information
* difficulty in **preparing** good questionnaires and **accurate** representatives of the study

**3. The Case Study Method:** involves an **in-depth study** of single person, family or a small group of persons **using** interviews, questionnaires and psychological tests.

**Advantage of Case Study**

* carrying out to **test** and **refine** the current theory
* permitting the **development** of new theoretical ideas
* revealing the **exceptional** characteristics of certain individuals
* enables to get **detailed** information about particular events
* provide **good evidence** that a particular theory is in error

**Disadvantage of Case Study**

* it is **impossible** to generalize the results obtained
* it requires the **use** of lengthy, fairly unstructured, interviews and **problems** of reliability

**4. The Co-relational Method:** refers to the **relationship** that exists between two or more variables so that **changes** in one variable **correspond** with changes in another variable. It measures the **strengths** or **weakness** of the relationship between two or more variables. For example, the relationship between **salary increment** and employees’ **job satisfaction**. The relationship, however, is **NOT** show cause effect relationship. Inco-relational methods of psychologicalresearch, there are **3** types of relationship:

* + - * **Positive correlation:** occur when **high values** of one variable are associated with **high values** of the other/**low values** of one variable are associated with **low values** of the other variable.

**e.g.,** the relationship between high school result & college GPA

* + - * **Negative correlation:** occur when **high values** of one variable are associated with **low values** of the other and vice versa. **e.g.,** the relationship between the **age** of the people and the **ability** to memorize
      * **Zero correlation:** mean there is **no** or **null** relationship between two variables at all. **e.g.,** the relationship between the **heights** of the people with their **academic** performance.

**Correlation Coefficients:** are an estimate of the **strength** and **direction** of the relationship of between two variables which can range from **(+1.00, 0.00 & -1.00)**. If two events are **strongly** correlated, we can **predict** effectively one from the other. Correlation coefficient **1** indicates that there is perfectly **positive** correlation between two variables and **-1** indicates the presence of perfectly **negative** correlation between them.

**Advantage of Co relational Methods**

* Provide a **precise** quantitative measure of the **strength** of the relationship between variables
* Allow for the **measurement** of many variables and the **relationships** between them
* Problems of **interpretation** are reduced when **NO** association is found
* Allows study of **hypotheses** that **can’t** be examined directly

**Disadvantage of Co relational Methods**

* It is **not possible** to establish **cause** and **effect** relationship b/n variables
* **Interpretation** of results is difficult
* **Non-linear** relationships **can’t** be measured by using co relational techniques
* Direction of **causality** is uncertain

**Chapter two: Socialization**

🟎 ***Major Concepts of Socialization***

***Socialization*** is an interaction process whereby an individual’s behavior is modified to ***conform*** to expectations held by members of the group to which he/she belongs to.

***Socialization*** is the process by which someone learns the ways of a given society or social group well enough so that he can function with in it. It is a process by which people adopt the codes of conduct of the society and gain respect for its rules.

***Socialization*** is a lifelong developmental process whereby the individual becomes a member of the society. It includes not only the process by which the child gradually acquires the ways of the adults around him but also the requirement of adults required to take behaviours appropriate to expectations associated with new position in a group, organization or society at large.

Socialization is the means by which we become fully human. The learning processes by which infants are made into normal human adults possessing culture and able to participate in social relations is called ***socialization***. It is a life long social experience by which individuals develop human potential and learn the pattern of their culture. The process begins at birth and continues until death. Thus we never cease to be shaped by our interactions with others. In summary ***socialization*** is the way in which society transmits it culture from one generation to another.

***Two aspects of socialization distinguish it from other processes of changes*** these are:

* Only ***attitudinal and behavioral changes***occurring through learning are relevant.
* Only ***attitudinal and behavioral changes*** having their origin in interaction with others are considered products of socialization. Not all learning is socialization, but learning which a product of social interaction is.

Social psychologists limit their interest in socialization to the following **four processes**

* + *Social learning mechanisms* such as imitation, identification, and role learning. One way of getting socialized is through imitation, it is for this reason that G. Tarde said that society is imitation. By identification we mean that an individual would take one as a model to strictly identify him/her with the model to adopt the behaviours of the model.
  + *Establishment of internal moral controls and other cognitive processes* such as self concept. Self concepts and moral values are the product of socialization.
  + *Development of various social behaviour* patterns such as dependency, aggression, independence in thinking and action, cooperativeness, being achievement oriented, helping or hurting others as well as prejudice are all learned through socialization.
  + *The effect of social systems and the larger social structure on the development of social behaviour.*

**Goals of socialization (Broom and Sleznki)**

* To inculcate (teach) basic disciplines by restraining a child or even an adult from immediate gratification; a child who is toilet-trained will delay relieving himself/ herself until the proper environment is created.
* To instill aspirations;
* To teach social roles;
* To teach skills;
* To teach conformity to norms; and
* To create acceptable and constructive personal identities.

**Major Types of Socialization**

There are different types of socialization; the major ones include:

* **primary** or **childhood** socialization,
* **secondary** or **adulthood** socialization,
* **de-socialization** and
* **Resocialization**.

Other minor types of socialization include:

* **anticipatory** socialization and
* **reverse** socialization (Calhoun *et al,* 1994; Henslin and Nelson, 1995; Soroka,1996; Macionis, 1997)

1. **Primary or Childhood Socialization**

* This is also called **basic** or **early** socialization. The terms "primary", "basic" or "early" all signify the overriding importance of the childhood period for socialization.
* Much of the personality make-up of individuals is forged at this period in life. Socialization at this stage of life is a landmark; without it, we would cease to become social beings.
* The human infant who is a biological being or organism is changed into a social being mainly at this early stage. Hence, children should be appropriately socialized from birth up to particularly five/six years of age, because this period is basic and crucial one.
* A child who does not get appropriate socialization at this stage will most likely be deficient in his/her social, moral, intellectual and personality development. Some grew up developing anti-social attitudes, aspirations and practices.

1. **Secondary or Adult Socialization**

* Necessitated when individual take up new roles, reorienting themselves according to their changes social statuses and roles, as in starting marital life.
* The socialization process at this stage may sometimes be intense.
* For example, fresh college graduates entering the world of work to start their first jobs, there are quite many new roles to be mastered.
* Intense adult socialization may also occur among immigrants. When they go to other countries, they may need to learn the language, values, norms, and a host of other custom and folkways, coupled with experiencing economic hardships may prove to be truly stressful and most challenging.
* Although it may be fairly stated that childhood socialization experiences what kind of people we become, the challenges of socialization thus continues in late adolescent and adult stages. This happens to be so particularly in the context of fast changing world in complex societies.

**Re-socialization and De-socialization**

In the lives of individuals, as they pass through different stages and life experiences, there is the need for resocialization and de-socialization.

* Re-socialization means the adoption by adults of radically different norms and life ways that are more or less completely dissimilar to the previous norms and values.
* Resocialization signifies the rapid and more basic changes in the adult life. The change may demand abandonment of one life way with a new one, which is completely different from, and also incompatible with, the former.
* This quite so often happens as adult life in modern societies demands sharp transitions and changes. De-socialization typically precedes re-socialization.
* Desocialization refers to stripping (leaving) individuals of their former life styles, beliefs, values and attitudes so that they may take up other partially or totally new life styles, attitudes and values.
* The individuals have to abandon their former values and take up new ones in order to become part of the new social group.

De-socialization and re-socialization often take place in what is called **total institutions,** which are an all encompassing and often isolated from the community. They demand a thorough de-socialization of the new entrants before they assume full-fledged membership. Total institutions include: mental hospitals, prisons, religious denominations and some other political groups, and military units. In each case, persons joining the new setting have first to be de-socialized, before they are resocialized.

* Re-socialization may also mean *socializing individuals again* into their former values and norms, **after** they **rejoin** their former ways of life, spending a relatively longer period of time in total institutions. This is because they might have forgotten most of the basic values and skills of the former group or society.
* This kind of resocialization may also be regarded as reintegration, helping the ex-community members renew their memories of their former lifeways, skills, knowledge, etc.

1. **Anticipatory Socialization**

* Anticipatory socialization refers to the process of adjustment and adaptation in which individuals try to ***learn*** and ***internalize*** the roles, values, attitudes and skills of a social status or occupation for which they are *likely recruits in the future*.
* They do this in anticipating the actual forthcoming socialization. It involves a kind of ***rehearsal and preparations****in advance to have a feel of what the new role would look like.* However, anticipatory socialization may not be adequate when the nature and scope of life transition is complex. It may be difficult to fully anticipate what will happen.

1. **Reverse Socialization**

Reverse socialization refers to the process of socialization whereby the dominant socializing persons, such as parents, happen to be in need of being socialized themselves by those whom they socialize, such as children.

This idea seems to be associated with the fact that socialization is a two-way process. It involves the influences and pressures from the socializees that directly or indirectly induce change the attitudes and behaviors of the socializers themselves.

* In reverse socialization, children, for example, may happen to socialize their parents in some roles, skills, and attitudes which the latter lack.

**🟎 *Theories of Socialization***

**Three major** theories are advanced in socialization with their own focuses on the role of heredity, importance of early age and evaluation of human nature.

1. **Psychoanalytic Theory of Socialization**: Sigmund Freud.

* Give emphasis to early experience particularly toilet training and other treatments at early age.
* Human beings are usually moved by their biological desire for sex.
* How these sexual desires are resolved at early age (oral, anal, and phallic stages), in the years birth to six years is assumed to ***play a tremendous role in one’s socialization.***

1. **Cognitive Development Theory of Socialization**:

* Largely based on Jean Piaget’s cognitive development.
* It focuses on stages of mental development (sensori-motor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational) as the bases for learning social values, roles and norms.

1. **Social Learning Theory of Socialization**:

* More based on the works of Albert Bandura; it focuses on modelling, identification, imitation and role learning.
* It argues that throughout life socialization takes place and man is more characterized by being cooperative and helpful.

***Summary of the theories with their focus is presented in the following table***

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Theory** | **Importance of Heredity** | **Nature of Human Being** | **Early or later stage importance** |
| Psychoanalytic  *Sigmund Freud* | Very Important | Anti-social (negative) | Early stage considered more important |
| Cognitive Development  *Jean Piaget* | Important | Neutral  (Zero) | Throughout life, but early age is more important |
| Social Learning  *Albert Bandura* | Not important | Pro-social  (Positive) | Throughout life |

🟎**Core Values and Social Roles**

Values are social convictions in that a specific mode of conduct is preferred to an opposite or a different mode of conduct. Values might be terminal (goals, which a person would like to achieve during his/her life time) or instrumental (a means of achieving terminal goals).

Roles are sets of norms or rules that govern and define how a person in a given position or group must act. Roles clarify the responsibilities and obligations of a person belonging to a group.

These major core values and roles are acquired through socialization as a vital part of being introduced to the ways of societal life. Parents who have a determining influence up on the development of a child's moral values serve as models for a child's behaviour. Identification with parents is a central feature in this process. An affective tie with a model is an important mediator in learning moral values. Adoption of the moral values, attitudes and self-concepts of a model by a child are useful indicators of strong identification. Only through social relations and constant intimate interaction can the rich cultural legacy that sets humans apart from other animals be transmitted to new humans.

🟎**Personality Formation**

Personality refers to organized and relatively enduring characteristics unique to an individual as revealed by his/her interaction with his/her environment. It is a consistent behaviour that remains fairly stable in an individual. Much of this personality of individuals is developed through socialization. Some traits like: dependency, aggression, altruism, warmth, love, self-concept, discipline, achievement...etc are acquired through socialization.

The consistent pattern of thoughts, feelings and actions of individuals which we refer to personality are formed through socialization. Human beings rely on social experience to learn the intricacies of their culture in order to survive. Social experience is therefore the foundation of personality.

**Differential socialization and the Effects of Isolation**

🟎 **Differential socialization**

The question here is that are individuals socialized similarly. Margaret Mead was interested in this. She noticed that in no society were children brought up or raised in the same way. Instead children are sorted in a variety of ways and socialized in different directions because they are expected to lead different lives. In other words they are being groomed to fill quite different roles. Every society can be conceived of as a collection of related roles. Even simple societies have a number of different positions; son, daughter, warrior, hunter, cook, gardener, chief, priest, carpenter, farmer, and a number of other roles (Rodney Stark 1998). These diversification is even more pronounced in modern societies where there are several hundred occupations.

🟎**The Effects of Isolation**

When we say socialization has its own roles in making one a full human this would be better understood by looking into what would happen if one lacks human interaction. Here are few examples that show the deleterious effects of lack of socialization or human interaction.

***Example 1.****A boy in Seattle was left alone by his family from few months after birth to six years. Only food was inserted to him in a cage. After six years he was discovered by police. The child was so wild; he does not know how to eat, where to urinate or defecate, how to walk, how to dress, how to clean himself…etc. He was more nearer to animals than to human beings. Such children are called* ***feral*** *(untamed, undomesticated, uncultivated) children.*

***Example 2.*** *In 1938 Anna a girl of 13 in Pennsylvania was found enclosed in a second floor storage room. She was born from an abnormal lady who was living with her parents. The parents disappointed with their abnormal daughters giving birth to Anna, locked Anna in a second floor storage. When police discovered her Anna could not laugh, smile, speak and even show anger. She was unresponsive as if the world around her did not even exist. Not surprisingly, people initially thought she was deaf and blind. (Davis, 1940, taken from John J. Macionis 1993, Sociology).*

The case of the boy demonstrates an important principle i.e. our biological heritage alone cannot make us adequate human beings.

The second, example too, though deplorable it is really an instructive case of a human being deprived of virtually all social context. Although Anna was physically alive she has none of the capacities associated with full humanity. Her plight revealed that, without social experience, an individual develops little or no capacity for thought, emotion, and meaningful behaviour. In short, an individual who has no social interaction is likely to remain an object or wild animal rather than being a person.

**Agents of Socialization**

In our social interactions there are people with whom we interact most, and who are emotionally important to us, they are called significant others. In the process of socialization those who learn are the ***targets of socialization*** and the sources for learning are called ***agents of socialization***. The agents might be people, media and organizations as described below

***People Media Organization***

Mother and father TV School

Sister and brother Radio Church

Grand pa and ma Movies Scouts

Aunts and uncles Books Clubs

Friends/peers Paintings Sports team

Teachers Sculpture Charity organizations

Neighbours Dram/theatre Political organizations

….etc Arts…etc Community in general…etc

Each of these agents has tremendous impact on socializing us or in making us fully human. There is little or no hereditary difference between us and Anna and the boy in Seattle. So if there was no socialization we could have behaved like Anna or the boy in Seattle. An important issue worth noting about these agents is that, some agents (like the family, peers and the school) are more influential than others. Further the effects of the socializing agents is dependent upon how organized and systematized they are in effecting behaviour change.

**Chapter three: concepts of self**

Self-concept- it is a schema that includes all of the information and feelings relevant to our past, present and future selves. It is the set of beliefs we hold about who we are. Our self-concepts tend to change through time.

Self-esteem- it is evaluating oneself. This refers to self evaluation made by each individual. It is our own attitude toward ourselves along a positive or negative dimension. It refers to the general value that people place on themselves, on whether they are fundamentally good or bad people, talented or not, and so on. Similar to that of self-concept, our self esteem also tends to change from time to time.

Social identity- a person’s definition of who he/she is. It includes personal attributes along with membership in various groups which are aspects shared with others.

Egocentricity- a bias toward perceiving oneself as the central actor and causal agent in many events. This is related to focusing the self as the focus of knowledge and attribution. In knowledge for example we tend to recall information better if it is related to the self. The consequence is the tendency to exaggerate the importance of one’s role in shaping events. That is why we see a lot of problems in individuals in which they focus on themselves. In a research carried on communication researchers have found that 60% of the time people say I, me, mine and myself.

