**COLLEGE: CSS**

**COURSE: INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**DEPARTMENT: PSYCHOLOGY**

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**STUDENTS: 2ND YEAR, 2ND SEM**

**CHAPTER ONE BASICS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY Introduction** Human beings are essentially social beings. We stay with other and our actions thoughts and feelings are affected by the presence of others. At the same time we influence the behavior of other individuals. This consists of large amount of human behavior. *Social psychology* is a discipline that tries to understand the ***human social behavior***. As is the case with psychology, even social psychology has a past which is less than 100 years. The scope of social psychology is wide and it is ever widening. Social cognition, social perceptions, attitudes, self, stereotype, prejudice and discrimination, interpersonal attraction, close relations, social influence, pro-social behavior, aggression, group and individuals, applications of social psychology, and many more are the topics of social psychology.

**1.1. Meaning of social psychology** Defining any filed is a very difficult task. So is the case for social psychology due to the field’s broad scope and its rapid rate of change. Various definitions for social psychology exist; here some examples.

❖ According to **Gordon Allport** (1954) social psychology is best defined as the discipline that uses scientific methods in *“an attempt to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behavior of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other human beings”*. ❖ **Myers and Spencer** (2006) define social psychology as the *“scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another”*. ❖ **Barron and Byrne** (2007) defined social psychology as “the scientific field that seeks to understand *the nature and cause of individual behavior and thought in social situations*”.

The definition given by Gordon Allport is classical one and the definition of Barron and Byrne, is currently considered as working definition of social psychology.

***Social psychology*** *is a scientific in nature because it adopts the values, principles and methods of science in its effort to understand the nature of social behavior and social thought. Thus Social psychology differs from common sense hence it adopts the scientific approach and because common sense provides unreliable (contradictory and inconsistent conclusions) guide to social behavior.*

**Social Psychology Focus on individual Behavior:** The social thoughts and actions are taken by individuals. They might be influenced by the society. *Therefore, most social psychologists focus primarily on understanding how and why individuals behave, think and feel as they do in social situations-one involving the actual or imagined presence of other persons.*

**Social Psychology seeks to Understand Causes of Social Behavior and Thought:** Human social behavior and thoughts are caused by many things. Social psychology would try to understand them. Let’s see some of the important ones:

***Actions and Characteristics of Other Persons:*** We are affected by various actions of others. **For example**, you are standing in the queue/line for a lunch and somebody tries to break the queue. In no time, you would get upset with the person and shout at him. This and many other instances would help you to understand that your behavior is affected by the actions of other individuals. Similarly, certain characteristics of people also change your behavior. **For example**, you are waiting at bus-stop, and you realize that a blind man wants to cross a road. You would quickly move ahead and help him. These and many other physical, psychological and social characteristics of people are responsible for our actions.

***Cognitive Process:*** Our thinking determines what we do in social circumstances. This is studied in the area of social cognitions. Cognition is our thinking process. Our behavior is determined by what we think. That is one reason why two people do not respond to the same situation identically. Since two different people think differently about the situations and social realities, they respond differently.

***Environment:***

The physical world around us to a great extend determines our behavior. Researchers have shown that the temperature is negatively related with individual aggression and irritability. Similar types of questions are also asked in social psychology.

***Cultural Context:***

The culture in which we stay or are born and brought up determines our behavior. **Culture** is sum of values, beliefs, practices, art, language, etc. Every culture has a different belief and value system. **For example,** our decisions would depend on whether we belong to individualistic culture or collectivistic culture. **For instance**, marriage would be decided by individual in individualistic cultures and they are decided by a process of mutual agreement among the family members in collectivistic cultures*.*

***Biological Factors:***

The biological factors influence our social behavior. They can be understood as ***physiological factors*** and ***neurological factors***, ***genetic factors***, and ***evolutionary factors***. The ***physiological factors*** contain hormones, functions of various glands, immune system, motor system, etc. ***The neurological factors*** include the brain structures, the neural cells (neurons), the neurotransmitters, etc. ***The genetic factor*** would contain the study of influence of genes on human behavior. ***The evolutionary psychology*** focuses on explaining the social behavior as a function of process of evolution.

*To sum up social psychology is the science. It qualifies for the definition of science. It focuses on individual behavior in social situations. Social psychology seeks to understand the causes of human social behavior. These causes are characteristics and actions of others, cognitive processes, environmental variables, culture, and biological causes.*

**1.2. Brief Historical Development of Social psychology**

By most standards, social psychology is relatively young science. Social psychology has an interesting history. ✓ *Early critical social philosophers* such as ***Aristotle, Plato and Hegel*** entertained issues that modern social psychology addresses. ✓ However/on the other hand, it can be traced back to the 19th c experiments when ***Le Bon*** theorized ***crowd behavior in 1895***.

Social psychology started as ***“experimental”*** science. Here, history of social psychology is presented with brief historical milestones/landmarks.

**A. *The Early years: 1885-1934* C. The Coming of age: 1935-1945 B. *Rapid Expansion: 1946-1969 D. Crisis and Reassessment: 1970-1984 E. An expanding Global social psychology: 1985- present***

***A. The Early years: 1885-1934*** As a discipline the origin of social psychology traced back to the experiments conducted in **19th C**.

➢ An American psychologist **Norman Triplett** is generally credited with having conducted the ***first empirical social psychological study***. Triplett study on ***Social facilitation*** (1897), ➢ ***William McDougal’sl*** and ***Edward Ross’s*** two separate social psychology text books in 1908, ➢ ***Floyed Allport ‘s*** Social psychology book in 1924 are some early events. inaddition, ➢ ***George H.Mead’s*** Book *Mind, Self and Society* is published in 1934. ***This period had two defining characteristics*** – 1st. the beginning of research, and 2nd .the defining of the field, as several textbooks were written on social psychology.

**C. The Coming of age: 1935-1945**

In these years the ***field grew quickly*** as it tried to understand the **horrors of World War II and Nazi Germany**. Kurt Lewin was a particularly important figure who fled Nazi Germany for the United States during this time. This period can be ***characterized as a period with foundational theories and groundbreaking experiments***.

***Lewin, Lippitt, and White’s*** (1939) three leadership styles test were early important studies in this period.

Lewin trained many famous social psychologists, like, Festinger, Schachter, Deutsch, Kelley, Thibault, etc.

Three Influential Gestalt Psychologists are Kurt Lewin, Solomon Asch, Fritz Heider. Today***, Lewin is considered by many to be the founder of modern social psychology***. **D. *Rapid Expansion: 1946-1969*** This period was ***characterized by a rise in confidence and expansion of research bases***. Studies by:- ✓ ***Milgram*** *on obedience*, ✓ **Adron’s** study on Authoroterian personality*,* ✓ ***Solomon Asch’s*** *study on Conformity*, ✓ **Festinger** studies on cognitive dissonance and social comparisons, ✓ **Heider’s** work on balance theory and attribution theory dominated 1940’s and late 1950’s.

***Muzafir Sherif (1936)*** studies on development of norms,

***Lewin's*** field theory (1935), and

In the decade of 1960’s Stereotyping and Prejudice, School Desegregation, Aggression, Altrusim, Bystander Intervention, Interpersonal Relations, Attraction, became topics of modern research.

**E. *Crisis and Reassessment: 1970-1984*** By 1970s, social psychology faced the crisis due to:- ❖ Failure in solving social problems, ❖ Questioning on usefulness and ethics of experimental research, and ❖ Bias of minorities and women in research.

This period is best ***characterized by questioning and debate***. This crisis put social psychologists to reassess their filed and to develop more inclusive social psychology. More rigorous/exact ethical standards were established, other research methods to support experimental method were used. Regarding racial and gender biases social psychology began moving forward to responsible positions.

In research and theory; the decade of 1970’s saw the emergence of ***Kahneman Tversky model of heuristics***, ***models of schemas*** and ***increasing cognitive trends***.

**F. *An expanding Global social psychology: 1985- present***

After 1985 social psychologies become more international in its focus with development of social psychology all over the world ***even if its center is US and Europe***. Social psychology tries to understand social reality of third world beyond US and European world and emphasized on intergroup and social variables in explaining social behavior. This period saw the birth of a new subfield, ***social cognition,*** and *greater international and cultural perspectives in social psychology*.

This period can be seen as a ***time of pluralism*** (existence of different group in society) and ***redefinition***

**1.3. Social Psychology’s Relation to Other Fields of Inquiry** Social psychology’s focus on social behavior is shared by several other disciplines in the social sciences, including *personality psychology*, *Sociology*, *Cognitive psychology* and *clinical psychology*. 1. **Social psychology and sociology:** Both study social behavior and recognize environmental (culture, social norms) influences on social behavior. Social psychology is different from sociology in that it focuses on the individual level rather than the group level of analysis. Both are different in level of analysis. Sociology focuses on societal social structures and customs of groups where as social psychology individual affect, cognition, behavior influencing interactions with other people and groups.

2. **Social psychology and Clinical psychology:** Both, hence they are branches of psychology, have *similar background and level of analysis*. Social psychology is different from clinical psychology in that it is primarily concerned with the *typical ways that people think, feel,* and behave and is ***less concerned*** with diagnosis and treatment people who have psychological difficulties and disorders. 3. **Social psychology and Personality psychology:** Personality psychology emphasizes on personal psychological processes, personality traits, and individual differences between people. Social psychology is different from personality psychology in that it is less concerned with individual differences between people that are consistent across situations. 4. **Social psychology and Cognitive psychology:** Cognitive psychology is concerned with individual cognitive processes. Social psychology is different from cognitive psychology in that it is more concerned with how thinking, learning, remembering, and reasoning are relevant to social behavior. Social psychologists are generally interested in study of how individuals think, feel, and behave in regard to other people and how individuals’ thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are affected by other people. Social psychology continually borrows different ideas from different fields of study.