Self focusing- as a related concept to egocentricity self-focusing is the act of directing attention inward toward oneself as opposed to outward toward the environment. Self focusing increases between childhood and adolescence, and some adults consistently self-focus more than others. Situational influences have a great effect on self focusing. Self focusing is easily induced by simple instructions or by environmental cues such as the presence of a video camera or a mirror. To some extent, a brief period of self focusing improves self insight. When research participants were instructed to spend a few minutes thinking about themselves, they are more accurate in judging social feedback than other participants who are not asked to self focus.

Self Monitoring- It is guiding behaviour on the basis of internal versus external factors. It is regulation of one’s behaviour on the bases of the external situation and the reactions of others which is a high self monitoring tendency. On the other hand when we base on internal factors such as beliefs, attitudes, and values it shows low-self monitoring. Baron and Byrne (1997) have presented us the following examples. One person whom they (Baron and Byrne) know behaves in exactly the same friendly and jolly way in every setting-with his employees, with fellow professionals, with his wife, with close friends at a party, with strangers at a restaurant, and so on. At the opposite extreme there was a lady who acts in an authoritative way with employees, conducting herself as a serious and concerned colleague at work, exchanging teasing insults with her husband, being a bubbly flirt at parties, and remaining distant and silent with strangers. The first individual is solidly predictable, while the second could be described as a “social chameleon”. The first is low self monitoring reflecting only guided by his feelings, values and attitudes without observing the social condition. Whereas the lady was a high self monitoring one, she was acting in accordance with the social condition.

Totalitarian ego or self- this is biased organization of information about the self that functions to preserve a favourable self impression. Greenwald cited in Worchel (1991), noticed a similarity between the way the ego controls and biases information the way totalitarian governments control and bias information.

Self referenced effect- is the idea that people have more accurate recall of material that has been memorized with reference to the self. It refers to the greater efficacy of cognitive processing of information relevant to the self compared to processing of other types of information.

Ego involvement effect- refers to better retrieval of material associated with an ongoing task than with a completed task.

Self perception theory- theory that when cues about our internal states seem confused, we explain how we feel and think by observing our own behaviour. Sometimes we do not really know what our attitudes are and simply infer them from our own behaviour. For example from a basket of seven kinds of fruits you chose oranges and some body asks you how you feel about oranges. You do not have a clear answer; so think for a moment and say to yourself “I just chose oranges. Nobody has forced me. Therefore, I must really like oranges.” Accordingly you tell the person you really like oranges. But this is not a good measure for important aspects of the self, for example your buying of a postcard for your girl friend is not a good indicator for you that you love her, you know this very well before you buy her the postcard. .

Self Schema- this refers to the self as a memory structure composed of a collection of schemata. This definition requires defining the two terms schemata and memory structure. A schema is a cognitive structure that serves to organize experiences in a given domain. Memory structure on the other hand is a set of interconnected memories.

🟎 Boundaries of the self

It is true that there is some distinct boundary between us and the environment physically. This boundary is so loose in terms of social life. Some times people might be requested to conform much and this evades their privacy. This is termed as de-individuation. De-individuation refers to the loss of one’s sense of identity as an individual person, associated with lower self-awareness and decreased personal responsibilities in group settings. The boundary between the self and the social environment is so loose in some cultures and some how distinct in other cultures.

In conceptualizing the self there are two traditions.

A. The Independent Self:-A concept of the self that emphasizes separateness, internal characteristics and uniqueness of individuals. This kind of self is a western main stream orientation that evolves in cultures that emphasize personal freedom and individual mobility. In such cultures the major goal of socialization is to develop independent persons who can be self contained. If you ask people in the west to describe themselves they would focus on their occupations, hobbies, personal experiences, achievements and failures. This is typical to the independent self

B. The Interdependent Self:-is a concept of the self that emphasizes on dependence, on social relations, group characteristics and that has fuzzier boundaries. This self evolves in cultures in which the goal of socialization is to strength the ties between individuals and various groups, such as the family and the clan (Eastern and African Culture). If in Ethiopia you ask some one to describe himself he would probably say I am the son of Dejazmach some one, I came from Arsi, I am an orthodox, I speak Orommiffa and the like which emphasise on the social than the individual self.

But these two aspects of the self can and do coexist in the same individual. At the same time, it is some how difficult to put a clear boundary between the independent and the interdependent self. In most cultures both types exist but the degree differs. The extent to which each of them becomes prominent depends on culture, the independent aspect becoming more prominent in individualistic cultures and the interdependent aspect more prominent in collectivistic cultures.

🟎 Deception and Its Detection

In the process of impression formation and impression management sometimes there might be lying. For example some people may use lying as techniques in impression management. People try to hide their true feeling or communicate false feelings or information by controlled use of appropriate nonverbal cues. Such attempts at deception are not always successful since there is information leakage via non verbal channels. Freud eloquently remarked the following: “He that has eyes to see and ears to hear may convince himself that no mortal can keep a secret. If his lips are silent he chatters with his fingertips; betrayal oozes out of him at every pore.” Liars try to avoid saying things that might give them away, and so they tend to make fewer factual statements, are prone to making vague sweeping statements and leave gaps in their conversation. There is also a tendency for attempts at deception to be accompanied by a slightly raised vocal pitch. Facial expressions are not very leaky people tend to make a special and concerted effort to control facial cues to deception. However, with so much attention diverted to facial cues, other channels of non verbal communication are left unguarded. For example deceivers tend to touch their face more often, or fiddle with their hands, their glasses or other external objects. Despite all these clues people are generally poor at detecting deception. Even those whose jobs are, in essence, the detection of deception as customs, police, legal and intelligence professionals are often not much significantly better than the general population. Even people who do detect deception tend only to feel generally suspicious but are not sure of exactly what the false information is that is being communicated. Of course lying might be done altruistically or in a selfish manner.

* Liars sometimes succeed at other times they fail. There are some skilful liars. Detecting deceptions is a greater task. For one thing there are various types of deception and people don not show similar symptoms for all types of lying. E.g. hiding how you feel about another person is different from saying something that is contrary to what we really believe.

There are deception clues and leakages to identify lying. Police and psychoanalysis have their own techniques to identify lying but ordinary people also have techniques that are better than chance to detect deception. These include:

* 1. Micro expressions - brief and incomplete facial expression, that occurs on individuals’ faces very quickly after exposure to a specific stimulus and before active processes can be used to conceal them. These are quick flashes to deception and people use face work to conceal this.
  2. Inter channel discrepancies – these are inconsistencies between nonverbal cues from different basic channels. Such inconsistencies result from the fact that, as we noted earlier, persons who are lying find it difficult to control all these channels at once. For example a defendant who is lying on the witness stand may succeed in managing her facial expressions and in maintaining a high level of eye contact with the jury. At the same time, however, s/he may demonstrate postural shifts of body that reveal the level of emotional arousal she is experiencing.
  3. Paralanguage – When people lie, the pitch of their voices often rises, and they tend to speak more slowly with less fluency. In addition, they engage in more sentence repair-instances in which they start a sentence, interrupt it, and then start again. So if we observe these changes in another person’s voice, the person may be lying.
  4. Various aspects of eye contact- deception is frequently revealed by eye contact. Persons who are lying often blink more frequently and show pupils that are more dilated than persons who are telling the truth. They may also show an unusually low level of eye contact or-surprisingly-an unusually high one, as they attempt to feign honesty by looking others right in the eye.
  5. Exaggerated facial expression- finally persons who are lying sometimes show exaggerated facial expressions. For example, they may smile more, or may show greater sorrow or other emotion than is typical for them in this kind of situation. One might oath in the name of the Almighty, Saint Mary, Angels, and Saints all at once. This exaggerated oath makes us to doubt him/her.

Through careful attention to these nonverbal cues, we can often tell when others are lying-or merely trying to hide their own feelings from us. Our success in this respect is far from perfect. Skilful liars do often manage to deceive us. But their task will be made more difficult if you pay careful attention to the clues described above. Perfecting our skills in this respect requires considerable effort and practice.

🟎Impression Formation

We often engage in efforts to understand others and to gain insight into their intensions, traits and motives. We try to figure out what other persons are really like? Why they do the things they do. Based on this we determine the best way of interacting with them. The process through which we seek such information is known as social perception.

Such information is often provided by non-verbal cues like facial expressions, eye contact, body posture, and movements or verbal communications. In the process of impression formation first impressions are important. That is why people say that first impressions are last impressions. Early information tends to have a stronger impact than latter information for it gets the first attention of people. Most of us assume that the initial impressions we make on others will shape the course of our relations with them in crucial ways. Further it is assumed that such impressions may be quiet resistant to change once they are formed. It is for these reasons that most people prepare carefully for first dates, job interviews, and other situations in which they will meet others for the first time. We try to form a unified impression of others by combining diverse information about them like their appearance, their words, and their actions. Points to ponder in impression formation are

* The extensive and complexity of social perception reveals a paradox of social life. It is important for people to understand and make sense of their world- particularly the people in it.
* We all know in theory how best to understand anything, get as much information about it as possible and think about it carefully and logically. The paradox is that we cannot do it. We must decide and act, and we have to take the time and effort to do what we logically must do in order to understand our social environment.
* Our minds are active and our cognitive processes influence what information we notice or ignore, remember or forget, believe or disbelieve, weigh carefully or not at all. In short we construct our view of the world just as the world constructs our minds.
* We take "Cognitive Shortcuts" we quickly form an impression of some one and apply some quick "rules of thumb" to arrive at explanations for their actions, apply schemata to filter information and react. We are subject to an impressive array of basis: central trait, primacy and recency effects, the assumption of our "implicit personality theories", schemata and script, the illusion correlation, priming and availability, cognitive rigidity.....etc.
* The personal motives and emotional states of the perceiver affect his perceptions. When s/he is anxious or tense, s/he is likely to perceive some objects differently from occasions when he/she is happy and relaxed.

Much of this subjective experience is inevitably shaped by the social nature of the world and by the personality of the perceiver.

In our every day interaction with other person, we frequently assess their intentions and motives with respect to us. We determine whether or not a person likes us, and our judgment of his feelings guides our own reaction to him.

The perception process is so complex and the following three factors are central:

1. Stimulus information (like physical appearance, expressive and other motor behaviour and verbal behaviour of stimulus).

2. Perceiver variables (previous feelings and cognitions toward stimulus, reward cost of stimulus and the consequent action of a person, implicit personality theory and stereotypes, and self concept of perceiver).

3. Impression of stimulus person (attribution of personality traits and other cognitions, contemporary feelings toward him, and perceptions of causality intent and justifiability).

Some fundamental points in the diverse way of perceiving others include.

1. The level of complexity at which persons are perceived varies form one perceiver to the other

Some use superficial character and

Others use central traits

B. Each perceiver has certain central traits or characteristics that he/she emphasizes in describing others. E.g. intelligence, mood, security, honesty…etc

C. The centrality of certain traits in forming impressions of others is probably a function of the perceiver's own personality.

D. Some perceivers focus on "relational" terms, that is how others relate to the perceiver and to other persons. If one is more nearer to them they recall his/her positive qualities. Some people evaluate socially interactive people as better individuals in many other areas.

🟎 Modes of perceiving others

The different modes of perceiving others may be described in terms of dimensions varying from the simple to the complex. The modes of person perception include:

* A person is described simply in terms of outward appearance or superficial characteristics. E.g. his/her body build, facial and mannerisms.
* A person is described mainly in terms of a central trait and its immediate ramifications (With drawn- quiet, shy, retiring and ingratiating).
* A person is described in terms of a cluster of congruous traits. E.g Strong man- powerful, voice, aggressive, self confident and forceful.

A person is described in terms of a variety of traits, including some which are incongruous. A person may be described as kind, thoughtful, dishonest, and unsociable.

🟎 Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is the communication that does not involve the content of spoken language but relies instead on unspoken language of facial expressions, eye contact, and body language between individuals.

In the process of perception non verbal clues play a tremendous role.

Some non-verbal tools include:

* Facial expressions. More than two thousand years ago, the Roman orator Cicero stated that the face is the image of the soul. By this he meant that human feelings and emotions are often reflected in the face and can be read there in specific expressions. Facial expressions are some how universal. In many cultures when people are happy they smile and when they are in anger probably they will frown. Some social psychologists state that the face is the door to the soul indicating that the face provides much information about an individual.
* Eye language – a number of emotions as being interested in, hatred, love, and other emotions are expressed by our eyes. For example we gaze on others to communicate hatred and we stare on others which communicate our love or being interested about others. Ancient philosophers call the eye as a window through the soul. The Amharic saying “Neger Bayne Yegebal” which means we understand one better if we communicate by observing his/her eyes. Imagine you went to your advisors office to discuss with him on academic issues. Your professor was facing his back to you because he was finding a book in his shelf. Probably you may want to sit and wait until he turns his face to you but your professor said go on tell me what you want I am listening to you. What do you feel? I think dissatisfaction; because you think that you would communicate better with him if he was looking in to your eyes and you were looking to him, because in addition to your verbal explanation your professor could better understand your state of feeling through your eyes.
* Body language – body language refers to cues provided by the position, posture, and movement of body parts. It includes gesture, posture, and movements which also communicate the emotional status of an individual. If you observe your friend early in the morning going very slowly his head looking down words. What do you guess? Probably your friend is sick or sad. On the other hand if you saw him frowning; I think you expect he is in anger. In a certain café while studying about tips it was found that those waiters who squat down near customers when taking their initial orders receive tips more often and better amount of tips than when they remain standing in taking the order.
* Touching - the most intimate cue to good relations. People usually express their intimacy to others by touching shoulders and other parts of the body. If someone touched you at your shoulder during your conversation with him/her; what will be your reaction? What information would this convey to you? This depends on a number of factors as who does the touching (a friend, a stranger, one with same or different sex with you)? The nature of the physical contact (brief, prolonged, gentle, or rough)? What part of the body is touched? And the context in which it took place (business setting, doctor’s office, in a party)? Depending on such factors, touch can suggest affection, sexual interest, dominance, caring, or even aggression. In sum it is one means of nonverbal communication.

🟎 Face-to-Face Interaction

There are many ways of interacting with people

* + - * through letters (postal message)
      * telecom (including internet)
      * through delegates and
      * face to face interaction
        + Of all these means of interaction face to face interaction is considered to be the best one in terms of effective communication of meaning in many contexts.
        + The face communicates a lot because facial expressions convey our views of ourselves, our views of others and our views of the situation. Facial expressions give us clues to the emotions of people as discussed earlier.
        + Changes in our emotions don't only indicate our emotions but they also change our emotional experiences or mental feelings (e.g. is it feeling old and being old that makes our face old or is it looking old that makes us feel old?). This is related to the Facial Feedback Hypothesis this theory suggests that there is a close association between the facial expressions and mental feelings. Facial expressions yield information that feeds back in to our brain and influences our subjective experiences of emotion. In other words we do not only smile because we feel happy sometimes when we smile, we feel happier because we have smiled.

Many facial expressions are nearly universal. Due to this reasons people call the face the door for understanding human beings.

Some concepts related to the face

Face work refers to efforts either to prevent embarrassment or to correct it, and to restore face when some one has lost it.

Another related concept is face saving-this is a concern with appearances in conflict situations Face saving is a behaviour designed to maintain a positive public image.

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🟎 Biases in Forming Impressions

There are several biases that influence our formation of impressions about others.

1. Primacy and Recency: The order in which information about a person is presented can have profound effects on the subsequent impression we form about the person. A primacy is an effect of the order of presentation of information in which earlier presented ones have a disproportionate influence on our perception. Solomon Asch presented six traits of a hypothetical person to participants. For half of the participants the person was described as intelligent, industrious, impulsive, critical, stubborn, envious in that order (positive traits first followed by negative traits). For the other half of the participants the order of the presentation was reversed (envious, stubborn, critical, impulsive, industrious, intelligent). The person was evaluated more favourably by the first group and less favourably by the second group. Recency is an order of presentation effect in which latter presented information has more impact than earlier or middle information. Recency effect is justified by the effect of decay; early information decays and is more likely to be forgotten.
2. Positivity and Negativity: Research indicates that in the absence of information to the contrary, people tend to assume the best of others and form a positive impression. However, if there is negative information this tends to attract our attention and assume a disproportionate importance in the subsequent impression: we are biased towards negativity. Furthermore once formed a negative impression is much more difficult to change in the light of subsequent positive information, than is positive impression which is likely to change in the light of subsequent negative information. We may be sensitive to negative information for two reasons:
   1. The information is unusual and distinct or extreme which attracts attention
   2. The information indirectly signifies potential danger, and so its detection has survival value for the individual.
3. Personal constructs and implicit personality theories: even within shared cultures individuals tend to develop their own idiosyncratic ways of characterising people. For example one might consider humour as most important organizing principle for forming impressions of people, while another might consider intelligence as more important. So we have different personal construct systems and would be likely to form very different impressions of the same person. Personal constructs develop over time as adaptive forms of person perception and so are very resistant to change. We also tend to develop our own implicit theories or philosophies of human nature which are idiosyncratic and personal ways of characterizing other people and explaining their behaviour.
4. Stereotypes- Impressions of people are also strongly influenced by widely shared assumptions about the personalities, attitudes, and behaviours of people based on group membership, for example ethnicity, nationality, sex, race and class.
5. Cognitive algebra- impression formation involves the integration of sequential pieces of information about a person (i.e. Traits presented overtime) in to a complete image. Cognitive algebra refers to an approach to the study of impression formation which focuses on how we assign positive valence to attributes, and how we then combine these pluses and minuses in to a general evaluation. There are three principal models of cognitive algebra: summation, averaging and weighted averaging.

Summation: is a process where the overall impression is simply the cumulative sum of each pieces of information. If in a scale of -3 to +3 we gave a friend +2 for intelligence, +3 for sincerity and -1 for boring we have the sum of the constituents +4 as our general evaluation. If we learned he/she is generous +1 then our impression would grow to +5. Averaging: It refers to the process where the overall impression is the cumulative average of each pieces of information. For the above example we have the average as 5/4=1.25. Weighted averaging: here the valence of each piece of information is fixed before simply adding the values and finding the average. In the above example we may give 40% to intelligence 25% to sincerity, 10% to boring and 25% to generosity. The weighted average will be (2x40%) + (3x25%) + (-1x10%) + (1x25%)= 1.7.

Impression Management (The Art of Looking Good)

Self presentation is the act of expressing oneself and behaving in ways designed to create a favourable impression or an impression that corresponds to one’s ideals. Self serving bias, false modesty and similar actions reveal the depth of our concern for self image. Whether we wish to impress, to intimidate or to seem helpless we play various degrees of control of creating impressions on others.

* Impression Management or self presentation refers to efforts by individuals to produce favourable impression on others.
* The desire to make a favourable impression on others is a strong one, so most of us do our best to "look good". We engage in active efforts to regulate how we appear to others in order to appear in the best or most favourable light possible. This process in known is impression management.
* Evidence shows that persons who can perform this successfully gain important advantages in many social settings.

It is a plain truth that there are very few or no person who doesn’t care about what people think of him/her. We spend much money on clothes, cosmetics, car, and even for plastic surgery-all because we worry about what others think of us. To make a good impression is often to gain social and material rewards, to feel better about ourselves, and to become more secure in our social identities. For example no one wants to look foolishly inconsistent. To avoid seeming so, we express attitudes that match our actions. To appear consistent, we may pretend attitudes we don’t believe in. even if it means displaying a little insincerity or hypocrisy, it can pay to manage the impression one is making. For some people, making a good impression is a way of life. By continually monitoring their own behaviour and noting how others react, they adjust their social performance when it is not having the desired effect.

🟎 Impression Management Techniques

The most common motive in self presentation is to make a good impression. How do people accomplish this objective? Several tactics of successful impression management have been identified. One strategy is to conform to the norms of the social situation. Two additional useful strategies are self promotion and ingratiation. Self promotion refers to conveying positive information about the self, either through one’s actions or by saying positive things about the self. In contrast ingratiation or flattery refers to saying positive things about the listener. Social psychologists suggest that these two tactics reflect different goals. The self promoter wants to be seen as competent whereas the flatterer wants to be liked. In some situations as in interviews for a job, the person may want to accomplish both goals simultaneously coming across as both likeable and talented. Impression management techniques take many different forms. But most of the strategies employed seem to fall into two categories.

1. Self Enhancement: which include efforts to improve our own appearance. This can be done by

* Altering dressing (E.g. women with professional dressing or business suit are to be chosen for leadership position than culturally dressed ones). For job interviews we wear our best suits.
* Personal grooming (use of cosmetics, hairstyle, and perfume)
* Judicious use of nonverbal cues (laughing, smile)
* Some selected verbal use

B. Other enhancement: here we induce positive moods and reactions in others. These include

* Flattering
* Expressing agreement with their view
* Concern - showing a high degree of interest in them
* Doing small favours for them
* Asking for their advice and feedback
* Expressing liking verbally or nonverbally

**CHAPTER FOUR**

***Attribution Theory: Understanding the Why of Social Behaviour***

In our everyday experience we encounter a wide range of behaviours in other people. We encounter when one is grumpy, sour, unhappy, unfriendly, cheerier, friendly, helpful, rude, incompetent, funny, energetic, etc. We can’t keep count all the adjectives to describe human behaviour. When we see all these behaviours we can’t help to inquire why people behave in this or that way. Attribution is the inference about the cause of a person’s action. Attribution is the process of assigning causes to someone's behaviour. Those causes might be either characteristics of the person or characteristics of the situation. Attribution is the process through which we seek to identify the causes of others behaviour and so gain knowledge of their stable traits and dispositions. So when we see the term ***attribution*** what we should think is the term ***explanation*** as a synonym. So one of the most important inferences we make about other people is why they behave as they do. What causes one individual to be shy at a party and another to be outgoing? What prompts the romantic break-up of two people who seemed so close?

🟎***Why We Make Attributions***

It is one distinct quality of human beings to inquire reasons for social occurrences. We want explanations for social events. We can not help being naive psychologists in inquiring why for much of the social behaviour people manifest largely because curiosity is a normal human behaviour.

When we offer causal attributions, we offer either an ***external (situational) or internal (dispositional)*** explanations. An external attribution claims that some outside factors to the individual motivated the event. As we say "The devil made me do it so". In this case people attribute things to an outside event. Take the following examples: If in Awassa Textile Factory, the worker productivity declines; do we assume the workers are getting lazier? Or has there equipment become less efficient? Or does a young boy who hits his classmates have a hostile personality? Or is he responding to relentless teasing? When a salesperson in Merkato says, “That cloth really looks nice on you” Does this reflect genuine feeling? Or is it a sales ploy? If a student sleeps in your class; do you attribute this to his lack of sleep or to boredom? All these questions require keen observation of the behaviour before choosing a disposition or a situation to explain the behaviour. Here is an example of attribution on school achievement. Getting a mark of 65%-which you feel is low you might explain in a number of ways external to you like there was no reference books, I am not lucky, the teacher was not smart in his presentation, the exam was difficult and so forth. By contrast an internal attribution assigns causality to factors with in the person and the claim is that the person is responsible for the event. Taking the same example you may attribute internally and take responsibility as follows; I haven't studied well, I have missed many classes in the course, I haven't referred to books...etc.

Fritz Heider (1958) widely regarded as attribution theory’s originator, analysed the “commonsense psychology” by which people explain everyday events. Heider concluded that people tend to attribute someone’s behaviour or external causes. A teacher may wonder whether a child’s underachievement is due to lack of motivation and ability or to physical and social circumstances. This distinction between internal and external causes often blurs, because external situations produce internal changes. To say a school child “is fearful” may be a short semantic leap from saying ‘school frightens the child’. Moreover situations act up on dispositions. A bowling ball rolls down when you push it because it is round (dispositional) and because it is pushed (situtional).

***Our causal attribution or explanation will determine how we interact emotionally with others, how we respond to the person and perhaps how we evaluate that person. This is the very reason for studying attribution in social psychology.***

Internal attributions are more preferred to external attributions in most situations because they are helpful for inner control and external attributions lead to dependency behaviour that makes as to depend on external agents.

*Here is an example about children in teaching cleanliness to children. In one section the teacher enters to class and says how a clean class and clean children! It is very pleasant! attributing their cleanliness to internal factors. In the other class he enters and orders the children to clean their clothes and their class. After a month with this practice the teacher stopped going to these classes and the result showed that those who were made to attribute the cleanliness to their own behaviour continued to clean themselves as well as their room showing the lasting effect of internal attribution where as those ordered by the teacher quit to clean themselves as well as their room; after they knew there was no order which demonstrates dependency of the children’s behaviour on the teacher’s order.*

But here it is essential to consider that excessive internal attribution will also cultivate the feeling of guilt which might be devastating sometimes. So we need to attribute appropriately to both internal and external causes.

Steps in attribution: There are three steps in attribution

* + ***Perception of Action***: Before giving causal attributions the first step is looking what really the action is, what is its magnitude, where has it happened, by whom is it done; so that we have a complete figure about the event or action that happened
  + ***Judgement of Intention***: Then we need to go to the motive of the individual for doing that activity or action, his/her interest, and wishes have to be judged.
  + ***Attribution of Disposition***: Then we can predict future predispositions of the individual; we can see into the consistent trait of the individual that was a cause for his/her behaviour.

Here there are some factors that have to be considered in attributing causes to behaviours exhibited by others. These are:

1. The event itself
2. Expectations we have
3. Past behaviour of the individual
4. Feelings of the individual
5. World view about the particular behaviour manifested.

🟎***Theories in Attribution***

Attribution theory is a theory about how people explain things. Attribution theory is the area of social psychology concerned with when and how people ask why questions. Theorizing about causal attribution, i.e. how and why people infer what causes what began with Fritz Heider (1958). He argued that all human beings have two strong motives: the need to form a coherent understanding of the world and the need to control the environment. In order to achieve understanding and control, we need to be able to predict how people are going to behave. Otherwise, the world is random, surprising and incoherent. But to keep our world predictable and controllable, we do not always need to ask “why” questions all the time. Some behaviours are easily understandable.

However sometimes a particular person or a set of circumstances catches us up and makes us pay special attention to what is going on, in order to try to understand why events are unfolding as they are or why they occurred as they did. In particular, we are especially likely to make causal attributions when something unexpected or unpleasant happens, because unexpected or negative events create a need for greater predictability. Unexpected and negative events especially elicit a search for causal attributions, because by doing so we restore a sense of predictability and control over the environment.

Three major theories are prevalent in the social psychology literature for causal attribution. They are presented below.

***I. Kelley's Theory of Causal Attributions: the Co-variation Model***

The covariation model by Kelly is a theory of attribution in which people assign the causes of behaviour to the factor that covaries most closely with the behaviour. It refers to the fact that people try to see if a particular effect and a particular cause go together across different situations. In order something to be the cause of the behaviour it must be present when the behaviour occurs and absent when it does not. For Kelley in our attempts to answer the question ‘***Why’*** about the behaviour of others we focus on information relating to three major dimensions.

1. Consensus: this refers to the extent to which reactions by one person are also shown by others to similar behavioural occurrences. The higher the proportion of other people who react in the same way, the higher the consensus.
2. Consistency: this refers to the extent to which an individual responds to a given stimulus or situation in the same way at different occasions, that is across time. It is information about the extent to which a behaviour Y always co-occurs with a stimulus X.
3. Distinctiveness: this is a complete reversal of the consistency criteria in which we see the extent to which the individual responds differently to different stimulus in the same or different situations. Distinctiveness is the information about the extent to which a person’s reaction is distinctive to a stimulus X, or is a common reaction to many stimuli.

Thus the following three questions have to be asked in causal attribution:

*Is the behaviour distinctive?*

*Is there consensus?*

*Is the behaviour consistent?*

Example 1: Your friend Gemechu attended the film “SemayawiFeres” by SerawitFikre yesterday evening and he was too much surprised by the film and expressed this to you now and then. You question your friend’s behaviour and you will ask the following questions.

* 1. Gebeyehu and Martha also have attended the film but are they also much surprised (consensus)
  2. Does Gemechu appreciate other films also or some works by SerawitFikre, or was the appreciation typical to SemayawiFeres (consistency).
  3. Did Gemechu appreciate any film work or was the behaviour typical to this film? (Distinctiveness)

Example 2. Suppose your friend Atinkut comes out from the Sophomore English class in a gloomy frustrated mood. Would you make an internal attribution and infer that Atinkut’s blue mood is attributed to a depressive or gloomy personal disposition, or would you make an external attribution and decide that the sophomore class is a bad entity and is responsible for Atinkut’s bad humour. You might use the three dimensions consistency, consensus and distinctiveness as follows.

* + - If Atinkut’s mood is blue only in that day of the sophomore class, there is no consistency hence the individuals dispositions as well as the course are not responsible.
    - Regarding distinctiveness we question that Atinkut is generally depressed most of the time or he is depressed after the sophomore class. If his mood is distinctive in sophomore class from his mood in other courses we can attribute to the course, if it is low in distinctiveness in that he is usually depressed after any class then dispositional attribution will be preferred.
    - From a consensus point of view we question that are other students also depressed after the sophomore class so the course handling would be responsible, or is it only Atinkut who is depressed so that the attribution would be more of dispositional and even if situational it would remain to Atinkut.

***On top of these Kelley identified two major principles in causal attribution***

1. Discounting principle: this is a feeling of less confidence when we do have more than one plausible causal explanation. It also refers to the tendency to attach less importance to one potential cause of some behaviour when other potential causes are also present.
2. Co-variation principle: this refers to causal attribution where by we are influenced by the coexistence of two or more events. Then we tend to attribute one as a cause for the other.
3. **Correspondence Theory by Jones and Davis**

Jones and Davis’ focused on how our dispositions can be inferred from our actions.  
They question if one's act really reflects how he/she really feels. How that person is feeling, or what he/she intends. Therefore, can we see how an action corresponds to a disposition? This theory is concerned with how we can attribute behaviour to underlying disposition. People are concerned to make correspondent inferences because a dispositional cause is stable and it renders predictability to people’s behaviour and thus increase our own sense of control over our world. People engage in a variety of actions, but only some of those reveal their personal qualities. Here is an example; assume that your roommate Ojulu’s father came from Gambella. You and your friends smile and greet Ojulu’s father graciously. This behaviour is very unlikely to be very revealing about your disposition to Ojulu’s father, because most college students know that this is the courteous way to greet someone else’s parents. Your classmate who saw you two days ago would say “Tefah” which means ‘I haven’t seen you for long’. This is one common language for most college students in Ethiopia. But it usually don’t show disposition. If a salesperson speaks to us cheerfully-is this internal or is this because he/she likes us or is this because he is ordered to do so by his master? If a politician promises to do this or that during election campaigns-is this real dispositional that he/she is concerned to our welfare than to his power motive?

So we come to ask under what circumstances do we infer that another person’s actions reflect real dispositions, such as traits, attitudes, and other internal states, and when do we assume that others are simply responding to the external situation?

According to Hogg and Vaughan (1998) in order to make a correspondence inference we draw on five sources of information or cues.