**1.4. Major Theories in Social psychology**

**Theory** is an interrelated set’s of concepts and propositions, organized into a deductive system to explain relationships about certain aspects of the social phenomenon. Theories involve attempts to understand why certain events or processes occur as they do. Pinpointing the importance of theory, ***Kurt Lewin*** (an important influence on social psychology) once said “***There's nothing so useful as a good theory." Theories*** help to connect and organize existing observation and provide fruitful paths for future research. In the following sections, we introduce some of the major contemporary theories in social psychology.

**1. Psychodynamic theory** The Viennese neurologist and psychologist Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) pioneered/***founded*** the psychoanalytic perspective. Psychoanalytic, view of human motivation emphasizes the importance of a few powerful inborn impulses or drives, especially those that are associated with ***sexuality and aggression***. *According to Freud*, all behavior whether normal or abnormal is influenced by the **unconscious *mind***. This belief is called ***psychic determinism***. They ***cannot*** be directly studied through ***introspection*,** asking the person to describe what was going on in his/her mind. In

contrast, social psychologists consider a much more diverse range of human needs and desires. Social psychologists also emphasize ways in which specific situations and social relationships can create and arouse needs and motives. The core idea is that situations can create or arouse needs that, in turn, lead people to engage in behaviors to reduce those needs. **2. Learning/Behavioral theories** The central idea in learning theory is that ***a person's current*** behavior is determined by **prior experience**. In any given situation, a person learns certain behaviors that over time may become habits. When presented with a similar situation, the person tends to behave in the same habitual way. There are three general mechanisms by which learning occurs: One is association, or classical conditioning; instrumental learning which focus on the role reinforcement and rewards in learning and social/observational learning.

The most important mechanism is observational learning. People often learn social attitudes and behaviors simply by watching other people, known technically as ***"models." Modeling*** involves ***imitating or coping*** the behavior of the others. In observational learning, other people are an important source of information. Observational learning can ***occur without any external reinforcement***. However, whether people actually perform a behavior that is learned through observation is influenced by the consequences the action has for them. ***Imitation, or modeling***, occurs when a ***person not only*** observes but actually copies the behavior of a model. For instance, aggression can be learned from violent TV shows.

**3. Cognitive theories** The cognitive approach emphasizes that ***a person's behavior depends on the way he or she perceives the social situation***. Kurt Lewin applied Gestalt ideas to social psychology, emphasizing the importance of the social environment as perceived by the individual. In Lewin's view, behavior is affected both by the individual's personal characteristics (such as ability, personality, and genetic dispositions) and by the social environment as he or she perceives it. As social thinkers, we try to arrive at meaningful interpretations of how people feel, what they want, what kinds of people they are, and so forth. Research on social cognition focuses on how we put together information about people, social situations, and groups to make inferences about them. Social cognition researchers examine the flow of information from the environment to the person. The prominent cognitive theory is Lewin’s **Field Theory.** Kurt Lewin (1890- 1947) was a famous, charismatic psychologist who is now viewed as the father of social psychology. Lewin viewed the social environment as a

dynamic field which impacted in an interactive way with human consciousness. Lewin was well known for his terms **"life space" and "field theory**". *He was perhaps even better known for practical use of his theories in studying group dynamics, solving social problems related to prejudice, and group therapy*. For Kurt Lewin *behavior was determined by totality of an individual situation.* In his field theory, a field is defined as the totality of coexisting facts which are conceived of as mutually interdependent. Individuals were seen to behave differently according to the way in which tensions between perceptions of the self and of the environment were worked through. The field theory is the "proposition that human behavior is the function of both the person and the environment: expressed in symbolic terms, **B = f (P, E)."** This means that one’s behavior is related both to one’s personal characteristics and to the social situation in which one finds oneself. The field theory may seem obvious to us now, but most early psychologist did not believe in behaviorism. **In general,** the emphasis of field theory is on the relatedness of the individual with the environment. *Understanding of a person involves: Past experience, Present situations, Present attitudes, capabilities of the individual etc.* 4. **Social exchange Theory**

Social exchange theory analyzes interpersonal interaction on the basis of the **costs and benefits** to each person of the possible ways he or she can interact. This theory emphasizes the idea that, in relatively free societies, social action is the result of personal choice between optimal benefits and costs. Sometimes people make explicit exchanges. Most of the time, exchange operates with in cultural norms .It is social marketing in which people exchange information about social, economical and psychological aspects. This allows them to consider alternative, more profitable situations relative to their present condition. Social exchange creates benefits (information, smiles of approval, money, feelings of being loved, etc.) and costs (boredom, disapproval, and feelings of being misunderstood, etc.) for the people involved.

5. **Symbolic Inter-actonism Theory**

Symbolic inter-actionists drawn much of their idea from American sociologists George Herbert **Mead**, Charles Horton **Cooley**, and Herbert **Blumer**( who coined the term symbolic inter-actionism). The theory is concerned with how the self develops, the **meaning** people attach to their own and others action, how people learn these meanings and how meanings evolve. They said that we learn meanings from others and adjust ourselves according to those meanings. Meanings are subject to change. The symbolic interaction paradigm is a theoretical frame work based on the assumption that society is the product of the everyday interaction of

individuals. This approach is primarily concerned with human behavior on a personal level. Inter-actionists reminded us that the different social institutions are ultimately created, maintained, and changed by people interacting with one another. George Herbert Mead devised a symbolic interaction approach that focuses on signs, gestures, shared rules and written and spoken languages.

***Symbols play*** an important role in interaction according to the symbolic inter-actionist perspective. ***A symbol*** is “any kind of physical phenomena- word, object, color, sound, feeling, odor, movement, or taste-to which people attach a name, meaning or value” (White, 1949 cited in Ferrante, 2006). Symbols are shared by people and used to communicate with one another.

**Symbolic inter-actionism** is concerned with the meanings that people place on another behavior. Human beings are unique because most of what they do with one another has meaning beyond the concrete act. According to Mead people do not act or react automatically but carefully consider what they are going to do. They take into account the other people involved and the situation in which they found themselves. The expectations and interactions of other people greatly affect each individual’s actions in addition; people give things meanings and act or react on the bases of these meanings. Because most human activity take place in social situations in the presence of other people, we must fit what we as individuals do with other people in the same situation are doing. We go about our lives under the assumption that most people share our definition of basic social situations.

Cooley, in his theory of a "looking glass self," argued that the way we think about ourselves is particularly apt/*right, appropriate* to be a reflection of other people's appraisals (or more accurately, our imagining of other people's appraisals) and that our self-concepts are built up in the intimate groups that he called "primary groups." 6. **Social Role Theory**

This theory grew out of socio cultural perspective which recognizes that social backgrounds influence their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. Considers most social action in everyday life to be the fulfillment of a certain kind of schema called **roles.** The term social role refers to the set of norms that apply to people in a particular position, such as teachers, students, husband, wife, child. According to this theory people behave in response to expectation to the role they occupy. One perspective on social roles uses imagery borrowed from the theater. The individual acting in society is like an actor in a play. In the theater, the script sets the stage, defines the role that each actor will play, and dictates what actors say and

do. Similarly, cultures present us with many pre-established social rules of behavior. In marriage, traditional roles prescribe that the husband should be the ***breadwinner*** and the wife should be in charge of child care and housekeeping. **7. Evolutionary Social Psychology**

The emerging field of evolutionary social psychology applies the principles of evolution and natural selection to the understanding of human behavior and social life. Evolutionary social psychology draws on ideas that were initially advanced by Charles Darwin and later elaborated by biologists to explain social behavior. Evolutionary approaches emphasize the shared human qualities that are part of our heritage as a species.

In the distant past, some behavioral tendencies increased the chances of survival among our ancestors. Many of the behavioral tendencies that we see in humans today are the end products of the history of natural selection in our species.

**Several ideas are central to evolutionary social psychology**

1. Many human tendencies and preferences are the result of natural selection. These are known as evolved psychological mechanisms. 'They can be seen as adaptive responses to specific problems that were encountered by our ancestors. Thus, a fear of snakes may have solved the problem of avoiding a dangerous hazard in the environment. 2. All human behavior reflects the joint influence of internal psychological dispositions (including evolved psychological mechanisms) and external situational demands. People are biological organisms that act in specific social contexts; both biological and social influences on behavior are important. 3. Some of the most important problems faced by our ancestors were social in nature. Humans are born and spend their lives in interdependent social groups. Consequently, many evolved psychological mechanisms have to do with relating to other people. These include a need for belonging and fear of ostracism by the group, an ability to cooperate with others, and a will- ingness to invest resources in one's children.

1.6. **Research Methods in social psychology**

Research methods are the backbone of any scientific information. To understand the subject matter in social psychology, insight in to the research methods is of considerable help. Research helps us to develop insight in to the social psychological issue. Following are some basic methods employed in social psychological research.

*Theories*

Research is the systematic process of collecting, organizing and analyzing information to solve practical problems, to discover new ideas and to evaluate implemented programs. Research is systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of natural behavior and social situations.

Regardless of the problem type the general methods employed in research are: ✶ Identifying and clearly stating the problem; ✶ Generating hypothesis; ✶ Deciding the research procedure; ✶ Decide the type of data ✶ Gather the Data; ✶ Analyze the data by means of statistical techniques. ✶ Conclusion and recommandations. **Classifications of research**: Research can be classified interims of:

**1.Goals** A. Basic/pure B. Applied research

**2. Specific objectives of research**

A. descriptive B. Explanatory C. Exploratory

**3. Approaches of research** A. Qualitative B. Quantitative

**4. Research Design** A. Experimental B. Non-experimental

**5. Type of data used in research** A. Primary B. Secondary

**6. Field of study:** Natural science research, Social science research , Educational science research , Behavioral science research , Health science research

**1. The experimental method**

Experiment - a deliberate manipulation of a variable to see if corresponding changes in behavior result, allowing the determination of cause-and-effect relationships. **A variable** is something that undergoes changes. Independent variable (IV) - variable in an experiment that is manipulated by the experimenter. Dependent variable (DV) - variable in an experiment that represents the measurable response or behavior of the subjects in the experiment. Experimental group - subjects in an experiment who are subjected to the independent variable.