* + 1. Freely chosen behaviour is more indicative of a disposition than behaviour which is clearly under the control of external threats, inducements or constraints.
    2. Behaviour which has effects that are relatively exclusive to that behaviour rather than to other behaviours (i.e. behaviour with non common effects) tells us more about disposition.
    3. Socially desirable behaviours tell us little about a person’s disposition, because it is considered to be controlled by social roles. However, socially undesirable behaviour is ‘out of role’ and is thus a better basis for making a correspondence inference.
    4. We make more confident correspondent inference about behaviour which has important consequences for ourselves, that is behaviour which has ***hedonic relevance***.
    5. We make more confident correspondent inference about behaviour which appears to be directly intended to benefit or harm us, that is, behaviour which is high in personalism.

# Heider's Naive Psychologist Theory

Heider proposes attribution as a fundamental element to our social relations. Heider drew the attention of social psychologists to the importance of studying people’s naïve, or common-sense, psychological theories. Naïve psychologist is a model of social cognition that characterises people as using rational, scientific-like, cause-effect analysis to understand their world. He believed that people are intuitive psychologists who construct causal theories of human behaviour, and that because such theories have the same form as systematic scientific social psychological theories; people are actually intuitive or naïve scientists.

According to Heider using few indirect causes we apply our own "naive psychology" to explain the behaviour of people. We may get few indicators to the causes of an individual's behaviour and we apply our attitudes, cognition, perception, feelings and other schema in our mentality to interpret and provide a causal explanation to an individual's behaviour.

*The way we attribute to an individual’s behaviour will affect the way we interact with him/her. We want to understand and predict people and causal attribution is instrumental here which in turn affects our relation with others. Knowing the real dispositions of a person would be crucial to have effective communication. It is for this very reason that we engage in studying attribution, its theories, and other aspects of it.*

🟎***Levels of Attribution***

According to Heider and Weiner five levels of attribution are identified. These are association, causality, foreseability, intentionality and justifiability.

***Association*** is the situation people are held responsible for anything associated, connected or related with them.

***Causality*** is the situation where people are held responsible for any thing they caused even if it is accidental.

***Foreseebility*** is the situation in which people are held responsible for any thing they could have predicted or forecasted.

***Intentionality*** is the situation in which people are held responsible for any thing that is intended or planned to happen.

***Justifiability*** is the situation in which people are held responsible for any thing that is planned, and they have free choice.

🟎***Attribution Biases***

This refers to falling short in rationality while providing causal explanation. Sometimes our causal attributions might be weak and insufficient. The attribution process is subject to bias; it can be biased by personality, by interpersonal dynamics, or biased in order to meet communication needs. We don’t approach the task of attributing causes for behaviour in an entirely objective manner. The cognitive mechanisms that are responsible for attribution may themselves be subject to imperfections that render them to be suboptimal. There are four major types of attribution biases

* ***Fundamental Attribution Error (FAE)*** this relates to overemphasising individual dispositions in explaining the behaviour of others by minimising or underestimating the role of the situation. This is a bias in attributing another’s behaviour more to internal than to situational causes. Even when there are clear external or environmental causes, we tend to attribute to dispositional factors. Some general explanatory tendencies as attributing to the driver alone in accidents ignoring the road condition and the car’s mechanical condition, and the tendency among some people to attribute poverty and unemployment to the person rather than social conditions are few examples. Some explanations to the fundamental attribution include:
  + Focus of attention: the actors behaviour attracts relatively more attention than the background. It is disproportionately salient in cognition, in effect, the figure against the situational background and thus is over-represented causally.
  + Differential forgetting: attribution requires the representation of causal information in memory. There is some evidence that people tend to forget situational causes more readily than dispositional causes, thus producing a dispositional shift over time.
* ***Actor versus observer bias-*** attributing the behaviour of others to behaviour of the person and our own behaviour to be strongly influenced by situational factors. Research has indicated that not only we tend to attribute others behaviour more dispositionally than our own, but we also tend to consider their behaviour to be more stable and predictable than our own. The actor-observer effect can be abolished or reversed if the actor is encouraged to take the role of the observer regarding the behaviour to be attributed.
* ***Self serving bias-*** this relates to protecting ones own ego and self esteem by attributing our success to internal factors or our personal dispositions and our failure to external factors or situational influences. Such bias is meant to protect or enhance self-esteem or self-image. People tend to attribute internally and take credit for their successes, and attribute externally and deny responsibility for their failures. Self serving biases are clearly ego serving. There is also a cognitive component particularly for self enhancing. People generally expect to succeed, and therefore accept responsibility for success; they try hard to succeed and thus correlate success with own effort, and they generally exaggerate the amount of control they have over successful performances.

There is also evidence for an anticipatory self-serving bias in which people who anticipate failure, intentionally and publicly make external attributions before the event, this is called self handicapping. Self handicapping is publicly making advance external attributions for one’s anticipated failure or poor performance in a forthcoming event. It is generally the tendency to take credit for success and deny responsibility for failure.

***Defensive Attribution-*** this relates to protecting our security particularly in relation to the degree of responsibility one is facing. When the responsibility is minor that has little or no effect on our security or life we assume internal attribution, and when the responsibility is sever we attribute to external factors or to situational explanations.

**UNIT 5**

**Attitude, Attitude Changes and Persuasion,**

5.1. ***Meaning of Attitude and Related Terms***

What is an attitude? People have attitudes toward a wide variety of things: AIDS victims, condom use, safe sex, friends, parents, teachers, education, art, politics, voting and election, religion, marriage, race, abortion, capital punishment, welfare, affirmative action, and so forth. But a precise definition of attitude has remained elusive. So many definitions are forwarded by social psychologists. Despite the plethora of definitions, most research has considered sentiment, or affect to be the most important dimension of attitude. In a broader sense the term attitude refers to an evaluation of our social world. Having this base sociologists and social psychologists have defined it in the following ways

* **Petty and Caccioppo (1981)** as cited in Worchel (1991) defined attitude as a general and enduring positive or negative feelings about some person, object or issue.
* **Stephen Robins (1993)** defined attitude as evaluative statements or judgments concerning objects, events or people.
* **Allport (1935)** defined attitudes as a mental and neural state of readiness organized through experience exerting a directive or dynamic influence up on the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related.
* **David G. Myers** (1999) defined attitude as a favourable or unfavourable evaluative reaction toward something or someone, exhibited in one’s beliefs, feelings, or behaviour.
* **Baron and Byrne (1995)** defined attitude as lasting evaluations of various aspects of the social world.
* **Hogg and Vaughan** (1998) defined attitude as a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings, and behavioural tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols.

In most texts the term attitude usually connotes certain regularities on the part of individual’s in feelings, thoughts, and predispositions toward some aspects of his/her environment.

In general attitudes are mental representations and evaluations of features of our social or physical world.

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, and cognitions around an object, people, or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner.

Some predispositions are momentary ones, in which case they are not called attitude. The concept of attitude is typically reserved for more enduring, persistent organization of predispositions.

By its nature the attitude one has might be positive or negative or neutral. Attitude is usually defined as a tendency to respond positively (favourably) or negatively (unfavourably) to certain objects, persons, or situations. It is a tendency to respond and this response is discriminated towards certain stimuli and not to others

5.1.1. ***Some Importance’s of Attitude***

At this juncture it is essential to question why do we need to study attitudes? Few of the reasons are:

1. They strongly influence our social thought- the way in which we think about and process social information, how we store, and use social information is affected by our attitude.

2. They often function as schemas-cognitive frameworks that hold and organize information about specific concepts, situations, or events. These mental scaffolding strongly influence what we notice, enter into memory, and later remember.

3. They influence behaviour: this is the third and main reason that social psychologists have been interested in attitudes for several decades and hence they use to predict how people behave in various social contexts. If attitudes influence behaviour, then knowing something about them can help us to predict people’s behaviour in a wide range of contexts. For example, if you have positive attitude towards capital punishment, then you would vote for the party that states capital punishment in its law than the one that avoids capital punishment in its law.

Attitudes also serve the following functions

* **Knowledge function** of attitudes is used to organize and interpret diverse sets of information.
* **Self identity function** of attitudes is used to express ones central values and beliefs. From the attitude one has we can understand who he/she is. One’s attitudes some how show one’s religion, political affiliation, and even ethnicity.
* **Self esteemfunction of attitude** are used to enhance self esteem or image in the eye of others. The respect and evaluation that we have about others is largely based on their attitudes and behaviours.

**5.2. *Attitude and Behaviour***

Attitude is assumed to be the key factor in predicting behaviour since behaviour could be a reflection of attitudes. But research also proved that there is a very inconsistent pattern between the attitudes people have and the behaviours they exhibit. Rather than general attitudes, however, our attitude towards specific objects or situations is proved to have relationships with our behaviour. This is mainly because the specific attitudinal focus on something is influenced by evaluation of the likely consequences of the behaviour (if it results in rejection, for example, we don’t do it again). Therefore Ajzen&Fishbein (1973) concluded that if we want to predict specific behaviours we exhibit and its correlation with our attitude towards that specific object, we find attitude to be a good measure of behaviour (but not to general and overall behaviour).

For example people who have a strong negative attitude toward abortion may go to clinics that assist abortion and may assault doctors there.

The effect of attitude on behaviour is influenced by aspects of the situation, strength of the attitude, and aspects of the individual.

5.2.1***Components of Attitude: Three major components of attitude***

Attitudes involve the categorization of a stimulus along an evaluative dimension, based on affective, behavioural, and cognitive information (the “ABC’s” of attitude).

* 1. ***Cognitive component*** –this represents a person’s knowledge, held with varying degree of certitude, about what is true or false, good or bad, desirable or undesirable. This is the thought, information, and understanding component of attitude
  2. ***Affective component*** -it includes the emotion, feeling and sentiment component of attitude. An attitude here is capable of arousing affect of varying intensity centring around the object of the belief, other objects or individuals and groups taking negative or positive position with respect to the object of belief or on the belief itself.
  3. ***Behavioural component*** – this is the action component of attitude because the belief is accompanied by a response with varying threshold of predisposition that lead to action when it is activated. The kind of action taken is dictated by the content of the belief. Thus this component refers to the response through action, and activity which is an expression of the cognitive and affective components

***Example:*** *We might analyse the attitude of rural people about the use of contraceptives somewhere in Dodolla (a woreda in Bale, Oromia). The peoples knowledge about the various types of contraceptives, the uses of the contraceptives and where to acquire them is related to the cognitive component. The feeling of comfort in buying and using contraceptives are more related to the affective component. Finally the tendency to use these contraceptives for the intended purposes is related to the behavioural component.*

5.2.***Measurement of Attitude***

Since attitude is more abstract which we can not usually touch, see or directly observe it; its measurement is so difficult. The most common way of measuring attitude is by asking people about their opinion, feeling, and emotions. These are self report methods. We usually use questionnaires which might be open ended or close ended to get a self report from people. The following example clearly demonstrates how difficult it is to measure attitude.

Assume you wanted to measure the attitude of college students’ towards people living with AIDS. You may ask such questions as do you like or dislike people living with AIDS? How much do you like or dislike them? Such questions are really very difficult loaded with social desirability. People may not be genuine to these self report questions. Attitudes are feelings that change and are abstract so their measurement is really difficult. It is difficult for subjects in an experiment to express negative attitudes toward a colleague, it is difficult for subjects to express unpopular political opinions, and it is difficult for subjects to admit bigoted or other socially unacceptable attitudes. Despite all these difficulties we cannot stop to measure it.

Two ways of attitude measurement procedures are used as indicated below.

***A). Direct measures which include***

* Likert Summated Ratings: it is a device or technique for measuring or assessing the degree of strength of attitudes. Here attitude statements like: premarital sex is immoral, I like hard working persons, all Jewish are aggressive people are presented and the participants will indicate their attitudes by stating strong approval, approval, undecided, disapproval, or strong disapproval.
* Thurstone equal appearing intervals with usually nine scales which indicates one’s level of liking or favouring an expressed attitude object or issue is also used

***B). Indirect Measures of Attitude***

* Inferring attitude from people's performance on an objective test. For example a low performance in Maths or Physics or English may somehow show the individuals low attitude towards these subjects.
* Inferring from peoples psychological reactions to tests or an attitude object or person. For example people exhibit maximum test anxiety for a test in a subject they do not like. They may shiver or sweet when the exam approaches.
* Using bogus pipeline: it is a technique by which subjects are induced to state their attitudes honestly in the belief that a machine has already registered their true attitudes. The essential feature of the technique is to convince participants that the investigators already know their true attitudes. Participants are made to pass through a machine in which they are told that the machinery is capable of measuring their attitudes toward an object. In this way subjects tend to disclose their true attitudes, for they believe that those attitudes have already been recorded by the machine.

Despite all these the validity and reliability of attitude scales is usually less due to the subjective nature of attitude itself.

5.3. ***Attitude Formation (Development)***

Attitudes are learned rather than innate. The learning of attitude is an integral part of the socialization process and may occur through direct experiences, or vicariously through interactions with others, or it can be a product of cognitive processes. Attitudes can be formed through various ways:

Some of these are

* Effects of direct experience: many of the attitudes people hold are the products of direct experience with the attitude object. Touching, tasting, talking, seeing the attitude object, person or issue.
* Classical conditioning: one way by which we learn attitudes is through association of various social happenings.

*For example most people in Ethiopia have fear of snake. The fear of snake as an attitude is not largely a result of the direct experience of the danger of snakes. Rather the fear is a result of association. We heard about snake in many parts of the bible. Snake is associated with evil in most cases and hence we fear it.*

* Instrumental conditioning: One most important way of developing or forming attitudes is learning from consequences. A child may help his parents and the response may be very good like: thank you, this is a nice behaviour. This would increase the likelihood of the behaviour. There are many do’s and don’ts from the society that shape our attitudes. In instrumental learning attitudes that have positive consequences or that remove negative consequences will be strengthened and those attitudes that are followed by a punishment or negative effect will be weakened.
* Social learning or observation learning: one learn many attitudes by modelling, imitating, and identifying oneself with parents, peers, teachers, neighbours, and other people which one usually consider them as models.
* Genetic endowment (some researches indicate that identical twins breed in different places were found to have similar attitude than fraternal twins, siblings, and others). But the effect of heredity is limited with regard to attitude.

Attitude formation is largely a result of the socialization process as indicated in the previous chapter. The cognitive components of attitudes are assumed to be learned in the same way as are any facts, knowledge or beliefs. The basic processes of association, reinforcement, and imitation determine this acquisition.

**5.4. *Influential factors to the development of attitudes***

***1. Family Influence*** - the influence of parents is very important in forming one’s attitudes. This is because parents mediate between the individual child and the culture. The culture in turn continually influences the parent’s attitudes. Parents spend a good many hours of the day in contact with the child. During this time, they ‘control’ the behaviour of the child and also they try to instil, in the child, the particular beliefs and attitudes prevalent in any one culture. Attitude towards religion and politics do have high correlation between parents and children. In one cross cultural study, for example, 1992 high school seniors and their parents were taken. The result was found to be like 74% of the subjects did have similar attitude as their parents towards religion and 60% towards politics. With regard to the tremendous role of parents in shaping one’s attitude in our culture we say “AsadagiYebedelew”. For many strong or ill attitudes one has we usually appreciate or blame the family because we feel that most attitudes are built in the family.

***2. Culture-*** it consists of the customs, values, attitudes and traditions of people. These cultural values influence each individual in diverse ways; through one’s social class, social groups, schools, family, etc. One is a product of his/her culture. Our attitudes are reflections of our cultures.

***Exampl****e: Assume that you are presented with dog’s meat, donkey’s meat or horse meat. In the Ethiopian culture this is really abominable, disgusting, and you may even vomit by only thinking it. But these foods are few of the most delicious foods in Korea. This is a product of culture.*

Attitude development starts to take its final form in the beginning of adolescence (12) and it goes through the years one reaches 30. Since attitude becomes fairly stable after 30, the period that ranges from 12-30 is called the critical period where attitude crystallizes.