Control group - subjects in an experiment who are not subjected to the independent variable and who may receive a placebo treatment (controls for confounding variables). Random assignment - process of assigning subjects to the experimental or control groups randomly, so that each subject has an equal chance of being in either group. Controls for confounding (extraneous, interfering) variables. **Advantages:** the experimental method enables to rule out all influences on the subject’s behavior except the factors being considered and to make influences based on objective findings. **Limitations**: ruling out extraneous influences sometimes makes the situation so unnatural that behaviors shown during the experiment may not resemble its counterpart in daily life.

**2. Correlation research** Correlation - a measure of the relationship between two variables. Variable - anything that can change or vary. Measures of two variables go into a mathematical formula and produce a *correlation coefficient (r)*, which represents two things: Direction of the relationship. Strength of the relationship. Knowing the value of one variable allows researchers to predict the value of the other variable. Correlation coefficient ranges from –1.00 to +1.00. Closer to 1.00 or -1.00, the stronger the relationship between the variables. No correlation = 0.0. Perfect correlation = -1.00 OR +1.00. Positive correlation – variables are related in the same direction. As one increases, the other increases; as one decreases, the other decreases. Negative correlation – variables are related in opposite direction. As one increases, the other decreases.

**Examples:** socioeconomic status **versus** years of schooling (the direction is positive) ☞ Musical ability **versus** tone deafness (the direction is negative) ☞ Eye color **versus** education (usually no correlation)

**Advantages:** It corresponds to daily life. When practical or ethical questions do not permit the use of experimental method we can use correlation studies. **Limitations:** Since variables are manipulated by life+- not in the lab, it is impossible to control other factors that might affect the outcome.

**CORRELATION DOES NOT PROVE CAUSATION!!! 3. The survey method** It is a method of getting information regarding peoples’ characteristics attitudes, opinions or behavior by asking them all the same question. **Example:** the central statistical office (CSO) conducts a large-scale survey. It enables to establish the size, distribution and characteristics of the population. **Advantages:** Survey research tells us a great deal about people. Questioning every household produces accurate information. But completeness is beyond the budget, staff and time of the psychologist. Hence, sample of individuals are queried. Survey methods are often used alone. But sometimes they are used in connection with experiments. Survey can be Oral (interview) or written (questionnaire). Ш Interview: allows the investigator to see the subjects. Ш Questionnaire: it takes less time to administer. Its advantage is to gather information from a large number of people.

**Limitation:** People sometimes give misleading answers either deliberately or accidentally; particularly if the concern is a touching area, such as sex, money or race relations. One-way to control this problem is by including several differently worded questions on the same topic. **4. Naturalistic observation** It is a method used to collect data by observing the overt behavior of an individual. Suppose we want to study whether men and women smile at each other more in a supermarket or at a car wash. The above methods all tell us nothing. To answer this question we have to visit a number of supermarkets and car washes and observe men and women. In naturalistic observation the observer is: ❖ Passive; ❖ Unobserved; ❖ Does not intrude the situation being studied. **Advantage:** It is directly applicable to daily life and people are more likely to behave normally in such settings than in a laboratory. **Limitation:** the observer has no control over any of the variables. **Solution**: observing children from behind a one-way mirror without being recognizes can solve the problem of the effect of the observer.

Sometimes participant observation can be used. Members of a research team actually join an existing group to record events and impressions that are accessible only to group of members. To make observational research valid: ✶ Develop ways of recording data that avoid the problems of subjective interpretation. ✶ Develop explicit rules for categorizing and recording what thew observer sees, so that two observers can come up with comparable results.

**Ethics in Research**

Ethics in social psychological research deals with seeking an appropriate balance between the quest for knowledge and the rights of individuals. A. **Deception** involves efforts by researchers to withhold information about experimental conditions; it is because, many social psychologists believe that if participants know the true purpose of an investigation then their behavior will be changed by that knowledge. Social psychologists use one unique technique in research process, However, the use of deception raises important ethical issues, which are worth considering.

First, deception may result in some kind of harm to the persons/participants participated in it. Participants may be upset/

disappointed with the procedure used, or by their own reaction, which they have given during experimental procedure.

There are two opinions on it. First, deception is inappropriate, no matter how useful it is. Second, majority believes that temporary deception is acceptable if certain safeguards are adopted like **informed consent** and **debriefing.**

**Informed consent** receiving as much information as possible about the procedure to be followed before making their decision to take part in a study where as

**Debriefing** is they should receive a full explanation of all the study at the end of study. Some important guiding principles for use of deception are as follows:

1. Use deception only when it is essential to do so-when no other means for conducting a study exist; 2. Always proceed with great caution; and 3. Make certain that every possible precaution is taken to protect the rights, safety, and welfare of research participants

**Chapter Two: Socialization**

**2.1. Definition of Socialization**

**Socialization** is the way in which people learn culture of a society to conform to their society’s norms, values and roles. People develop their own unique personalities as the result of the learning they gain from parents, relatives, peers, teachers and all other people who influence their behavior throughout their lives. People learn to behave according to their culture. Socialization is the process, not an action, by which people learn the characteristics of their group, the attitudes, values and action thought appropriate for them. ***Socialization is different*** based on race, gender and class.

**Socialization** generally refers to the process in which people learn the skills, knowledge, values, motives, and roles (i.e., **culture**) of the society. Socialization is seen as society's principal mechanism for influencing the development of character and behavior. Most sociologists and psychologists treat socialization "as a cornerstone both for the maintenance of society and for the well-being of the individual".

**Socialization occurs throughout** life as the individual learns new norms in new groups and institutions. It is a lifelong process. It is the process which continues through the whole **life courses** including child hood, adolescence, adulthood, and finally, old age.

**A. Childhood** (from birth to about age 12): The concept of child is rooted in culture. It is the time when young people learn the skills they will need but do not engage in work. Family teaches children norms and values.

**B. Adolescence(from about age 13-17)**: Is a buffer between childhood and adult hood we generally link adolescence or the teenage years with emotional and social turmoil as parents spar with young people trying to develop their own identities.

Adolescence varies according to *social background* most young people from working- class families move right from high school to the adult world of work and parenting. Weal their teens, however, have the resources to attend college and perhaps graduate school, there by stretching adolescence to the late twenties and even the thirties. Adolescents develop a sub-culture with distinctive clothing, hairstyles, language, gesture and music. **C. Adulthood**: Is the time of life when most accomplishments occur. This can be divided into:

I. Young Adulthood (about ages 18-29): time free from responsibilities

II. The middle Years (about age 30-64): take adult responsibilities and learn a lot of things in life.

III. Old age: is the final stage of life cycle and begins about the mid-sixties

**2.2. Goals of socialization**

In terms of individual persons, the goal of socialization is to equip him or her with the basic values, norms, skills, etc, so that they will behave and act properly in the social group to which they belong. ***Commonly, scholars outlined what he believes to be the three goals of socialization***:

❖ Impulse control and the development of a conscience/sense of right

and wrong ❖ Role preparation and performance, including occupational roles, gender roles, and roles in institutions such as marriage and parenthood ❖ The cultivation of sources of meaning, or what is important, valued,

and to be lived for

Therefore the **consequences socialization**

✓ establishes self-concepts, ✓ Creates the capacity for role taking, ✓ Creates the tendency for people to act in socially acceptable ways ✓ make people bearers of culture

**Patterns of Socialization** There are two broadly classified patterns of socialization. These are: **Repressive** and **participatory** socialization. Repressive socialization is oriented towards gaining obedience, while participatory socialization is oriented towards gaining the participation of the child. Punishment of wrong behavior and rewarding and reinforcing good behavior are involved in the two kinds of socialization, respectively. **2.3. Major Types of Socialization**

Socialization is a life process. There are different types of socialization; the major ones include: **primary** or **childhood** socialization, **secondary** or **adulthood** socialization. In addition there are minor types of socialization like **anticipatory socialization and re-socialization**.

**2.3.1. Primary Socialization**

Primary socialization is also called childhood socialization/**basic** or **early** socialization, takes place early in life as child and adolescent. Primary socialization is the stage at which the newborn individual is molded into a social being. This occurs within the family and other intimate groups in child’s social environment. It is landmark or foundation at which biological infant is changed in to social being and much of personality make-up of individuals is founded. 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.

**2.3.2. Secondary Socialization**

***Secondary socialization***, also called adult socialization, occurs in later childhood and adolescence, when the child enters school and comes under the influence of adults and peers outside the household and immediate family. Secondary socialization is necessitated when individual take up new roles, reorienting themselves according to their changes social statuses and roles, as in starting marital life. Hence socialization is social process; secondary socialization takes place throughout ones life.

**2.3.3. Anticipatory socialization and re-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.

***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. Re-socialization 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. Re-socialization often takes place in what is called **total institutions,** which are an all encompassing and often isolated from the community. ***For instance***, prisons and mental health institutions are designed to re-socialize the people who are deemed to have not been successfully socialized. Re-socialization is necessary when children were unsuccessful in early socialization

**Human behavior: Is it nature or nurtured?**

How much of people’s characteristic comes from “nature” (heredity) and how much from “nurture” (the social environment, contact with other)?

**2.4. Theories of socialization**

**2.4.1. Cooley and the looking Glass self**

Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929), who was a symbolic interactionist, concluded that this unique aspect of humanness called the **‘self** ‘ is **socially created**; that is, our sense of self develops from interaction with others. He coined the term the looking glass self (1902) to describe the process by which a sense of self develops. *In social interaction we evaluate others and evaluated by others* and develop the self-concept.

The looking glass self is the process by which our-self develops through internalizing other reaction to us. **Self is the unique human capacity** of **being able to see ourselves** “from the outside”; the picture we gain of how others see us. The looking glass self contains **three elements**;

1. We imagine how we appear/*come into view/show* to those around us, **for example;** we may think that others see us witty/sharp or dull. 2. We interpret others reactions. We come to conclusions about how others evaluate us. Do they dislike us for being dull? 3. We develop a self-concept. Based on our interpretations of the reaction of others, we develop feelings and ideas about ourselves.

The development of the self starts at early age and continues up to the death of individual. The development of the self-concept does **not always** depend on accurate evaluation. Misjudgments have also a role in the development of the self.

**2.4.2. Mead and Role Taking**

George Herbert Mead (1863-1931), who was another symbolic interactionist, also contributed a lot to the concept of the development of the self. Mead said that in play children learn to take the role of the other, that is, to put themselves in someone else's shoes- to understand how someone else feels and thinks and to anticipate how that person will act. He called this Role Taking. At the early ages, children are able to take only the role of ***significant others***-individuals who significantly influence their lives, such as parents or siblings.

As self gradually develops, children internalize the expectation of large members of people. The ability to take on roles eventually extends to being able to take the role of an abstract entity, the group as a whole. To this, our perception of how people in general think of us, Mead gave the term ***generalized other*.** Taking the role of the other is essential if we are to become cooperative members of human groups-whether the family, peers or work. It is when we engage in interaction with that our behavior is influenced and influence other. Learning to take the role of the other goes through three stages

1 Imitation: children under age 3 do not yet have a sense of self separate from other and they can only imitate people's gestures and words. This stage is not actually role taking but prepares the child for it. 2 Play: children from 3 to 5 or 6 age pretend to take the role of specific people (significant others). 3 Games: at this stage, organized play or team game begins roughly with the early school years. The significance of the self is that to play these games the individual must be able to take multiple roles.

Mead also distinguished between the ‘I’ and the ‘Me’ in the development of the self. The ‘I’ is the self as subject, the active spontaneous creative part of the self. In contrast, the ‘me’ is the self as object, made up of attitudes internalized from our interaction with others. The **‘I’ is the active agent** while the ‘**me’ is the object action**. Mead said that the individual is not only a ‘me’ that absorbs the responses of others. Rather the ‘I’ actively makes sense of those responses. By this Mead meant that we our (‘I’) react to our social environment: we evaluate the reactions of others and organize them into a unified whole. Mead added that the ‘I’ even monitor the ‘me’ fine-tuning our action to help us between matches what other expected of us. Mead drew a conclusion that not only the self but also the human mind is the social product.

**2.4.3. Vygotsky and the Development of Thinking**

Vygotsky conducted a research **that supports Mead’s position**. He noticed that pre- school children often talk to themselves (the child development of specialties call this “self-directed speech”). When He (1995) set up an obstacle such as not providing paper or a pencil for a child who was getting ready to draw, the child’s self- directed speech increased. Where’s the pencil. I need a blue pencil. Never mind I will draw with a red one. Children of school age, in contrast, when confronted with similar problems, would pause in their activities. After scrutinizing the matter they would find a solution. When asked what they had been thinking during their pause, those children gave answers that paralleled what the

younger children had spoken out loud. The older children did not talk aloud about the problem (self- directed speech) because she\ he is internalizing society’s ideas. Thinking, which he called is soundless - inner speech is our individual use of the symbols we learn from society. Vygotsky, then, come to the same conclusion as Mead, thinking, or Mind is a social product.

**2.4.4. Piaget and the Development of Reasoning Skills**

Reasoning ability is essential to human mind. A Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget (1896-1990), raised a question how do we learn this skill? He conducted a research on children and concluded that children go through four stages as they development their ability to reason:

1. The sensorimotor stage (from birth to about age 2) ➢ Infant’s understanding is limited to direct contact with the environment- sucking touching, listening, seeing, etc ➢ they do not even know that their bodies are separate from their environment ➢ They do not recognize cause and effects, i.e. they do not know that their action cause something to happen. ➢ They have yet discovered that they have toes.

2. The preoperational stage (from about age 2 to age7)

➢ Develop the ability to use symbols. ➢ Do not understand common concepts: size, speed, causation, numbers (although they count). ➢ Nor do they yet have the ability to take the role of others.

3. The concrete operational stage (from the age of about 7 to 12) i. -Reasoning abilities more developed but they remain concrete ii. Understand number, causation and speed iii. able to take the role of the other and participate in team games iv. Without concrete example, however, they are unable to talk about

such concept as truth, justice, liberty, etc. 4. *.* The formal Operational stage (after the age of about 12)

Children are now capability of abstract thinking. Without concrete examples, they can talk about concepts (such as truth, justice, liberty, etc.), come to conclusions based on general principles, and use rules to solve abstract problems. During this stage they are likely to become young philosophers (kagan, 1984).

**Conclusion -** Cooley’s conclusion about the looking glass self and Mead’s conclusion about role taking and mind as a social product appear to be universal. However, there is less agreement on piaget’s four stages. Some researchers for example, suggest that the stages are exaggerated that children develop reasoning skills much more gradually than piaget concluded (Berk, 1994; Divers stamnes and Thomas, 1995).

**2.4.5. Freud and the Development of personality**

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), who found psychoanalysis, a technique for treating emotional problems through long term, intensive exploration of subconscious mind said that human personality consists of three elements.

1. Id. Freud’s term for inborn derives for self-gratification. The id of the newborn is evident in crises of hunger or pain .The pleasure seeking id operates throughout life, demanding the immediate fulfillment of basic needs; attentions, safety, food, sex, aggression, etc. The id runs directly against the need of other people, society. 2. Ego: Ego emerges as the child comes up against the norms and other constraints usually represented by the family and blocks his\ her desires. Ego helps to adapt to these constraints. It is the balancing force between the id and demands of society that suppress it. 3. Superego (conscience) represents culture within us; the norms and the values that we have internalized from our social groups. The superego gives us feeling of guilt or shame when we break social rules, or pride and self satisfaction when we follow them.

Freud argued that when the id gets out of hind, we follow our desires for pleasure and break society’s norms; when the superego gets out of hand, we become overly rigid in following the norms finding ourselves bound in straightjacket of rules that inhibit ourselves. Ego tries to prevent either the id or superego from dominating. Self is the result of tension between Id and super ego.

**2.5. Agents of Socialization**

Agents of socialization are persons, groups, or institutions along with their interactions that influence a person’s social development throughout his/ her lifetime. Within all agencies of socialization numerous processes shape and reshape the individual’s social development. Among these are direct instructions, imitation or modeling of behaviors, and reinforcement of particular behavior (e.g. through rewards or punishment).

**Some of agents of socialization**

**i. *The Family***

*The family* is the first group to have major impact on human behavior .The family is the most important agent of socialization in all societies. The initial love and nurturance we receive from our families are essential to normal cognitive, emotional, and physical development. Furthermore, our parents are our first teachers. The family gives us ideas about who we are and what we deserve out of life. From infancy, our families transmit cultural and social values to us.

Functionalist emphasize that families are the primary locus for the procreation and socialization of children in industrialized nations. Most of us form an emerging sense of self and acquire most of our beliefs and values within the family context. Families also are the primary source of emotional support. Ideally, people receive love, understanding, security, acceptance, intimacy, and companionship within families. The role of the family is especially significant because young children have little social experience beyond its boundaries; they have no basis for comparison or for evaluating how they are treated by their own family.

To a large extent, the family is where we acquire our specific social position in society. From birth, we are a part of the specific ethnic, economic, religious, and regional sub cultural grouping of our family.

ii. ***Religion:***

Religion influences morality, becoming component in people ideas of right and wrong .The religious a service teaches us not only believes but also ideas about the dress, speech and manners appropriate for formal occasions.

iii. ***Schools****:*

Transmit formal knowledge and skills- reading, writing, arithmetic, etc or what is called manifest function. Manifest function is the intend consequence of people’s actions designed to help some part of social system. Schools have also latent function. Latent function is the untended consequence of people’s actions that help to keep a social system in equilibrium. The latent function of education is not visible. Schools teach specific knowledge and skills; they also have a profound effect on children’s self-image, beliefs, and values. As children enter school for the first time, they are evaluated and systematically compared with one another by the teacher. SA permanent, official record is kept of each

child’s personal behavior and academic activities. Regardless of whether we see the educational process as positive or negative in its consequences, schools clearly do expand children’s horizons beyond their family and immediate neighborhood.

**iv. Law/government**

At home children learn attitudes and values that match their families' situation in life. At school, they learn a broader perspective that helps prepare them to take the role in the world beyond the family. Schools expose children to peer groups, widen social interaction).

V .**Peer groups**: individual of the some age who are linked with common interests. The peer group influences very much the behavior of the member. For instance, if your peer group prefers hard working, you can also prefer working hard.

**Vi. Sports** are also powerful socializing agents. Sports teach physical skills and values- team play, sprite of competitions, hard working, etc.

Vii. **The work place**: organization has rules and regulations that govern the behavior of workers and general operation. Individuals that join that organization learn these rules and regulation.

**Viii. Mass media**

An agent of socialization that has a profound impact on both children and adult is the mass media, comprised of large-scale organizations that us print or electronic means such as radio, television, or film to communicate with large numbers of people. The media function as socializing agents in several ways: (1) they inform us about events, (2) they introduce us to a wide variety of people, (3) they provide an array of view points on current issues, (4) they make us aware of products and services that, if we purchase them, supposedly will help us to be accepted by others, and (5) they entertain us by providing the opportunity to live vicariously (through other people’s experiences).

**Chapter Three**

**Impression Formation and Attribution**

**3.1. Impression formation**

Impression formation and impression management are two important topics within social perception. They are concerned with ways in which we influence others and help them to form impressions about ourselves. We also behave in ways so as to alter other’s perception, generally in more positive ways towards ourselves.