***3. Peer influence*** - when the child gets older (puberty and adolescence) and spends less time with parents (meeting other people outside), his/her outlooks would be influenced by friends, to a larger extent. One relies on such external acquaintances for the satisfaction of desires, for companionship and entertainment. Wanting emotional and social support, consolation with plans (especially when one goes wrong), reassurance that his/her behaviour is proper (for the group norm), agreement that his/her opinions are correct, etc., one would depend on peer groups. Therefore, peer influences, acquaintances and friendships are very important in forming one’s attitudes. It is by recognizing this that various peer related approaches are developed in various areas of attitude change. Phrases like peer education, peer evaluation, peer tutoring, peer counselling, and so forth are commonly used for example in HIV/AIDS behaviour change communications. Similarity influence is at the centre of peer influence. The Amharic proverb “GuadegnahenNegeregnenaManenetkenLingereh” which means tell me your friend/s/ and I will tell you who you are; is an indicator that a friends attitude would significantly influence one’s behaviour.

***4. Information***- modern life is so intertwined with a lot of challenges and that information is the most important backbone. That is why communication systems are given due emphasis. Of other communication systems, adolescents are highly attracted and influenced by the audiovisual media (the TV and the computer) to get information (which is said to distract the relationship between adolescents and their parents). This means that whatever the parents tell out is not given due attention and importance. These audiovisual media are the most appealing to adolescents and so mould their attitude. This is a world of information. These days thanks to the technological advance people get much information from internet and various media that have a pronounced effect on their attitude.

***5. Education*** - is the most important attitude formation factor. Liberalism (to be liberal) highly depends on how educationally qualified one is. In most cases, it is found that College (University) graduates tend to be more liberal than less educated ones. People, even with high socioeconomic status, but with low educational level, tend to be conservative. Schools are there to shape the attitude of people. Above any thing else education plays a tremendous role in transforming people by developing, shaping and changing their attitudes. It is for this very reason a huge proportion of the national budget for many countries is apportioned to the education sector.

**5.5. *Attitude Change***

An attitude change is any significant modification of an individual’s attitude. Formation and change of attitude are not two separate things, they are interwoven. People are always adopting, modifying, and relinquishing attitudes to fit their ever changing needs and interests. *Acceptance of new attitudes depends on who is presenting the knowledge, how it is presented, how the person is perceived, the credibility of the communicator and the conditions under which the knowledge is received*. To sum up, it is very difficult to put a clear distinction between attitude change and formation of attitude. This is largely because when we are changing one form of attitude we are forming a different forms of attitude. Thus these two are inseparable.

There are everyday attempts to change the attitude of people. Advertisers, politicians, and other propagandists know that producing mass changes in attitudes is difficult. But there are still so many attempts as:

* Membership to parties
* Voting for a candidate
* Smoking a given kind of cigarette
* Drinking a given brand of alcohol or beverage
* Following a certain type of religion

What is important to note here is that deeply held attitudes that generally are built up over years are related to a great many other attitudes and beliefs and are supported by strong emotional feelings and thus they are highly resistant to change, even though they can sometimes be influenced by long-term powerful persuasion. In contrast, some attitudes are quiet susceptible to influence. People change their attitudes toward politicians, products, ideas, and behaviours all the time. Therefore attitude change is an important phenomenon in many social situations.

***Attitudes Change When:***

* When one receives new information which is largely a cognitive change
* When one has direct experience with the attitude object which brings in touch with the attitude target that develops the affective change
* When forcing a person to act this or that way which is a behavioural change

To change our attitudes; there are certain sources which include family, media, church, neighbours, and others which we look them as agents of socialization.

***In the attitude change process there are four sequential steps***

* **Attention-**refers to giving focus to the attitude object. It is when we give attention that we can precede to the next step.
* **Comprehension-**this refers to understanding the issue.
* **Retention-**this refers to maintenance and elaboration of the attended information
* **Action-**relates to taking action based on our understanding and retention

***Factors that Increase or Decrease Attitude Change***

In attitude change who said what to whom under what condition with what media and with what effect are essential. Four broader factors with specific details are included in most literatures.

1. **Factors involving the source of communication (communicator)**
   * Prestige of the communicator
   * Intentions of the communicator
   * Likeability of the communicator
   * Similarity of communicator to audience
   * Reference group: belonging to the group one belongs to

In bringing about attitude change who the communicator is plays a crucial role. The more prestigious, likeable and similar one is to the audience the more able he/she would be to influence us or change our attitude. Intention of the communicator and his/her belongingness to the audiences group affects our change of attitudes. On top of this credibility, trustworthiness and expertise of the communicator is essential in attitude change.

1. **Factors concerning the communication (message) itself**

* Discrepancy in current and new message
* Nature of organization of the message
* One sided versus two sided message
* Stating a conclusion for the communication
* Order of presentation: primacy and recency effects
* Novelty of information
* Semantics or language use

All messages are not equally effective, those messages which add something new to the former information we had are more attended to and more influential. On top of that those messages which are well organized are more effective and that is why rhetoric skill and writing skills are given as courses in colleges and universities. For tough audiences presenting two sided messages are more important than one sided message. With regard to the order of presentation messages at the beginning and at the end are usually more effective in influencing one; this is because the first information is attended with better attention than middle information. Owing to this communicators use anecdotes and attractive introduction with a comprehensive conclusion at the end.

1. **Factors in the surrounding environment (situational factors)**

* The effect of reinforcement or reward
* Fear arousal messages are more effective
* Distraction
* Use of various channels

Requests for attitude change which are accompanied by rewards will be more possible than those without reward. This is related to the operant conditioning theory about the formation of attitude. In attitude change fear arousal messages are considered to be more effective. That is why religious leaders tell us about hell if we don’t abide by the laws of God or Allah; medical practitioners show us the likelihood of death by showing a cancer affected lung to make us stop drinking alcohol or smoking cigarettes.

*For example in the May 15, 2005 national election in Ethiopia the two major political parties CUD and EPRDF were threatening us by telling us fear arousal messages when they say the following. CUD says “It would create the rose and orange revolution like Georgia and Ukraine if there is election fraud” and EPRDF says “If we choose the opposition they will lead us to racial conflict like the Interhammoe (a group that lead the massacre of nearly a million Tutsi’s in Rwanda)”.*

Distraction is also one reason for attitude change. When one is distracted he/she would be easily persuaded when he/she pays attention to the communicator’s message.

1. **Factors involving the characteristics of the target audience**

* Personality factors
  + Self esteem
  + Intelligence
  + Sex differences
  + Defensive styles
* Commitment of the audience to the attitude
* Inoculation and support
* Forewarning

Finally who the audience is, remains pivotal in changing his or her attitude. Research has documented that individual’s with high self-esteem, and intelligence are very difficult to change their attitudes than those with low self-esteem and intelligence. In terms of sex females tend to be easier to change their attitudes than males. On top of these in terms of personality some individuals are so defensive and others are submissive; so defensive personalities are difficult to persuade. Defence mechanisms here refer to protection of the self or the ego from shame, inferiority, and anxiety.

To change attitudes the following points are essential as suggestions for change

* A suggestion for change must be critically reviewed
* A suggestion should meet existing personality needs or desires
* A suggestion for change should be in harmony with valued group norms and loyalties
* The sources of the message should be perceived as trustworthy and expert
* Good rhetoric regarding order, presentation, organization and content is needed including the nature of appeal to be made

**5.6. Persuasion, Propaganda and Brainwashing in Attitude Change**

***5.6.1 Persuasion***

Persuasion refers to efforts to change others' attitudes. Persuasion occurs when a source deliberately uses communication to change a receiver's attitude. Persuasion is ubiquitous in many societies. A persuasive communication is a message intended to change an attitude and related behaviours of an audience; like commercial advertising, public relations, and political and government efforts to persuade.

*For example advertisers try to convince us that their product is better than others; politicians try to convince us they deserve our vote for they are better than this or that party in various ways; some government and non-government organizations attempt to influence our attitudes toward environmental protection, abortion, civil rights and other heated topics.*

If we think for a moment we see that each day we are bombarded with many efforts of persuasion by many individuals, organizations, newspapers, magazines, advertisements, radio and TV commercials, political speeches, appeals from charities, religious preaching's ...etc. To what extent are such attempts of persuasion successful is a big question to ask.

On top of the above factors attitude functions, reciprocity, and message framing also affect our efforts of persuasion. Despite all these techniques for persuasion attitude change may fail. There is resistance to persuasion.

***5.6.2.Propaganda***

No discussion of persuasion would be complete without mentioning propaganda and the techniques associated with it. The Webster’s New World Dictionary defines propaganda; as “The systematic widespread promotion of a certain set of ideas, doctrines, etc. to further one’s own cause.” In World Wars I and II, propaganda was associated with the information activists of the enemy. Today propaganda mostly connotes falsehood, lies, deceit, disinformation, and publicity-practices that opposing groups and governments accuse each other of employing. Some argue that it should be seen in a broadest sense to include advertising, and other public relation activities. Social scientists, however say that the word propaganda should be used only to denote activities that sell belief systems or constitutes political or ideological dogma. In this text propaganda is used to mean organized persuasion. Propaganda is a deliberate attempt on the part of an individual or group to influence the attitudes, values, beliefs, opinions or actions of a large number of people. Propaganda also refers to the spreading of ideas, information, rumours, for the purpose of helping or injuring an institution, a cause or a person. Compared to persuasion; propaganda seeks some kind of response from the people who are the target audience. Propaganda might be of two types:

* ***Command Propaganda*** which seeks a specific immediate response as buy this, sell this, vote for this, fight for this and others that require you to do it here and now.
* ***Conditioning propaganda*** which aims to mould public opinions, assumptions, and attitudes on a long term wide spread bases.

Propagandists use several techniques commonly associated with propaganda. The most common are the following:

1. ***Plain folks***: an approach often used by individuals to show humble beginnings and empathy with the average citizen. The Ethiopian prime-minister of Ethiopia may go to one of the universities in the country and tell students that he too was a university student and that he share’s the problem they are facing now he is using the plain folk technique.
2. ***Testimonial***: is a frequently used device to achieve credibility. A well-known expert, popular celebrity, or average citizen gives testimony about the value of a product or the wisdom of a decision.
3. ***Bandwagon***: the implication or the statement that everyone wants the product or that the idea has overwhelming support. When the Pepsi Company advertises “Pepsi the choice of the new generation” it is pressing people as a member of the new generation to have Pepsi cola.
4. ***Card-staking***: the selection of facts and data to build an overwhelming case on one side of the issue, while concealing the other side. The advertising industry, for example, says a ban on beer advertising would lead to enormous reductions in network, sports programming, and a ban on cigarette advertising would kill several hundred magazines.
5. ***Transfer***: the technique of associating the person, product, or organization with something that has high or low credibility, depending on the intention of the message. Opponents of a politician may associate him/her with individuals who are corrupt, or drug abusers. Various political groups in Ethiopia they were preaching as follows. EPRDF is peace; EPRDF is development so on and so forth. CUD is love; CUD is unity, so on and so forth. They were associating themselves to something good.
6. ***Glittering generalities***: the technique of associating a cause, product, or idea with favourable abstraction such as freedom, justice, democracy, Ethiopian value, standard…etc. For example Anbassa shoe factory may advertise itself by saying the only inland and quality product.
7. ***Name calling and use of loaded words:*** the propagandist will use emotionally toned words, and rich vocabulary and easily attract the audience’s attitude.
8. ***Appeal to prejudice and needs***: the propagandist using initiative issues (try to address powerful issue) to persuade the audience through making the audience interested in, like or dislike the issue.

***5.6.3.Brainwashing***:

Brainwashing is a conversion of an individual from an established orientation to another orientation. It is an intensive form of propaganda often used in prisons. According to Hogg and Vaughan (1998) brainwashing is the experience of extensive social isolation, broken sleep and intensive interrogation in which the outcome is said to be a high level of susceptibility to political propaganda. For example, to bring individuals from communist to capitalist, brain washing is useful to persuade.

🟎***Techniques of Brainwashing***

1. ***Debility***: this is placing people in a physically weakened state or harsh physical condition like placing them in concentration camps, or isolated from access to social interaction, giving very little food and water so that s/he would change his/her attitude in fear.
2. ***Dependency***: this is subjecting people under complete dependency on the good will of the captures (prisons). E.g. Ignoring psychological necessities of captives.
3. ***Dread:*** constantly frightening in physical punishment. For example telling prisoners that they will be killed. In such circumstances the person gets disoriented and his self-confidence and equilibrium gets disturbed thus captors will lead them in to the direction they want.

***Resistance to attitude Change***

People maintain or preserve their attitudes and resist changing once they have been well formed. Some principal causes or mechanisms for self preservation of attitudes are:

* Selective interpretation
* Avoidance of information
* Social pressures and
* Inoculation: is a way of making people resistant to persuasion by providing them with a diluted counter argument, they can build up effective refutations to a later stronger argument.
* Forewarning: is providing advance knowledge that one is to be the target of the persuasion attempt

Some additional resisting techniques to attempts of attitude change are

* + Refuting the arguments
  + Rejecting the arguments
  + Derogating the sources
  + Rationalization and other defence mechanisms
  + Avoiding the exposure for example missing the conference
  + Assimilation and contrast

5.7. ***Cognitive Dissonance***

Two cognitions are said to be dissonant if one cognition follows from the opposite of the other. Consider the following examples:

* + 1. A person who is apathetic toward labour unions devoted his/her life to the union
    2. A man who believes in a woman’s right to terminate her pregnancy makes an anti-abortion speech
    3. A child who dislikes chocolate ice cream buys a chocolate ice cream cone.

Cognitive dissonance is an unpleasant state that occurs when individuals discover inconsistencies between two of their attitudes or between their attitudes and their behaviour. Baron and Byrne (1997) has also defined cognitive dissonance as an internal state that results when we notice inconsistency between two or more of our attitudes or inconsistency between our attitudes and our behaviour. This creates a feeling of dissatisfaction. In this case we will be forced to change our own attitudes in ourselves.

Dissonance theory begins with a very reasonable idea: people don’t like inconsistencies and are uncomfortable when it occurs. Cognitive dissonance is a tension that arises when one is simultaneously aware of two inconsistent cognitions. For example dissonance may occur when we realize that we have with little justification acted contrary to our attitudes or made a decision favouring one alternative despite reasons favouring another.

*Eg.1. An individual may say I am against prejudice, but he may say I don’t want minority people living in my neighbourhood. In Ethiopia one may say I like ethnic minorities, but if s/he is requested to go to Gambella or Somalia Regional State to work there his/her answer could be a strong no.*

*Eg.2. One might express the deleterious consequences of unsafe sex but he/she might practice unsafe sex.*

The magnitude of the dissonance depends on the degree of the discrepancy, the number of discrepant cognitions and the importance of the various cognitions

🟎 ***Reducing Cognitive Dissonance***

Three ways are identified by Baron and Byrne (1997) that are assumed to be helpful in reducing cognitive dissonance. These are:

* Attitude or behaviour change: changing the inconsistent attitude or behaviour can be one way out of cognitive dissonance.
* Adding new information: this is finding new information that would help in crystallizing the attitudes and behaviours that we have.
* Trivialization: downplaying the importance of the inconsistent attitudes or behaviours. Trivialization is a technique of reducing cognitive dissonance in which the importance of attitudes or behaviours that are inconsistent with each other is cognitively reduced.

**CHAPTER SIX**

**Social influences**

Social influence refers to the idea that how we change others’ behaviour and how they change our behaviour. In its broadest sense social influence includes almost all of social psychology since it may be used to describe any change (physical, attitudinal, emotional or behavioural that occurs in one person as a result of the real, implied or imagined presence of others. Baron and Byrne (1997) defined social influence as an effort by one or more individuals to change the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, or behaviours of one or more others. These efforts might be blatant, and obvious or more subtle and disguised.

Social life is characterized by argument, conflict, and controversy in which individuals or groups try to change the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of others, by persuasion, argument, example, command, propaganda, or force. People can be quite aware of influence attempts and can form impressions of how influenced they and other people are by different types of influence.

**Major Forms of Social Influence:**

**I. Conformity (social influence by norm and social pressure)**

It is a change in behaviour or belief with regard to a group's standards as a result of the group's power. It is a change in behaviour or belief as a result of real or imagined group pressure. It is the correspondence in form, manner, or character which means agreement with others. It is an action in accordance with some specified standards or authority. Hogg and Vaughan (1998) has defined conformity as a deep-seated, private and enduring change in behaviour and attitudes due to group pressure. Solomon Asch is the famous researcher in the area who made rigorous research on conformity. He made an experiment that shows the nature of conformity which goes as follows:

*He set a laboratory situation where a target person was to be involved in judging the size of a set of sticks. The experimenter selected five confederates (people who collaborate with the researcher and knew the purpose of the research, accomplices to the experimenter). The target person was included in this group which he did not know about the purpose of the study. The experimenter showed a standard stick to be compared with four other sticks but it is only one of the sticks that are exactly equal to the standard. The other sticks were nearer in length but not equal to the standard one. The confederates one by one suggested a nearer but not the standard stick. The target person was sure of the answer but as he sees each confederate giving a different answer he developed his doubt and finally confirmed to the group pressure. Usually we conform when we are in doubt and when we see many others conform.*

Regarding conformity Robert Burtun has to say that “Why doeth one man’s yawning make another yawn?”

***Causal versus Normative Explanations to Conformity***

How are we to account for conformity? According to causal explanations, factors internal or (personal characteristics) and external or group norms to individuals cause conformity. The presence of certain personality characteristics, authority figures and others can result in conformity.

**Positive and Negative aspects of conformity**

Conformity itself is a normative and positive factor in social life in most situations. Despite the arbitrary nature of most social norms such as those pertaining to fashion, we need conformity to norms for smooth social interactions. Without norms chaos would follow and very little would be achieved. These norms are products of social conformity. However, there is also an ugly side of conformity. This typically involves compliance with, and eventually acceptance of norms that leads to harm to oneself and others. Examples are norms that lead students to participate in alcohol binges and drug abuse. Regarding the negative effects of conformity Hurrey George said the following: ***“He, who sees the truth, let him claim it, without asking who is for it or who is against it.”*** In sum in conformity people conform to group pressure, they are not forced or commanded and even not requested.

**🟎 When do people conform?**

We are more apt to conform in some situations than in others. The size of the group, the unanimity of group opinions, and our commitment to the group can all affect conformity. In addition, there are individual differences in the desire for individuality or uniqueness that can also influence whether we conform or dissent. Some major conditions under which people conform include

a. Judgement that need difficult requirements and feeling of incompetence

* 1. Feelings of more insecurity
  2. Group size- in very few groups people maintain their identity. But as group number increases conformity increases particularly from four to seven members. If there are more than this number of members the degree of conformity will not increase much. The addition is less.
  3. Unanimity- we fear to be alone in a group and to have our own position but if we get at least one supporter we stand on our own position. With regard to this Novalis has said “My opinion, my conviction, gains infinite strength and success, the moment a second mind has adopted it” and fear of deviance is one major reason to conform.
  4. Cohesiveness- the more similar members of a group are the more individual members are likely to conform.
  5. Status: high status people tend to influence in one way and low status people also influence in their own ways.
  6. When the response is in public-people conform when they are requested in the public but they conform less if they are asked privately.
  7. Prior commitment-made without prior commitment we reconsider our judgement but if we made a prior commitment we remain resistant. For example in Asch’s Experiment if the individual was asked for his 1st judgement and if the rest “the confederates” misjudge it the individual will maintain his/her initial judgement. A similar example is our everyday experience in which umpires or referees rarely reverse their initial judgements despite apparent evidences.

🟎 ***Why do we conform?***

Social psychologists give certain reasons for conforming. The most important reasons are ***Normative Influence and Informational Influence.***

***Normative Influence-w***e call it the desire to be liked. Normative conformity is going along with the crowd to avoid rejection, to stay in people’s good graces, or to gain their approval. It is motivated by the desire for social approval. We often want others to accept us, like us and threat us well. When we deviate from group norms we often pay a price in anxiety if not in rejection. *Here is an example of my own experience of colleagues in Bahir Dar University. In a group many students decided to revolt on low quality food service in 1997. Some students got hungry and wanted to eat, the cafeteria is open; students are legally free to eat. But due to fear of rejection by other students they went hungry the whole day without breakfast as well as lunch. This is a result of normative influence by the group. In some* situations where we don’t exactly know what we should be doing, we compare to what others do; i.e. by observing people in similar situations and following their lead. This leads as to conform.

Sometimes the price is high enough to compel people to support what they do not believe in. Thus normative influence most commonly leads to compliance and this is especially true for people seeking to climb a group’s status ladder. Regarding the relationship between conformity and acceptance Thomas Fuller said that “Do as most do and men will speak well of thee”. Human beings dislike rejection. So, we try to behave the way people would like us to behave and accept our behaviours. Sometimes normative influence may result in mere compliance, or artificial change and lead people to discomfort, which is more a character of compliance.

***Informational influence*** on the other hand, is guided by the desire to be right. We use the opinions and actions of people to guide us in our behaviour and action. When reality is ambiguous other people can be a valuable source of information. Informational influence is motivated by the desire to be correct. The ambiguity of reality makes individuals to use information to disambiguate reality and resolve subjective uncertainty. Informational influence usually brings genuine change of behaviour that helps to internalize the new behaviour adopted. Some of the experiments on when do people conform have isolated either normative or informational influence.

For example- we have said earlier that conformity is greater in the presence of the group, this surely reflects ***normative influence***. On the other hand researches have documented that conformity is greater when participants feel incompetent or when the task is especially difficult this again purely reflects ***informational influence***.

*In summary it is essential to note that conformity is not simply acting as other people act rather it is being affected by how they act. It is acting differently from the way you would act alone if there were not others to influence you.*

Most contributories to the development of our knowledge to conformity are the following among others.

* 1. Asch’s studies of group pressure as we have described earlier is the most famous study in the area.
  2. Miligrams experiments on obedience particularly destructive obedience with several examples is also notable.
  3. Sheriff’s norm formation studies. As one of the early founders Sheriff focused on conformity as a vehicle of norm formation.
     1. **Compliance (Conformity by Request)**

One of the most common forms of compliance is in response to direct pressure to comply with a request. For example, when a friend asks a favour, a salesperson tries to induce us to buy a product, or a partner asks us to change our behaviour. Think also some of the direct requests you may make to your friends as to lend you many, to refrain from smoking in front of you, to tell you what really they think of your new haircut or new clothes, to join the volunteer group you are organizing, and so on. How would you present all these requests in order to increase the chances that your friends will comply? Compliance is usually equated to a response to social influence when people conform by simply going along overtly with certain kind of social influence without genuine internal or private opinion change. It is an overt behavioural conformity while maintaining ones own attitude. This is opposite to ***identification and internalisation*** which refer to a genuine and internal change which is enduring and made as part of the individuals real behaviour or personality.

Compliance is conformity that involves publicly acting in accord with social pressure while privately disagreeing. It refers to a form of social influence including direct requests from one person to another.

Compliance according to Hogg (1998) is a superficial public and transitory change in behavior and expressed attitudes in response to request, coercion or group pressure. For Maghaddam it is a type of conformity in which a change in outward behavior is not accompanied by a change in beliefs. An exact opposite of this is called acceptance. Compliance will deal on how we can make people say ‘yes’ to our requests, what are the techniques to do so? Which ones work best? And when do they work best?

🟎 ***Principles and Techniques for Gaining Compliance***

Robert Cialdini as cited in Baron and Byrne (1997) has identified five major underlying principles and accompanying techniques after he made a thorough study of compliance professional like sales people, advertisers, political lobbyists, fund raisers, con artists, trial attorney’s , professional negotiators, politicians... etc.

**A. Tactics Based*on Friendship or Liking***:

***Ingratiation:*** In general we are more willing to comply with requests from friends or from

people we like than from strangers or those we do not know. ***Ingratiation*** is getting others to

like us so that they will be more willing to agree to our requests. The impression

management techniques we raised under social perception are largely meant for the purpose

of ingratiation.

1. **Tactics Based on Commitment or Consistency**-once we have committed ourselves to a

position or action, we are more willing to comply with requests for behaviours that are consistent with that position. We generally want to behave in a consistent manner. People request us to be consistent and reliable so that our behaviour would be partly predictable and we can make better interactions with others. We ourselves refrain from having friendships with people who are not consistent in some aspects so that to some degree we can have a reliable prediction of how they would act under some conditions. It includes such tactics as the Foot in the Door, the Low Ball Procedure and Bait and Switch- Tactic.

***Foot in the Door***- A procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a small

request and then when this is granted they escalate to a large one. Once the target person says yes

to the small request it is difficult for that person to say no to a larger subsequent request. *I*

*remember my own experience on my way from Mekelle to Addis Ababa; four years ago this*

*technique being used effectively by sellers of roasted barley and chickpea “Kollo”. They lobby*

*you to simply taste it and if you like to buy, you would buy them and if you don’t like to buy, you*

*can leave it. Once you tasted it; it is difficult for you to say no for buying, so to be consistent and*

*for commitment you would buy them.*

Imagine also that in many offices visitors beg the secretary that he/she wants to talk to the

manager only for 2 or 3 minutes; once they enter they seize the opportunity to talk as much as

they need.

***The Lowball Procedure- h***ere a very good deal is offered to a customer. After the customer accepts, however, something happens that makes it necessary for the sales person to change the deal and make it less advantageous for the customer. For example you may go to a boutique where you found an attractive leather jacket and it was offered for you with 600 Ethiopian Birr which you felt is an attractive price. You consented to buy it and confirmed that the jacket was one of the most you liked. But meanwhile the salesperson says sorry I have forgotten the VAT (the value added tax in calculating the price so the price is 650 Birr). Most likely you will buy it because you have expressed your liking of the jacket. So since you are partly committed you may agree with the additional request.

***Bait and Switch Tactics***- A technique for gaining compliance in which items offered for sale are

unavailable or of very low quality. This leads customers to buy a more expensive item that is

available. For example Ambassador Garment Factory may advertise a 50 % discount in some of

the suits for the new Ethiopian year. Because of the discount you and your friend go there, when

you reach there you would be told that they have finished these clothes and these clothes were of

low quality, and they would show you other best quality clothes with high cost, it may be

difficult for you to return without buying for you have committed yourself to buy a suit, and thus

you may make your mind up and buy the available.

**C. Tactics Based on Reciprocity** – If we do some favour to someone, then he/she is very likely

to comply with a subsequent request because there is a strong norm to reciprocate.

Reciprocity is a basic rule of social life; we shall see this in some details in social exchange.

When some one does something for us, we generally feel an obligation to do something for

him/her in return. It includes the following specific techniques: the d*oor in the face, foot in the*

*mouth, and that is not all approaches*.

***The Door in the face technique***: A procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a large request and then when this is refused they will retreat to a smaller one (the one you actually desire). You may request your friend to borrow you 100 Birr, when he/she refuses this you may retreat to 80, 70, 60, or 50. Your friend would most likely agree to give you 50 if you begin with a hundred. This technique is often applied by salespersons. You might have observed that in many boutiques salespersons request you an exaggerated cost for many items so that they can retreat their level best down to gain you compliance.

***That is not all technique***- a technique in which a requester offers additional benefits to target persons before they have decided whether to comply with or reject specific requests. Here an initial request is followed by something that sweetens it which may be a small extra incentive before the target person can make up his or her mind. Throwing in a small “extra” before people can say no does indeed increase the likelihood that they will say yes. Zenith Cosmetics gives you a comb as an additional incentive when you buy them a bottle of cosmetics. You might have heard a lot of advertisements that say when you buy this you would get this free of charge.

***Foot in the Mouth Tactic:-***requesters establish some kind of kinship no matter how territorial the target person is. By doing so the former will increase the latter’s obligation to comply.

**D. Tactics Based on Scarcity:-**It is a general rule of life that things that are scarce, rare or difficult to posses are viewed as being more valuable than those that are easy to obtain so we exert more effort and money to acquire such things. Take for example the costs of gold and diamond. These minerals are not useful to health, neither to growth nor are they much useful for human existence but due to their scarcity among other minerals they have derived a great deal of token value. The more scarce a material is the more would be its cost. Assume what the cost of air and water could have been if they were not so abundant and accessible to most. They are the most to our existence but we do not pay at all or pay only very little for them, thanks to the almighty to make them available in abundance.

***Playing Hard to Get***:-It refers to efforts to increase compliance by suggesting that a person or object is scarce and hard to obtain. If you go to some supermarkets they tell you sky rocketing prices to some of their items and try to convince you that this item is available only in their supermarket and it is one of the scarce resources. A daily labourer in Ethiopia would do difficult works for a whole day only for 6 or 7 or 8 Birr, he/she is the most abundant and excess workforce. But a college professor would require you more than a hundred birr per hour this is not only because the latter is trained but also scarce.

***Deadline technique***:-It is a technique in which target persons are told that they have only limited time to take advantage of some offer or to obtain some item. Many business firms advertise big discounts in the eve’s of big holidays like Easter, Epiphany, New Ethiopian Year, Arefa, Moulid, and so on, but they also tell us that the discount would stay only a week or two weeks.

E**. Other tactics**:-On top of the previous techniques other techniques are also used. These techniques are complaining, putting others in a good mood , and pique technique.

***Complaining-*** Expressing discontent, dissatisfaction, resentment, or regret as a means of exerting social influence on others. You request a discount on an item by complaining that it lacks this or that quality, its colour is not attractive and it has this and that defects and so on.

***Pique technique***:-A technique for gaining compliance that focuses on gaining target person’s attention and so preventing them from engaging in automatic or mindless refusal. Sometimes target persons may resist your request mindlessly without paying attention thus you need to get their attention.

***III. Obedience-Social Influence by Demand***

Obedience is social influence by demand usually by authorities. It refers to conformity to direct orders from a person/s/ of high status and authority. The individual who is commanded by a legitimate authority ordinarily obeys. In short it is acceptance of command. It is the act of submission to the demands or requests of a person or organization in authority. It is the act or process of adapting to the desires, demands or coercion of others.

In any social group, organization or society, it is important that people obey orders from those who have legitimate authority. In wartime, generals expect soldiers to obey orders, and they severely punish disobedience. We expect drivers to follow the orders of police officers directing traffic. Most people believe that public health officials have the right to require the school children be vaccinated against polio and other communicable diseases. In general citizens obey the laws enacted by state federal governments. Compliance with authorities is increased when people believe that they are treated fairly, trust the motives of the authorities, and identify with the group or organization.

In compliance, it is noted that often we are more willing to agree to request from persons with authority this principle underlies one major form of social influence called obedience. Obedience occurs when people obey commands or orders from others to do something. Obedience is less frequent than conformity or compliance because even persons who possess authority and power generally prefer to exert it through requests rather than direct orders. Obedience drops sharply when the authority figure is removed.