***Impression Formation:*** Impression Formation is the process through which we develop our beliefs and evaluations of other people. It refers to the process through which we combine diverse information about other persons into a united impression of them. Forming impressions about others is an elaborate cognitive process. The initial or first impressions about others are very important. It is rightly said that the “First impression is the last impression”. Once an impression is formed, it is generally resistant to change. Thus, it is necessary to be careful on first dates, interviews and other situations in which we will meet others for the first time.

**Impression management** people’s use of various strategies to get other people to view them in a positive light, it is likened to theatre, where people play different roles for different audiences.

**Self-presentation** a deliberate effort to act in ways that create a particular impression, usually favourable, of ourselves Two motives for self-presentation: **strategic and expressive.**

**Five Strategic of self-presentation**

1. Self-promotion – trying to persuade others that you are competent;

2. Ingratiation – trying to get others to like you;

3. Intimidation – trying to get others to think you are dangerous;

4. Exemplification – trying to get others to regard you as a morally respectable individual;

5. Supplication – trying to get others to take pity on you as helpless and needy.

The process through which we seek information about others is known as ***social perception***. **Social perception** is defined as the study of how we form impressions of and make inferences about other people. In order to know about other people, we depend on information gained from their physical appearance, and verbal and nonverbal communication.

➢ **Nonverbal** communication refers to the communication and interpretation of information by any means other than language. Nonverbal communication includes communication through any behavioral or expressive channel of communication such as facial expression, bodily movements, vocal tone and pitch, and many other channels. **Types of non verbal communication**

1) **Facial Expression** this makes up the largest proportion of nonverbal communication. Large amounts of information can be conveyed through a smile or frown. The facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, and fear are similar across cultures throughout the world.

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

**3) Paralinguistic's** This includes factors such as tone of voice, loudness, inflection, and pitch. Tone of voice can be powerful. The same sentence said in different tones can convey different messages. A strong tone of voice may indicate approval or enthusiasm, whereas the same sentence said with a hesitant tone of voice may convey disapproval or lack of interest. Vocal Behaviors such as pitch, inflection, volume, rate, filler words, pronunciation, articulation, accent, and silence, often reveal considerable information about others.

**4. Body Language and Posture** A person’s posture and movement can also convey a great deal of information. Arm crossing or leg-crossing conveys different meanings depending on the context and the person interpreting them. Body language is very subtle, and may not be very definitive.

**5. Eye Gaze** Looking, staring, and blinking are all considered types of eye gaze. Looking at another person can indicate a range of emotions including hostility, interest, or attraction. Eye behaviors- plays a role in several important types of relational interaction

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

Large number of research studies have shown that first impression do seem to exert a lasting effect on both, social thought and social behavior.

Solomon Asch (1946) did pioneering studies in the areas of Impression formation. He was heavily influenced by the work of Gestalt Psychologists, who believed that “the whole is greater than the sum of its parts”. Like Gestalt Psychologists, Solomon Asch held the view that we do not form impression simply by adding together all of the traits we observe in other persons. Rather, we perceive these traits in relation to one another, so that the traits cease to exist individually and become, instead, part of an integrated, dynamic whole. Asch studied impression formation by using a simple method. He gave individuals lists of traits supposedly possessed by a stranger, and then asked them to indicate their impression of this person by checking the traits on a long list that they felt fit with their impression of the stranger.

In one of his study participants were given the following two lists.

• Intelligent - skilful – industrious - **warm** – determined – practical cautious.

• Intelligent – skilful - industrious - **cold -** determined – practical - cautious.

The above lists differed only with respect to two words: warm and cold. Thus, if people form impressions merely by adding together individual traits, the impression formed by persons exposed to these lists would not differ very much. The results of his study revealed that persons who read the list containing “warm” were much more likely to view the stranger as generous, happy, good natured, sociable, popular, and altruistic than were people who read the list containing “cold.”

HOW QUICKLY ARE FIRST IMPRESSIONS FORMED? AND THE ROLE OF SCHEMAS IN SHAPING FIRST IMPRESSIONS

**Implicit Personality Theories: Schemas that Shape First Impressions:** Implicit personality theories are beliefs about what traits or characteristics are assumed to go together. For example, if someone describes a person as “helpful” and “kind” we would also assume him/her to be sincere. Similarly, if our friend describes a stranger as “practical” and “intelligent” person, we would also assume him/her to be

ambitious. This is largely due to the schema we hold about people and or events.

**Cognitive approaches to impression formation**

The term cognitive means perception, thinking, reasoning and other related mental processes. Impression formation is a cognitive process in which we combine available information about others into a weighted average in which each piece of information about another person is weighted in terms of its relative importance. The various factors that influence the relative weight age are as follows. **1. The Sources of Input:** The information from sources we trust or admire is weighted more heavily than information from sources we distrust (Rosenbaum and Levin, 1969) **2. Positive and Negative Nature of Information:** We tend to weight negative information about others more heavily than positive information. **3. Unusual or Extreme Behavior:** The information that describes behavior or traits that are unusual or extreme are more valued and weighted. **4. Primacy Effect:** Information received first tends to be weighted more heavily than information received later.

Modern investigators have attempted to understand impression formation in terms of the basic knowledge of **Social Cognition** i.e., the ways in which we notice, store, remember and integrate social information. According to cognitive view our basic ideas about how impressions are formed and changed is influenced by two factors: Exemplars of the trait and mental summaries that are abstracted from repeated observations of other’s behaviours. We would discuss each of these briefly.

• **Exemplars:** It refers to concrete examples of behaviour other have performed that are consistent with a given traits. According to this view when we make judgements about others, we recall examples of their behaviour and base our judgement (and our impressions) on these.

• **Abstractions**: It refers to mental summaries that are abstracted from repeated observations of other‘s behaviour. According to this view when we make judgement about others we simply bring our previously formed.

**3.2. The meaning of attribution**

**Attribution** refers to the thought processes in explanation for the cause of an event or behavior of other people and our own as well.

People try to understand each other by attributing the causes of their behavior to personal factors or situational factors.

**Theories of Attribution**

Attribution theory explains how individuals pinpoint/***locate*** the causes of their own behavior and that of others. We are preoccupied with seeking, constructing and testing explanations of our experiences and to render it orderly, meaningful and predictable for adaptive action.

**A. Fritz Heider’s Attribution Theory :-** Fritz Heider is considered as the father of attribution theory. He believed that people are like amateur scientists, trying to understand other people’s behavior by piecing together information until they arrive at a reasonable cause. He proposed a simple dichotomy for people’s explanations: ***Internal*** versus ***external*** attribution People "attribute" (associate) others' behaviors with their internal/*dispositional* or external/*situations factors.*

***For instance,*** A person that always smiles at a party might give the impression to others that he is a happy guy (***internal/dispositional attribution)*** or the party is making him happy ***(external/situational attribution).***

Internal attributions, also called personal attribution, in which people infer that a person is behaving in certain ways because of something about that person (e.g., a trait or attitude). External attributions, also called situational attribution, in which people infer that a person is behaving in certain ways because of the situation that he or she is in. Heider also noted that people seem to prefer internal attributions.

**B. Correspondent inference theory:** *Jones and Davis's* (1965) correspondent inference theory explains how people infer a person's behavior corresponds to an underlying disposition or personality trait. ***Dispositional (internal) cause is preferred as it is stable and render/provide people's behavior more predictable and increases sense of control***. This theory explains that we use others behavior as a basis for inferring their stable traits and dispositions. The theory also holds that we make inferences about individual’s stable traits when his or her actions are: **1) *Freely chosen***, **2) *Yields distinctive or unexpected outcome,*** and **3) *Low in social desirability***.

According to Jones and Davis, one type of information that social perceivers seek in order to make a correspondent inference is whether the behavior in question was **freely chosen** or not. An internal, dispositional attribution is more likely when the person being observed has *freely chosen* the given behavior. If behavior has been freely chosen then it is much more likely to be the result of an underlying personality characteristic or attitude, rather than a result of coercion, threat, or inducements. When a behavior has a unique consequence, rather than having a range of possible other consequences, we can refer to it as having **non-common effects**. An internal, dispositional attribution is more likely when the outcome of a behavior has a unique (or non-common) effect. For instance, a punch has really only one possible outcome so it is more likely to be attributed to an internal, dispositional cause: personal aggression. **Social desirability** information refers to whether the behavior observed is consistent with, or counter to, social norms. An internal, dispositional attribution is more likely when socially undesirable behaviors are observed. People have a tendency to go along with social norms – to adhere to the majority viewpoint – because they wish to avoid exclusion and ridicule for standing out and being different from the crowd. As such, behavior that is socially desirable does not tell us much about people’s personalities because they may simply be going along with the group norm (**conformity**), which may or may not coincide with their own personal point of view. In contrast, someone who exhibits socially undesirable behavior – who goes against the social norm – is much more likely to be displaying behavior that corresponds to an underlying personality trait, because the behavior cannot be attributed to the person simply conforming to the majority. Although there is some evidence to support the idea that people use these three types of information outlined above to attribute causality to others’ behavior (e.g. Jones & Harris, 1967), ultimately the theory has declined in popularity due to some clear limitations. In particular, the model is limited to *single instances* of behavior and focuses on *internal attributions*. The latter point is especially important. It is very easy to think of the many times that we have put someone’s behavior down to bad luck, or them having a bad day. People clearly and consistently make external attributions as well as internal. The model we turn to next directly addresses these limitations and is arguably the most influential of the attribution theories. **C. Kelly’s Theory of Co-variation:** According to Kelly’s theory of attribution, in the case of Single-Instance Observation the following principles are used in making attributions. **The Co-variation Model:** The covariation model of Kelley (1967) focuses on how people decide whether to make an internal or an external

attribution and on instances where there are multiple observations of behavior. ***This model holds that people attribute behavior to factors that are present when a behavior occurs and absent when it does not occur***. It explains the attribution process as a search for information about what a particular behavior is correlated (co-varies) with: When behavior is correlated with the Situation it is called external attribution. When behavior is correlated with the person, it accounts internal attribution. The theory views people as naive scientists who analyze the world in a rational manner. The co-variation model assumes that people make causal attributions in a rational, logical fashion.