🟎 ***Destructive Obedience- Some Basic Findings***

More powerful authorities get better obedience than those with less authority. Some orders are destructive. For example, we may be required to injure an innocent person. A number of disastrous acts happen in the world due to destructive obedience. The torture, killings and slaughter of 6 million Jewish by the Nazi’s was largely a product of obedience. Of course life could have been meaningless without obedience. Many organizational activities require obedience, but we should question when, and to which orders we should obey. Many human sufferings emanate from acceptance of destructive obedience. There are extremely huge examples to this. Saddam Hussein’s soldiers were willing to murder unarmed civil protesters in their country, in Ethiopia too during the. All this is a result of destructive obedience. Destructive obedience has some social psychological basis.

***Why do people obey?***

1. Persons in authority relieve those who obey of the responsibility for their own actions. Those who obey orders say "I was only carrying out orders" This is a defence many offer after obeying harsh or cruel directions. It is the authority responsible for this, they say. The authorities also tell obeyers the same; that is it is authorities not obeyers that take the responsibility.

2. Persons in authority often possess visible badges or signs of their status like uniforms, titles and similar symbols. Faced with such obvious reminders of who is in charge most people find it difficult to resist. A constable is less likely to say no to a commander or to the vice commissioner.

3. Gradual escalation of authority figures orders- this is a gradual increase in the intensity of command from authorities. An authority may first request politely, then some how demand, then a strong demand, and finally may force the subordinate. This is the case in many situations and many organizations. When you do not obey, authorities will threaten you, deny your promotion, deduct your salary and even dismiss you from job.

4. Finally events in many situations involving destructive obedience vary quickly and the fast pace of some events or commands give participants little time for reflection. Here I would like to recall the June 8, 2005 killings of around 40 civilians in Addis Ababa. It was said that there were demonstrators, and the government feared that this may develop in to havoc. And thus it was felt that the crowd was beyond the capacity of the federal police to control this. The Police Commissioner expressed that untrained police were also used, because the event gave them little time to reflect as they said. The fear of the gradual escalation of the crowd in to anticipated havoc made police to take destructive obedience (as reported by the police commissioner. So the fast pace of events give little time to reflect and caused the death of over 40 lives.

* Interpersonal or social influence is at the very core of the discipline social psychology. It refers to the idea that how we change others’ behaviour and how they change our behaviour. Daily we engage in influencing and being influenced by others.
* Social life is characterized by argument, conflict, and controversy in which individuals or groups try to change the thoughts, feelings and behaviours of others, by persuasion, argument, example, command, propaganda, or force.
* A related concept to influence is power. Influence is actual exercise of effort to change thought or behaviour of others, power is the base to exercise influence.
* The potential sources of power are: coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, expert power, referent power, and informational power:
* The major forms of social influence are: conformity (social influence by norm and social pressure), compliance (social influence by request), and obedience (social influence by demand).
* Conformity can be defined as a deep-seated, private and enduring change in behaviour and attitudes due to group pressure.
* Some major conditions under which people conform include: feeling of incompetence and insecurity, size of the group, unanimity of the group pressure, cohesiveness of the group, status of the influencer, publicly made request, and our prior commitment to the idea.
* We can summarise all factors in to two: informational and normative influence.
* Compliance is a type of conformity in which a change in outward behaviour is not accompanied by a change in beliefs. It is a superficial change by request.
* By a thorough study of compliance professionals like sales people, advertisers, political lobbyists, fund raisers, trial attorneys, professional negotiators, politicians... etc, social psychologists have identified five major principles of getting compliance including accompanying techniques.
* The techniques are**:** tactics based *on* friendship or liking *(ingratiation),*  tactics based on commitment or consistency (*foot in the door, the lowball procedure, bait and switch tactics),* tactics based on reciprocity (*the door in the face technique, that is not all technique, foot in the mouth tactic),* tactics based on scarcity (*playing hard to get, deadline technique),*other tactics (*complaining, pique technique)*
* Obedience is social influence by demand usually by authorities. It refers to conformity to direct orders from a person/s/ of high status and authority.
* Of course obedience is essentials for a fully functioning societal system. Obedience might be sometimes destructive.
* People obey destructive obedience for the following reasons: persons in authority relieve those who obey of the responsibility for their own actions, persons in authority often possess visible badges or signs of their status, gradual escalation of authority figures orders, finally events in many situations involving destructive obedience vary quickly and in fast pace which give obeyers little time for reflection.
* The victim’s emotional distance to the target, closeness and legitimacy of the authority and institutional support are few factors that breed destructive obedience.
* Destructive obedience can be reduced by informing responsibility of doers for their action, showing disobedient models but appropriate disobedience, making individuals question the expertise and motive of authority figures

**Chapter seven: Interpersonal Relations**

**7.1. Attraction and Close Relationships**

From birth to death, relationships are at the core of human experience. Humans are social animals who spend most of their lives in the presence of other people. Cross-cultural studies find that children and adolescents around the world also spend about three quarters of their time with other people. Our lifelong dependence on one another puts relationships at the core of our existence. Interpersonal attraction is our evaluation of other people with respect to how much we like or dislike them. Such evaluations are made along an attitudinal dimension that includes strong liking (towards a friend), mild liking (towards superficial acquaintances), mild dislike (toward an annoying acquaintance), and strong dislike (towards someone considered undesirable). Attraction is a positive attitude held by one person toward another.

**Some indicators of the power of attraction**

* For our ancestors, mutual attachments enabled group survival. When hunting game or erecting shelter, ten hands were better than two.
* For a woman and a man, the bonds love lead to children, whose survival chances are boosted by the nurturing of two bonded parents who support one another.
* For children and their care givers, social attachments enhances survival. Unexplainably separated from one another, parent and toddler may each panic, until reunited in tight embrace.
* Finding a supportive soul mate in whom we can confide, we feel accepted and prized as we are. Falling in love, we feel irrepressible joy. Longing for acceptance and love, we spend billions on cosmetics, clothes, and diets.
* For the jilted, the widowed, and the sojourner in a strange place, the loss of social bonds triggers pain, anger, or withdrawal. Reared under extreme neglect or in institutions belonging to nobody, children become pathetic, anxious creatures. Losing a soul mate relationship, adults feel jealous, lonely, distraught, or bereaved. Exiled, imprisoned, or in solitary confinement, people ache for their own people and places. We are indeed social animals. When we feel supported by close intimate relationships-we tend to be healthier and happier.

🟎***Factors Influencing Attraction***

What factors nurture liking and loving? Let’s start with those that help initiate attraction these are: proximity, physical attractiveness, similarity, and feeling of being liked. What factors nurture liking and loving? Does absence make the heart grow fonder? Or is someone who is out of sight also out of mind? Is it likes that attract? Or opposites? How much do good looks matter? What has fostered our close relationship with a friend? Lets start with those factors that help a friendship begin and then consider those that sustain and deepen a relationship.

**🟎*Why Affiliate?***

The need to affiliate or be with others underlies the way in which we form interpersonal relationships. Of course an apparent opposition to affiliation is the need we all show at times to avoid interacting with others. There is a conflict of motives and balancing act of how we try to regulate our privacy in a busy world where we want some space to ourselves while at other times we seek out company. Some reasons are:

* 1. ***No one is an island***- one way to learn what it means to affiliate is to ask what happens when people are prevented from being with others. Even separation from others for a relatively short term can have serious consequences and more compelling long-term separation can have serious consequences and, in the case of the young, permanently damaging outcomes.
  2. ***Reducing Anxiety***- sometimes we seek to affiliate with others, even strangers, for brief moments in order to cope with a particular set of circumstances particularly the role that the company of others can play in reducing anxiety. Research by Schachter 1959 as cited in Hogg and Vaughan 1998 supported the hypothesis that a greater preference for company would occur among high anxious participants. In Schachter’s experiment two groups both to be in an electric shock experiment were selected. One of the groups was told that the shock is so mild and has no effect and the second group was told that the shock would be a little severe. After this the two groups were told that there is a delay in the experiment for an hour and thus each participant was to choose to stay with others or alone as they liked. 2/3 of those with anticipated high shock prefer to stay with others and only 1/3 of those with mild shock preferred to stay with others (the shock was not at all to be held). Here we may question why those with high anxiety preferred to stay in company. Two hypotheses could be advanced. Primarily the presence of another person provided a distraction from the anxiety provoking stimulus. Second participants wanted company for social comparison which is a yardstick against which to validate their reactions. If a distraction is desired then any person would suffice for company, but if company was desired for social comparison the other person needs to be in a similar situation.

🟎***Why are some people attractive?***

Attraction refers to the power that makes one person feel positively about another. When we are attracted to, allured by, charmed by someone we want to know that person, to spend some time with him/her. Attraction is necessary for friendships to begin, and yet we meet many people who do not become friends. Some of the reasons for our friendship choices are discussed below

* + 1. **Physical Attractiveness**- the first thing we notice about others is usually how they look, and this tends to form the basis of the first evaluation we make. Although we might think that evaluating someone on the basis of their physical attractiveness is a superficial strategy, evidence shows that we often do precisely this. An attractive person, for example, is less likely to be judged as maladjusted or disturbed, more likely to be recommended for hiring on a job interview, and likely to receive higher evaluations of written work.
    2. **Proximity**- Mundane as it might seem, the physical proximity sometimes referred to us propinquity of one person to the other is a potent factor which facilitates attraction. Chance occurrences, such as who is allocated the adjourning room in a hostel, or who catches the same bus, play an important role in determining friendships. In a study carried in a housing complex, more people choose those living on the same floor for their friends than those on other floors or in more distant buildings. Why is this so? A variety of studies point to several factors that hinge on the simple fact of being physically close.

1. **Familiarity**- proximity generally leads to repeated exposure and, therefore, more liking. Repetitive presentation of a variety of stimuli increases liking for them. Familiarity refers to the fact that one becomes more familiar with a stimulus (another person), one feels more comfortable with it and shows more liking for it. The Amharic proverb “YemiawkutSaytanKemayawkutMeleakYeshallel” which means the Devil you know well is better than the Angel you don’t; depicts how we feel comfortable even with the worst thing we are familiar with than something strange.
2. **Availability**- people who live close by are easily accessible, so that interaction with them requires little effort. Therefore rewards of social interaction are available at a low cost, remember the principle of closure in social exchange. Think what happens when a friend shifts to a distant place. Do you keep up the often promised contacts? Not much, many friendships including marriage fail when there is distance shift.
   * + - 1. **Expectation of continued interaction**- Heider’s (1958) balance theory predict that it would be an uncomfortable experience not to get on with one’s neighbours. More specifically this includes the process of being aware that neighbours are people with whom further interaction is anticipated.
         2. **Reciprocity**- liking and disliking often follows the reciprocity principle: that is, we tend to like those who like us and dislike those who dislike us. Reciprocity depends on various situations; for example people of low self-esteem liked people who accept them more than those who do not where as high self-esteem ones showed not much significant difference on whether others accepted them or not to like or dislike compared to low self-esteem ones. Further if praise comes from a flatterer with ulterior motives, its value will be low and we will not respond with liking. We also attach lower value if the praise comes from a friend rather than a stranger, as we expect praise from friends. The pattern in which praise is received is also influential; for example we tend to like most those who initially dislike us but then warm up to us, and we dislike most those people who initially like us but turn cold, this is called the gain loss hypothesis (Aronson and Linder 1965).
         3. **Similarity-** similarity of attitudes, values, and even age and other backgrounds is one of the most important determinants of attraction. A study by Newcomb (1961) on college students indicated that among freshman students attraction in the first few weeks was more related to proximity, however, as the semester progressed, attraction was related more closely to similarity of pre-acquaintance attitudes. Anything that other people do that agrees with your perception of things is reinforcing. The more people have in common the greater the degree of interpersonal attraction. According Brewer (1968) as cited in Hogg and Vaughan (1998), perceived similarity was found the top affecting variable for intertribal attraction among thirty tribal groups in East Africa as highlighted by 1,500 participants. When another tribe was thought to have quite different attitudes, social contact was avoided; if they were perceived as quite similar, intimate contact was possible.
         4. **Need complementarities-** in contrast to the theory of similarity, Winch (1958) has formulated a theory of complementarity of needs. Winch hypothesised that we seek others who can best satisfy our needs-for example the pairing of apparent opposites, as when a dominant person is attracted to a submissive partner. Support for this theory comes from Lipetz et al. (1970) who found that complementarity of needs relating to marriage, did correlate with marital satisfaction. For example a short man may be attracted to a tall lady that will also help for medium sized child/ren/.

**7.2. The Concept of Pro-social Behaviour**

*Assume that hearing a rumble of an approaching train on a railway Girmachew leapt down on to the tracks and raced toward the approaching headlights to rescue Chaltu a three year old girl that had fallen from the platform 5 seconds before the train would have run her over. Girmachew flung her to the crowd above. As the train roared in, he himself failed in his effort to jump back to the platform. At the last instant, bystanders pulled him to safety.*

Girmachew helped Chaltu without expecting any help from her in return; bystanders also rescued Girmachew without expecting anything from him.

Pro-social behaviour and altruism are terms used to describe actions which are voluntarily carried out for the sole purpose of helping others without expectation of reward from external sources. Pro-social or altruistic behaviour is an act of comforting, caring, and helping abound; without asking anything in return, for example people offer directions, donate money, give blood, volunteer time. David G. Myers defined altruism as a motive to increase another’s welfare without conscious regard for one’s self interests. Why and when will people perform altruistic acts? And what can be done to lesson indifference and increase altruism? These are the primary focuses here. The term pro-social behaviour is invented by social psychologists to avoid some of the connotations historically associated with altruism. Theologians and philosophers have traditionally defined altruism as behaviour which is intended to help others not only without anticipation of external reward but also without anticipation of self reward as well; like enhancement of esteem, or avoidance of guilt or shame. From a philosophical point an act which brings pleasure, satisfaction, or relief to the actor is not different in principle from one which brings praise or profit from an external source or escape from punishment. There have been debates across the centuries about whether any act can ever be truly altruistic in this sense. Pro-social behaviour is a broad category which refers to acts positively valued by society. In many cultures helping others is socially valued. Thus a helpful response is a form of pro-social behaviour. Helping behaviour is an act that intentionally is meant to benefit someone else. Altruism is a special form of helping behaviour, sometimes costly, that shows concern for fellow human beings and is performed without expectation of personal gain.

In social psychology altruism or pro-social behaviour is an unselfish desire to help others; it is an unselfishly helpful act. Aclock states that some people just seem to be born saints-always putting other people first. Altruism requires one put him/her self in other person's shoes, to feel their suffering. Some people are brought up to be helpful to others.

***Basic Motives***- in relation to altruism this refers to why people do help. With regard to what motivates people to help their fellow human beings when the latter are in need two controversies are common. Some consider helping behaviour to emanate from the assumption that human beings are basically good ***(altruistic);*** others argue that helping behaviour emanates from a self serving explanation for our apparent helpfulness ***(egoism).*** The latter is a motive to increase one’s own welfare.

***Auguste Comte describes these two motives (altruism and egoism) as follows:***

He believed that some helping behavior was based on a person's own sense of self gratification. This is **egoism** where one has a tendency to focus on his/her own gratification which is the behavior directed at self gratification, self congratulations and escape from guilt and or shame. **Comte** also believed that people were motivated to live for others and coined the term altruism in this basically unselfish desire where the helper has an ultimate goal of a benefit to the other person being helped. True altruism comes from empathy-feelings that are congruent with the feelings and perceived welfare of another person. Jesus’ parable of the Good Samaritan on Luke 10:30-35 is a classic illustration of true altruism.