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

The possible causal factors we focus on are (1) ***consensus information***, or information about the extent to which other people behave the same way towards the same stimulus as the actor does; (2) ***distinctiveness information***, or information about the extent to which one particular actor behaves in the same way to different stimuli i.e., is concerned with whether the behavior occurs in other, similar situations; and (3) ***consistency information*** refers to whether the behavior occurs repeatedly;. ***When these three sources of information combined into one of distinct patterns, a clear attribution can be made***.

Table 6.1. Kelly’s Co-variation Attribution Theory

Type of Information Example Implication

***Consensus information***:

High: Everyone is wearing a dodgy sweater Situation

The extent to which the target and audience behave in the same way.

Low: Only our professor is wearing a dodgy sweater Disposition

***Distinctiveness information:***

High: Your professor only wears the dodgy sweater in this lecture. Situation

The extent to which the target behaves in the same way in other situations

Low: Your professor wears the dodgy sweater around campus. Disposition

***Consistency information***:

The extent to which the target behaves in the same way on different occasions.

High: Your professor wears the dodgy sweater in every lecturer Disposition

Low: Your professor is only wearing the

dodgy sweater today

Situation

Situation

1. *Low Consensus, Low Distinctiveness and High Consistency* leads people to make an internal attribution of the actor. 2. *High Consensus, High Distinctiveness, and High Consistency* leads people to make an external attribution. It is something about the situation or target. When *Consistency is Low* we cannot make a clear internal or external attribution, and so resort to a special kind of external or situational attribution.

a) So when there is a *Low Consensus*, and *High Distinctiveness*, it is due to an actor and situation interaction that uniquely causes the outcome, i.e., both internal and external attributions are inferred). b) When there is *High Consensus*, and *Low Distinctiveness*, it is either an actor attribution or a situation attribution can be drawn. You basically don't know in this situation.

**D. Acts that are stable and controlled** Bernard Weiner (1979, 1986) was interested in the causes and consequences of the sorts of attribution people make when they succeed or fail on a task – for example, how students interpret their performance in examinations. He believed that in making an achievement attribution, we consider three performance dimensions. The first is locus, which once again features internal and external causes. The next two are new and interesting: stability and controllability.

stability Controllability locus

Stable Unstable Controllable Uncontrollable internal External

Ability Ψ Ψ Ψ Mood Ψ Ψ Ψ Task difficulty Ψ Ψ Ψ Luck Ψ Ψ Ψ Effort Ψ Ψ Ψ Help or hindrance from others

Ψ Ψ Ψ

**3.3. Errors in Attribution/Attribution bias**

In psychology, an **attribution bias** is a cognitive bias that affects the way we determine who or what was responsible for an event or action (*attribution*). It is natural for us to interpret events and results as the consequences of the purposeful actions of some person or agent. This is a deep-seated bias in human perception which has been present throughout human history. Our ancestors invariably attributed natural events like earthquakes, volcanoes, or droughts to the angry retaliation of gods. Attribution biases are triggered when people evaluate the dispositions or qualities of others based on incomplete evidence.

A. **Actor-observer bias**: People involved in an action (*actors*) view things differently from people not involved (*observers*).an actor- observer bias is the tendency to attribute our own behavior to situational causes and the behavior of others to internal (dispositional) factors. This bias occurs because we are aware of external factors affecting our own actions but less aware of such factors affecting others behavior. B. **Fundamental Attribution Error:** Also known as **correspondence bias** refers to the tendency to explain other’s actions stemming from dispositions/ internal causes even in the presence of clear situational causes. It describes the tendency to over-value dispositional or personality-based causes of behaviors while under-valuing situational explanations for those behaviors. It does not explain interpretations of one's own behavior. Fundamental Attribution Error refers to the tendency to make attributions to internal causes when focusing on someone else’s behavior. Most people ignore the impact of role pressures and other situational constraints on others and see behavior as caused by people's intentions, motives, and attitudes. C. **Self-Serving Attributions**: Self-serving attributions are explanations for one’s successes that credit internal, dispositional factors and explanations for one’s failures that blame external, situational factors. Self-serving bias is a tendency to attribute one’s own success to internal causes and one’s failures to external causes. This pattern is observed in the attributions that professional athletes make for their performances. Possible reasons for self-serving attributions are maintaining self-esteem, good self-presentation and people have information about their behavior in other situations, which may lead to positive outcomes being expected and negative outcomes being unexpected. D. **Belief in a just world:** this is a form of defensive attributions wherein people assume that bad things happen to bad people and those good things happen to good people. Most people have the belief that individuals get what they deserve in life; a belief that leads to blaming the victim for his or her misfortune. E. **False-consensus** effect tendency to overestimate the commonality of

one’s opinions and unsuccessful behaviors (but not successful behaviors)

**Chapter Four**

**4.1. Definition and Measurement of Attitude**

Attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs, feelings and behavioral tendencies towards socially significant objects, groups, events or symbols.

According to Allport (1935) attitude refers to a mental and neural set of readiness, organized through experience exerting a directing or dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Gordon Allport, 1935).An attitude is a readiness to respond in such a way that behaviour is given a certain direction. According to Allport attitudes are three types: Social Attitudes, Attitudes towards specific persons and Attitudes towards specific groups

Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) defined attitude as a learned *predisposition* to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object. Similarly, Eagly & Chaiken (1993) defined attitude as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour.

Attitudes are dynamic phenomena that interact with all other elements of an organism. Often the term attitude is identified with prejudices, biases, and states of readiness, beliefs or ideas with an emotional thing.

Attitudes exercise a great influence on the life and behavior of individuals. Attitudes indicate the direction and intensity of response of the person to stimuli. They reveal the drives which lead to some form of behavior. It is a clear fact that every individual has a vast array of attitudes: e.g., Attitudes towards health, children, food, clothes, God, pets, etc.

Like other psychological constructs, psychologist measure attitude. The most commonly used techniques for measuring attitudes are attitude surveys research. In an attitude survey, the researcher mails or emails questionnaire to a potential respondent, conducts a face-to-face interview, or asks a series of questions on the telephone. Because respondents report on their own attitudes, an attitude survey is a self-report measure.

Respondents indicate their attitude by answering a series of questions. There may be several types of questions on an attitude survey. Open- ended questions allow respondents to provide an answer in their own words. Another kind of survey item is the rating scale, called attitude scale, in which respondents indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a statement by circling a number on a scale.

**4.2. Components of Attitude** Social psychologists generally consider attitudes to follow the **ABC model**, which suggests that an attitude has three components: Affect, Behavior, and Cognition. The affect component encompasses our positive or negative emotions about something- how we feel about it. a. **Behavior component** consists of a predisposition or intention to act in a particular manner that is relevant to our attitude. The action component of attitude this component refers to the response through action, and activity which is an expression of the cognitive and affective components. b. **Cognition component** refers to the beliefs and thoughts we hold about the object of our attitude. Cognitive component represents a person’s knowledge, about what is true or false, good or bad, desirable or undesirable. It is the thought, information, and understanding component of attitude. c. ***Affective component*:** includes the emotion, feeling and sentiment component of attitude. Taking negative or positive position. For example someone’s attitude towards Aster Awoke may consist of a positive emotion (the affect component), an intention to buy her latest recording (the behavior component) and the belief that she is a good singer (the cognition component).

Every attitude has these three interrelated components, although they vary in terms of which element predominates and in the nature of their relationships. Generally, attitudes are useful because they are enduring and they provide a cognitive and affective orientation toward objects and thus help us pursue goal-directed thought and action

**4.3. Functions of Attitudes** Attitudes serve as conscious and unconscious motives and have the following functions: 1. **Knowledge function**: attitudes aid the interpretation of new events and enable rapid responding to attitude relevant information. 2. **Social identity or value-expressive function**: attitudes can permit the expression of central values and beliefs that uniquely identify and define them. 3. **The self-esteem function:** holding particular attitudes can help to maintain or enhance feeling of self-worth.

4. **The Ego-defensive function**: protection of ourselves from unwanted or unfaltering views of ourselves by claiming particular attitude. 5. **The impression motivation function**: Attitudes can be used to lead others to have a positive view of ourselves. When motivated to do so, the attitude we express can shift in order to create the desired impression on others.

**4.4. Attitude Formation**

Almost all psychologists believe that attitudes are learned and there are many processes/way through which attitudes are acquired. **1. Direct Experience and mere exposure:** Most attitudes are the result of direct experience (positive or negative). Negative experiences will lead to the experiencing of negative attitudes. Mere exposure is the phenomenon that being exposed to a stimulus increases one’s feelings, usually positive, toward that object; repeated exposure can lead to positive attitudes. The mere-exposure effect has been demonstrated with a wide range of stimuli, including foods, photographs, words, and advertising slogans. **2. Social/ Observational learning:** social learning is the process through which we acquire new information, form of behavior, or attitudes from other persons. Observational learning states that attitudes are the result of modeling the actions or emotions displayed by real life or symbolic models, so attitudes are simply observed and imitated. For instance exposure to mass media. **3. Classical Conditioning:** Repeated associations meant that a previously neutral stimulus is paired with a less neutral response and can therefore be powerful in the formation of an attitude. **4. Operant Conditioning:** Behavior that results in positive consequences is likely to be reinforced and repeated compared to behavior followed by negative consequences, and attitudes are therefore shaped by a system of rewards and punishments. **5. Self-perception theory**: Another way to acquire an attitude is by observing our own behaviour and making an internal attribution of the behaviour to one’s self (one’s attitude) if there are no obvious external causes for the behaviour. Acquire knowledge about the person you are and therefore your attitude. Why did I do that?

Through whatever process, we form attitudes; one of the most important sources of enduring attitudes is our parents, and later our peer groups, teachers, friends and mass media.

**4.5. Relationship between Attitude and Behavior**

The utility/value of attitudes, both theoretically and practically, rests largely on how much people’s attitudes influence their behaviour. A study conducted by Lapiere (1934) indicated that there is a sizable gap between attitudes and behavior-that is between what people say and what

they actually do. Later studies indicated that attitudes do indeed influence behavior. It is the type of attitude that matters in behavior. Ambivalent attitudes are weaker predictors of behavior. Recent research in this area concluded that when attitudes are not ambivalent, that is, when attitudes have no positive and negative feelings–attitudes do not indeed predict behavior.

There are **several factors that affect the strength of the relationship between attitude and behavior**. These factors determine the extent to which attitudes influence **overt behavior**. Attitudes influence behavior **(1)** When situational constraints/limitation **moderate** the relationship between attitudes and behavior **(2)** when situational pressure shape the extent to which attitudes can be expressed. **(3)** When attitudes are powerful and strong.

It is only possible to predict behaviour from attitudes if the attitude is very specific and is oriented toward an intention to behave in a certain way. Situational constraints moderate relationship between attitudes and behavior. General attitudes are very poor predictors of specific behaviours but can predict an average of a wider range of behaviours. **There are several aspects of attitudes that guide behavior**:

1. **Attitude origin** – Evidence indicates that attitudes on basis of direct experience have stronger effects on behavior. 2. **Attitude strength**.-The stronger the attitudes are, the greater their impact on behavior. 3. **Attitude specificity**- This is the extent to which attitudes are focused on specific objects. Attitude behavior link is stronger when attitudes and behaviors are measured at same level of specificity.

The term attitude is used in describing people, and in explaining their behavior. Attitude and behavior has a relationship. In gaining a clear understanding of the relationship between attitude and behavior both the causes and effects of attitude need to be examined. Attitudes seem to influence behavior through two different mechanisms.

**1. The theory of reasoned action**: A theory suggesting that the decision to engage in a particular behaviour is the result of a rational process in which behavioural options are considered, consequences or outcomes of each are evaluated, and the decision is reached to act or not to act. That decision is reflected in behavioural intensions, which strongly influence overt behaviour. So, when we can give careful thought to our attitudes, intentions derived from our attitudes strongly predict behavior. In situations, where we cannot engage in deliberate thought, attitudes influence behavior. **2. Theory of planned behaviour**: This theory suggests that people also

need to feel that performance of the behaviour is under their control. When these conditions are met, people’s behavioural intentions (and to a lesser extent their actual behaviour) can be quite well predicted. The theory of planned behaviour holds that human action is guided by three kinds of considerations: **a.** Beliefs about the likely outcomes of the behaviour and the evaluations of these outcomes (behavioural beliefs or Attitudes) **b.** Beliefs about the normative expectations of others and motivation to comply with these expectations (normative beliefs/Subjective Norm) **c.** Beliefs about the presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of the behaviour and the perceived power of these factors (control beliefs/Perceived Behavioural Control).

**Attitude Change 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.

**Steps in the attitude change process**

1. **Attention**-refers to giving focus to the attitude object. It is when we give attention that we can precede to the next step.

2. **Comprehension**-refers to understanding the issue.

3. **Retention-**this refers to maintenance and elaboration of the attended information

4. **Action**-relates to taking action based on our understanding and retention

**Cognitive Dissonance** Cognitive dissonance is an unpleasant state that occurs when individuals discover inconsistencies between two of their attitudes or between their behaviour which creates a feeling of dissatisfaction. It is a discomfort caused by inconsistencies between attitudes and behavior. Cognitive dissonance is a tension that arises when one is simultaneously aware of two inconsistent cognitions. We need to have consistency in our thoughts, perceptions, and images of ourselves **Examples:** *One might express the deleterious consequences of unsafe sex but he/she might practice unsafe sex,* A man who believes in a woman’s right to terminate her pregnancy makes an anti-abortion speech, A doctor telling his/her patients the harmful aspects of smoking cigarette smokes it regularly.

**Chapter Five: Persuasion**

Persuasion is the effort to change our attitudes through the use of various kinds of messages. It is a part of daily life. Studies of social psychologists yielded insights into the cognitive process that play a role in persuasion. For a change in attitudes, persuasive communication plays a vital role. Persuasive communication is such a skill which is employed by a person to persuade other persons. The skill may be based on reason. In persuasive behavior communication is vital. It can be through dialogue, written ideas, television or film. Through effective use of these media, the messages sent might bring changes in our view point. Some persuasive appeals do not succeed in attitude change. For example**,** some advertisements fail to sell the goods advertised; while others are successful.

**7.4.1. Factors that Affect Persuasion** Early research in persuasion provided an insight in to important factors that influence persuasion. Generally four factors **namely communicator, the message, how the message is communicated (process/channel), and the audience affects the persuasion process**. Following are some interesting findings of early research on persuasion. ✓ Communicators who are ***credible*** are more persuasive. Experts with respect to the topics are more persuasive than non-experts. ✓ Communicators who are ***attractive*** in some way( E.g. physically attractive) are more persuasive than not attractive ✓ People are more susceptible to persuasion when they are ***distracted*** by an extraneous event than when they are paying full attention to what is being said. ✓ Messages that do not appear to be ***designed to change*** our attitudes are more successful than those designed to achieve this goal. ✓ When audience holds attitude is ***contrary*** to that of the persuader. Two-sided messages increase persuasion because the persuader discusses both while supporting his side by string evidence. ✓ People who ***speak rapidly*** are often more persuasive than persons who speak more slowly. ✓ People who exhibit ***greater confidence*** in what they are saying are more persuasive than less confident. ✓ Persuasion can be enhanced by messages that arouse ***strong emotions*** (especially fear) in the audience. ✓ ***Younger people*** are easily persuaded than older people who are resistant to change their attitude

**7.4.2. Theories of Persuasion** The cognitive approach looks at *why* people react to a message the way they do, why they say that a message is interesting or that a communicator is biased. Cognitive response models focus on the active role of the audience. They assert that people respond to persuasive messages by connecting them with their own knowledge, feelings, and thoughts related to the topic of the message. A. **Dual-process theory.** The dual-process theory of persuasion suggests that people process information through one of two channels: central and peripheral routes i. **Central route to persuasion:** The process by which a person thinks carefully about a communication and is influenced by the strength of its arguments. It involves systematic processing which requires, careful consideration of messages content and ideas. So, the quality of the message affects people’s response to a persuasive message. e.g: Advertisement of computer. ii. **Peripheral route to persuasion**: The process by which a person does not think carefully about a communication and is influenced instead by superficial cues. It involves heuristic processing, in which processing information involves simple rules of thumb or mental shortcuts. Therefore, in peripheral route to persuasion simplistic rules affect people’s response to a persuasive message. e.g: Attractiveness of the speaker B. **Cognitive-Dissonance Theory:** Cognitive Dissonance Theory proposed by Leon Festinger in 1957 begins with the idea that **people do not like inconsistency and are uncomfortable when it occurs**. Cognitive dissonance is an unpleasant internal state that results when individuals notice inconsistency between two or more of their attitudes. It can also be an unpleasant state between attitudes and behavior. It is a frequent occurrence in everyday life. Cognitive dissonance theory proposes that when people have two thoughts that are psychologically inconsistent, they will experience physiological arousal and cognitive dissonance. In addition, the theory suggests that people will be motivated to reduce this cognitive dissonance by changing whatever thought is easiest to change. When people engage in a behavior that is inconsistent with their attitudes, they are likely to have conflicting thoughts such as “I just did that” and “I don’t think people should do that.” These two thoughts are psychologically inconsistent and, as such, lead to physiological arousal and cognitive dissonance. To reduce this dissonance, people are more likely to change their attitudes – that is, to think “Maybe it is OK if people do that.” This thought is much easier to change than the thought that they had engaged in the action. The theory that holding inconsistent cognitions arouses psychological

tension that people become motivated to reduce.

Dissonance can be reduced through direct as well as indirect techniques.

**Direct Approaches:** focus on attitude-behavior discrepancies that are causing dissonance. 1) Change of our attitude or behavior so that these are more consistent. 2) Reduce cognitive dissonance by acquiring new information to support our attitude. 3) Trivialization: A technique for reducing dissonance in which the importance of attitudes and behaviors that are inconsistent with each other is cognitively reduced. **Indirect Approaches:** 1) Positive self-evaluations by focusing on their positive self-attributes reduce dissonance. 2) Engaging in distracting activities that takes one’s mind off the dissonance.

**7.4.3. Resisting Persuasion Attempts**

We are highly resistant to persuasive messages. If we are not, our attitudes would be in a constant state of change. Several factors contribute to such resistance to persuasion. A. ***Psychological Reactance:*** It is negative reactions to efforts by others to limit our personal freedom. In other words, we tend to protect our personal freedom.

B. **Forewarning:** It is the prior knowledge of persuasive intent. It is the knowledge/awareness that someone is trying to change our attitudes. C. **Selective Avoidance:** It is a tendency to direct our attention away from information that challenges our existing attitudes. D. **Counter arguing against competing views:** When exposed to persuasive messages we actively counter argue against the information they contain. This also increases our resistance to persuasion.

E. **Biased assimilation and attitude polarization:** These are two additional processes that play a role in resistance to persuasion. Biased assimilation is the tendency to evaluate information that disconfirms our existing views as less convincing than that confirms these views. Attitude polarization is the tendency to evaluate information in such a way that it strengthens our initial view

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**Chapter Six: Social Influence**

**6.1. Nature of social influence**

**Social influence** occurs when an individual's thoughts or actions are affected by other people. **Social Influence** can be defined as efforts by one or more individuals to change the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, or behaviors of one or more others. For example, the colleagues have strong influence on one’s work, while the friends have strong influence on one’s daily life. Social influence is common feature of everyday life; we either try to influence others or influenced others. Social influence sometimes causes us to do or say things that we don’t necessarily believe in. There are types of social influence: conformity, compliance, and obedience

**6.2. Conformity:**

**Conformity is** a type of social influence in which individuals change their attitude or behavior in order to adhere or to stick to the existing social norms. It is also referred as group influence in action which involves adjusting one’s behavior or thinking to coincide with group standard/social norms. Social norms are powerful influence on our behavior. Social norms are rules indicating how individuals are expected to behave in specific situation. They tell us what we do or not to do in a given situation and most people obey them most of the time.