*A man was going down from Jerusalem to Jericho, and fell into the hands of robbers, who stripped him, beat him, and went away, leaving him half dead. Now by chance a priest was going down that road; and when he saw him, he passed by on the other side. So like was a Levite, when he come to the place and saw him, passed by on the other side. But a Samaritan while travelling came near him; and when he saw him, he was moved with pity. He went to him and bandaged his wounds, having poured oil and wine on them. Then he put him on his own animal, brought him to an inn, and took care of him. The next day he took out two Denarii’s, give them to the innkeeper, and said, “take care of him; and when I come back, I will repay you whatever more you spend.”*

The Samaritan illustrates pure altruism. Filled with compassion, he gives a total stranger time, energy, and money while expecting neither repayment nor appreciation.

🟎***Explanations and Determinants to Altruistic Behaviour***

Our understanding of pro-social behaviour benefits from several broad theoretical perspectives that were presented in unit 2 of module 1. First an evolutionary approach suggests that a predisposition to help is part of our genetic, evolutionary heritage. Second a socio-cultural perspective emphasizes the importance of social norms that dictate when we should help people in need. Third, a learning approach proposes that people learn to be helpful, following basic principles of reinforcement and modelling. Fourth, a decision making perspective focuses on the process that influence judgements about when help is needed; it also emphasizes the weighing of costs and benefits in the decision to give help. Finally attribution theory highlights the idea that our willingness to help depends on the ‘merits’ of the case and in, particular on whether the person deserves assistance or not.

🟎**Why Do People Help?**

The question of why people help others is basic, and has been studied in two major approaches a biological approach and a social learning approach. This distinction is significant and represents important differences among psychologists generally, as well as social psychologists specifically. A third approach combining the two is developing well recently. Alock described the following in relation to the determinants and explanations. To him living one's life in service to others might be for the following reasons:

* Born saints: (altruism as an innate predisposition). Some people might be philanthropic in nature.
* Socio-biology: it is a biological view that aggression, altruism and some other social behaviours serve to protect the survival of one’s genes. Socio-biology contends that the essence of life is gene survival, and that our genes drive us in ways that maximize our chance of survival so that when we die they live on. Assume that two children are playing on a road, in a far distance the mother of one observed that a truck is arriving with a fast speed. If the lady is cognizant that the children are at risk and can only save one of the children there is no qualms that the lady would save her child. Her child is her genetic continuation.
* Good upbringing and social learning (altruism as something that is acquired): social learning theory championed by Bandura which contends that human social behaviour is not innate but learnt from appropriate models is one explanation to helping behaviour. Some parents, neighbours, tribes, or states train their children to be helpful. Schools, education, and media also bring up children with high or low tendency to help others.
* Cognitive development theory (personal sets of values and attitudes which oblige them to provide help to others in certain situations). Failure to do so brings about feelings of guilt which are aversive to the individual. I would like to mention my own personal experience a year and half ago.

*I was walking along the street from St. George in Piasa to Sidist Kilo via “AfinchoBerr”, I observed a crowd on the bridge at “AfinchoBerr” looking down. A man has fallen into the dirty river there. Everybody was shouting, fortunately he was able to pull himself out little by little and I felt comfort. But after a moment the man changed his mind and began to crawl back to the river, there was no police around, I asked individuals to save him so that I would pay them what they demanded for I was not physically strong enough to jump on one side of the bridge and save him. Eventually no one was to cooperate and in my own very eyes I saw him falling in to the river, drowned and dead. It was so shocking. I felt a greater depression not for the sake of the man but for my own guilt. I was to help him to avoid my guilt feelings. So the selfish feeling of avoiding guilt is one very reason to help.*

* Feeling good about yourself: altruism and mood
  + Warm feeling of success- helping results in warm feeling of success
  + Image repair, reparative altruism: Some one whose image has been hurt by some wrong doings will do some altruistic acts to repair his image. A highly corrupt government official may support two or three orphaned children at home, to repair his damaged impression.
  + Need for approval- we said earlier that helping others is one of the most socially acceptable social behaviours in most community’s and thus one might help to get approval.
* It is what is expected- altruism as normative behaviour. This relates to the social responsibility norm which is an expectation that people will help those dependent upon them. For children, the severely impoverished, and disabled, and others perceived as unable to return as much as they receive the social responsibility norm motivates helping.

🟎 ***Some factors that influence altruism***

***Who is most likely to help?***

The former were basic causes that explain helping behaviour, by elaborating why people help. At this juncture it seems worthy to ask the question why some people are more likely to help than others. In this section we shall see who is most likely to help. Researchers have investigated both relatively fleeting moods and emotions that influence our behaviour and more enduring personality characteristics. On top of this the characteristic of the victim in emergency may also influence helping behaviours of others. People more liked would more likely get help than those who are not liked. Below are some personal factors that influence pro-social behaviour.

1. **Personality variable**- for example people with high internal locus of control, high internalized standards of justice and responsibility, being in good mood, greater empathy, better self control and integrity have high tendency of altruistic behaviour. Empathy is the ability to sense another person’s experiences; identifying with and experiencing another person’s emotion, thoughts and attitudes. People in good mood are more likely to help than people in a negative mood. So if you were to ask cooperation or volunteerism you better do it when people are in good mood.
2. **Gender differences**- it is generally expected that women are more emphatic and consequently more altruistic. In terms of gender interactions it was found that mostly males are helpful to females than to males or male-female pair. This casts doubt that males might be sexually attracted to women in trouble. Though I don’t know any research personal experiences in our culture shows that most frequently drivers (nearly all male) give lifts easily to women in trouble than to males in trouble. Sexual abuses of such helps are also reported in a number of instances. But the culture also states that one (males) should not be merciless to women. There is an Amharic saying that says “beset aychekenem”. So this may be one of the causes for males to be more helpful to women.
3. **Effects of religion**- most religions like Christianity, Islam, Judaism, etc promote altruistic behaviour. As far as my knowledge is concerned with the exception of Satanism most religions approve, preach, and encourage helping others in need. Jesus’ parable of the Samaritan’s assistance to the person in need of help is a case in point.
4. **Rural-Urban differences** -it seems that people in big cities are less altruistic than people in small towns and rural areas (large cities are characterized by more individualized behaviour). Researches have indicated that most eastern cultures which are collectivist in nature are more helpful to the needy than the western culture which is individualized. So most rural people are collectivist in culture than urban ones. For example in Ethiopia if you go to the rural community if some one is sick so many people in his neighbourhood including far distant places in the Kebele visit and comfort him. Neighbours and members of associations (church associations), plough his lands, carry him/her to health centres, take food available in their homes or do other jobs for him. But in urban areas particularly big cities individuals are left to tackle their own problems.
5. **Bystander intervention-** According to Peliavin et al 1981 as cited in Hogg and Vaughan (1998) when bystanders perceive someone in trouble, they work their way through three stages before they respond to the person. This process involves a set of calculations. At first they become physiologically aroused by the sight of another’s distress. Next this arousal is labelled as emotion. Finally, the consequences of helping or not are evaluated. Bystander intervention occurs when an individual breaks out of the role of a bystander and helps another person in an emergency. Bystander effect on the other hand refers to the idea that people are much less to help in an emergency when they are with others than when alone. The greater the number, the less likely it is that anyone will help and this is called diffusion of responsibility, where there is a tendency of an individual to assume that others will take responsibility-as a result no one does. This is a hypothesized cause of the bystander effect.

***When do people help?***

In most situations people tend to help when:

* + 1. they see that the victim is alone
    2. they are encouraged to help
    3. they see some model and prestigious person help others
    4. people are in good mood

***Why people do not help?***

1. Seeing no gain by helping which is a selfish and egoistic reason
2. Some biases against the needy
3. Being in a negative mood at that time
4. People might not be aware that help is needed

***How can we increase altruistic behaviour?***

1. Make some few members of the group help first and then the group
2. Provide proper models
3. Arranging the situation in such a way that it appears happy, like preparing an entertainment party for helping others
4. Increase awareness to minimize bias
5. Treating them with modest language to lobby them to help

**7.3 *Prejudice, Stereotype, and Discrimination***

*Few years ago and even today in most parts of Ethiopia people who do traditional art crafts as pottery, leather workers, and blacksmiths are despised, downgraded and considered as evil and inferior. I remember my own personal experience while I was a student at Bahir Dar University. In the city of Bahir Dar there is a minority group called the “Waito”; people say that this group of people have came from water, which is against the evolutionary theory or the religious theory of genesis. This is a pure stereotype. Other prejudices and stereotypes are common among the various ethnicities and religious groups. Prejudice is not limited to race, and ethnicity but also in religion, politics and other affairs of life.*

The Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture defines prejudice as unfair and often unfavourable feeling or opinion formed without thinking deeply and clearly or without enough knowledge and sometimes resulting from fear or distrust of ideas different from one’s own.

Worchel (1991) defined prejudice as a negative attitude toward a person or negative evaluation of a person based on one’s membership in a group other than the evaluator’s own group. If a person dislikes another person simply because that person is a member of a different race, ethnicity, religion, social class, hometown, college major, interest in music, interest in books, interest in sport; we are dealing with prejudice. Prejudice is unreasonable feelings or attitudes especially of hostile nature directed against an individual for he belongs to a group the evaluator did not like.

***Stereotypes*** on the other hand are sets of beliefs about the characteristics of people in a group generalized nearly to all group members. It is an over generalized and inaccurate beliefs about a group of people. It is a gross generalization acquired from misinformation which ignores individual differences and are resistant to change even in the light of new information.

***Racism-*** it is a term we use to prejudice based on race.

***Ethnocentrism***- is the belief that in-groups are superior to out-groups. In sociology ethnocentrism refers to the feeling of an individual or a group that his/her/their culture, religion, or belief is superior to that of others.

***Discrimination***- refers to negative often aggressive behaviour aimed at the target of prejudice. Very often negative stereotypes or prejudice give rise to discrimination which can be defined as action taken to harm a group or any one of its members. It can be thought of as the expression of prejudice in behaviour. It is unjustifiable negative behaviour towards a group and its members. Group antagonism has three components. ***Stereotypes*** are cognitive- beliefs about the typical characteristics of group members. ***Prejudice*** is affective- negative feelings toward a target group. And ***discrimination*** is behavioural- behaviour that disadvantages individuals simply because of their group membership.

🟎 ***Effects of Prejudice***

Four major effects of prejudice are pronounced in the literature. These are

1. Self-esteem- social groups that are the victims of prejudice and discrimination generally have relatively low status and little power in society, and find it difficult to avoid accepting society’s consensual negative image of them. Members of these groups tend to internalize these evaluations and form unfavourable self image manifested in relevant context as low self-esteem.
2. Failure and disadvantage- the victims of prejudice belong to groups that are denied access to those resources that society makes available for people to thrive and succeed-for example good education, health, housing, employment, etc.
3. Self-fulfilling prophesy- these are expectations and assumptions about a person that influence one’s interactions with that person and eventually change that person’s behaviour in line with one’s expectations.
4. Violence and genocide- The targets of prejudice are considered for example as stupid, dirty, insensitive, repulsive, aggressive, and psychologically unstable. This is a constellation that evaluates others as relatively worthless human beings who do not need or deserve to be treated with consideration, courtesy and respect. Together with fear and hatred, this is a potent mix. It dehumanizes other people and, given certain social circumstances, can permit individual violence, mass aggression or even systematic extermination or genocide.

Some stereotypes have a grain of truth. But blanket stereotypes about groups, even when they contain a grain of truth, usually contain much inaccuracy, because they are overgeneralizations about many quite different individuals. As a result they can be destructive for they are applied to group members to whom they may not fit at all. Most research on the effects of stereotypes has emphasized how they bias and distort the stereotype holder’s judgement. One particularly destructive effect is that a stereotype can be a self-fulfilling prophecy. That produces stereotype-confirming behaviour on the part of the out-group members. Members of the victimized group begin to live up to the stereotype, and to exhibit the very characteristics that the stereotype says they have. The above example of the art craft workers is a case in point. Most craft workers in our cultures have accepted their inferiority.

Discrimination as a behavioural component of antagonism is exhibited in accordance with the stereotype or prejudice one has. Because of some ethnic prejudice interethnic marriages are limited in some cultures. During the period of Apartheid in South Africa blacks are prohibited from many accesses. In some countries in Africa ethnic prejudice is striking many aspects of the countries including giving political power, educational opportunities, or economic benefits to people of their ethnicity, denying the same to other ethnic groups.

Sometimes prejudice may lead to genocide which is the ultimate expression of prejudice by exterminating an entire social group like the massacre of the nearly a million Tutsi in Rwanda and six million Jews by the Nazi during WWII. Racial discrimination is one major problem plaguing the world. Prejudice is the cause of many calamities, hostilities, and subtleties of human life.

🟎 ***Causes of prejudice***

There are a number of theories about the origins of group antagonism, most of which derive from the general theories of learning we saw in socialization, attitude formation and other social behaviours. Baron (1994) listed the following as major causes of prejudice

**A).Direct inter-group conflict- competition as a source of prejudice**

It is an axiom of life that the things that people value most such as goods, jobs, nice homes, high status, are always in short supply. This serves as the foundation of the oldest explanation of prejudice called ***realistic conflict theory***. According to this view prejudice stems from competition among social groups over valued commodities or opportunities. In short prejudice develops out of the struggle over jobs, adequate housing, good schools and other desirable outcomes.

**B. Social Categorization- the ‘us’ versus ‘them’ effect**

People generally divide the social world around them into two distinct categories us and them. ***Social dominance theory*** is a cause of prejudice. Social dominance theory assumes that societies tend to be organized in hierarchies, with some groups at the top and others at the bottom. Some individuals especially high in it choose to enforce the hierarchy by serving in positions of authority, such as in police forces. Social dominance orientation proves to be a strong predictor of racial and ethnic prejudices among members of dominant groups. Dominant groups create and legitimize myths to explain why it is impossible to change the existing hierarchy.

**C. Early experience-** the role of social learning is crucial. We learn whom to hate and when to hate at different instances. In our own families, neighbours, ethnics, or country level we are told to like or hate this or that ethnic group, this or that religious group, this or that political group, this or that type of occupation and so on. Schools and the media play their own roles (negative or positive) in the development of prejudice. Alock lists role of parents, instrumental conditioning, classical conditioning, modelling, teachers, schools, and peer groups as major factors in learning prejudice. There are also some innate tendencies.

**D. Cognitive Source of Prejudice**- illusory correlations that is out-group homogeneity and in-group differentiation: feelings or mental associations or how we process social information is one source of prejudice. If we were to go somewhere in a dark evening and if we see bushes or other objects we feel that is a hyena or some other beast. Our mind begins to construct a leg, a head, and even a tail to the bush, and even we begin to feel that it is moving. All this is because of the cognitive schema we have that beasts go out in the night and they are dangerous to humans.

***Some additional causes of prejudice include***

1. Ignorance and barriers to communication
2. Unequal status and power between various groups breeds prejudice.
3. Diversity between groups in terms of outlooks like religion, values, physical characteristics, language, etc.
4. In-group favouritism including ethnocentrism. Ethnocentrism which is a belief in the superiority of once ethnic group, including a bias for in-group members such as overestimating the quality of their performance.
5. Institutional support and reinforcement
6. Tendency to conform with the societal norms

🟎 ***How can prejudice be reduced?***

Discussing the nature, forms, causes and effects of prejudice did not suffice. We need to brief how we can reduce prejudice. Some potentially beneficial steps to reduce prejudice suggested by Baron and Byrne 1997 are b*reaking it through learning not to hate, direct inter group contact, re-categorization, finally reducing the boundary between “US” and “Them” and cognitive intervention*

***In addition to those mentioned above the following suggestions will be helpful in reducing or eliminating prejudice***

1. Formal education system working towards better attitude
2. Develop supportive norms
3. Legislative measures (legal system)
4. Develop contact systems programs
5. Political system working for human rights, equality, etc
6. Hold discussions, lectures, etc
7. Media, and leaders working against prejudice