Conformity was first systematically studied by Solomon Asch, whose classic research indicated that many persons will yield to social pressure from a unanimous group. Let’s consider this classic study on conformity.

**The Sherif Study**: Participants in dark room asked to estimate how far a point of light moved. The light actually did not move, but due to the autokinetic effect, it appeared to. When participants were alone, the estimates differed greatly. However, when participants were in a group, the estimates came to agree.

**Asch’s line experiment:** People were tested in groups, one test participant and several assistants of researcher. Each was asked to judge which of three comparison lines was the same length as the standard line. The test participant was asked last, after the assistants had answered (i.e. deliberate and false judgment). 75% of participants conformed to confederates’ judgments at least some of the time. Overall, 37% of judgments conformed.

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**6.2.1. Factors affecting Conformity**

Research findings suggest that many factors play a role in determining the extent to which individuals yield to conformity or resist to it. Some of these are **cohesiveness, group size, and type of social norms**.

**Cohesiveness and Conformity:** With respect to conformity, cohesiveness can be defined as the degree of attraction felt by an individual toward an influencing group. Groups with similar attitudes, successful groups and groups with clear paths to goals are more cohesive than groups with dissimilar attitudes, unsuccessful groups and groups lacking clear paths respectively. When cohesiveness (attraction) is high, pressures toward conformity are magnified. This is a basic reason why most persons are more willing to accept social influence from friends or persons they admire than from others. Cohesiveness, i.e., degree of attraction with the group increase conformity.

**Group Size and Conformity:** Group size has the important effects on the tendency to conform i.e., the size of the influencing group. We are likely to conform to the opinion held by the group if the number of group members holding the same opinion is large i.e., group size is large.

**Descriptive and Injunctive Norms:** Descriptive norms are ones indicating what most people do in a given situation. They influence behavior by informing us about what is generally seen as effective or adaptive behavior in that situation. e.g., witnessing somebody blow out the cigarette before entering in to bus. In contrast, injunctive norms specify what ought to be done−what is approved or disapproved behavior in a given situation. e.g., an instruction displayed in the bus “Smoking is prohibited in the public places.

**6.2.2. Reasons for conformity**

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Conformity is the fact of social life. But why people often choose to go along with social rules and expectations instead of resisting them. The answer rests on two powerful human motives: the desire to be liked or accepted by others and the desire to be right-to have accurate understanding of the social world. and also the cognitive processes that lead us to view conformity as fully justified after it has occurred. Here are some of the tactics to make people conform to our opinions, decisions.

**Normative Social Influence: The Desire to Be Liked**

One of the most successful tactics is that we can make conscious efforts to appear to be as similar to others as possible. From childhood, we learn that agreeing with the persons around us, and behaving as they do, causes them to like us. One important reason we conform is simple: we learn that doing so can generate the approval and acceptance we expect. This source of social influence-and especially of conformity-is known as **normative social influence**, since it involves making other alter their behavior to meet our expectations. Normative social influence result from individuals desire to be liked or accepted by other persons and to avoid disapproval.

**Informational Social Influence: The Desire to Be Right**

There are many matters or topics on which we have strong desire to be correct or appropriate e.g., about questions like which color of dress suits you best? Whether your political or social views are correct or not? or Which hair style suits you? However, there is difficulty in finding a system through which we can accurately get answer to these things? But the solution to these questions is obvious: to answer these questions, there is necessity of approaching other people. We use their opinion and their actions as guides for our own. The verbal and non-verbal feedback given by them helps us to satisfy question mentioned earlier to major extent. Obviously, such reliance on others can be another source of conformity, for in an important sense, other people’s actions and opinions define social reality for us. This source of social influence is known as informational social influence, since it is based on our tendency to depend upon others as a source of information about many aspects of the social world. This influence is based on individuals desire to be correct (i.e. to possess accurate perceptions of the social world).Therefore, we conform to other people’s feedback because there is no availability of alternate system to get answers to some typical questions or topics discussed earlier.

**Justifying Conformity: The Cognitive Consequences of Going Along with the Group:**

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Asch reported that some people who conform do so without any much thinking. They conclude that they are wrong and the others are right. For these people, conforming to others poses only a temporary dilemma, at most.

However, for many persons, the decision to yield to group pressure and do what others are doing is not so straight but it is more complex. Such persons feel that their own judgment is correct, but at the same time, they do not want to be different from their group; so they behave in ways that are inconsistent with their private beliefs i.e., they follow behavior or opinion followed by group to which they belong. This process can be interpreted as defence mechanism adapted by a person to overcome his anxiety of not following his own opinion.

Recent findings suggest that one may involve a tendency to alter their perceptions of the situation so that conformity appears or rather to be justified for his decision to follow group’s or others’ decision or opinion.

Several studies suggest that the decision to conform may be followed by changes in perceptions of the facts that make justification available for conformity.

**6.2.3. Resisting Pressure**

It becomes important to understand the underlying process or reasons for the ability of an individual to resist even powerful pressures toward conformity. Research findings point to two key factors underlying this process.

**The Need for Individuality:** First, most of us have desire to maintain our uniqueness or individuality. Even though, we have tendency to be like others still not to the extent that we lose our personal identity. Most of us possess a desire for individuation-for being distinguished from others in some respects.

**The Need for Control:** Second, many individuals have desire to maintain control over the events in their lives. The conforming behavior develops a feeling of driven away by the external factors, which threatens the desire to be control life events. Therefore, they choose to resist group pressures. Most persons want to believe that they can determine what happens to them, and yielding to social pressure sometimes runs counter to this desire.

**6.2.4. Minority Influence**

We have often noted that minorities do influence majority on many occasions. It will be interesting to know the process, which make them successful. Research findings suggest that they are most likely to succeed under certain conditions, which are discussed below:

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First, the members of such minority groups must be consistent in their opposition to majority opinions. If they show sign of yielding to the majority view, their impact is reduced.

Second, the members of the minority must avoid appearing to be rigid and dogmatic. A minority that merely repeats the same position over and over again is less persuasive than one that demonstrates degree of flexibility.

Third, the general social context in which a minority operates is important. If a minority argues for a position that is consistent with current social trends (e.g., conservative views at a time of growing conservatism), its chances of influencing the majority are greater than if it argues for a position that is out of step with such trend.

**6.2.5. Symbolic Social Influence:**

Other people can influence us when they are present and trying to do so is not that surprising but growing evidence suggest that others can influence us even when they are not present and not trying to change our behavior or thoughts, a process that can be described as symbolic social influence.

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

The psychological presence of others in or mental representations of others or of relationship with them influence our behavior and thought. Therefore, it is to the extent that others are psychologically present in our thoughts, the nature of our relationships with them, goals we keep in these relationships and goals these people themselves want us to achieve can all be stimulated or triggered, and these ideas strongly affect our decisions to behave in particular ways. Symbolic social influence, therefore, is how we are influenced by others even when they are not there.

**6.3. Compliance**

In a situation when you wanted someone to do something for you, you start thinking about the tricks which you can use to get your things done. Social psychologists have put efforts to understand this process, the most frequent form of social influence. A well-known social psychologist (Robert Cialdini) termed Compliance Professionals- people whose success (financial or otherwise) depends on their ability to get others to say “yes”. These people include salespeople, advertisers, political lobbyists, fundraisers, etc.

**6.3.1. Basic Principles compliance**

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There are six basic principles that underlie many techniques compliance professional use for gaining compliance:

**1. Friendship/Liking**: We are more willing to comply with requests from friends or from people we like than with requests from strangers or people we do not like.

**2. Commitment/Consistency**: Once we commit our self to a position or an action, we are more willing to say or do things that fit with committed position in various ways. e.g., if in past, we express our opinion to some specific issue in an official meeting, then we are more inclined to think and act in favor of the opinion expressed in meeting.

**3. Scarcity:** It is tendency to value, to feel worthy about and to secure, opportunities that are scarce or decreasing.

**4. Reciprocity**: We are generally more willing to comply with a request from someone who has previously provided a favor or concession to us than to someone who has not.

**5. Social Validation**: A tendency to comply with a request for some action if this action is consistent with what we believe persons similar to ourselves are doing (or thinking). We want to be correct, and one way to do so is to act and think like others.

**6. Authority:** We are usually more willing to comply with requests from someone who authority or simply looks like one.

**6.3.2. Techniques professionals use for gaining Compliance**

**A. Ingratiation :This tactic is based on friendship or liking**

There are several techniques for increasing compliance through getting others to like us. Making others to like us is called as impression management. One technique of impression management is ingratiation. Ingratiation is getting others to like us so that they will be more willing to agree to our requests. In ingratiation first we manage first impression that the person have on us, basically making the person to like us, then attempting to change the persons behavior in desired manner. Impression management techniques are often used for purposes of ingratiation.

There are many self-enhancing tactics of impression management such as improving one’s appearance, emitting positive nonverbal cues (e.g., smiling, a high level of eye contact), and associating oneself with positive events or people the target person already likes. In contrast, other-enhancing tactics include flattery, agreeing with target persons, showing interest in them, and providing them

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small gifts or favors. Research findings indicate that all of these tactics can be successful, at least to a degree, in increasing others liking for us.

**B. Tactics Based on Commitment or Consistency : *The Foot in the Door:***

A procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a small request and then, when this is granted, escalate to a larger one (the one they actually desired to be agreed). Once the target person says yes to the small request, it is more difficult for that person to say no to a larger request, because if they don’t agree it would be inconsistent with the first response.

***The Lowball:***

It has been seen that auto dealers sometimes use the lowball technique. This involves offering an attractive deal to customers but then, after they accept, changing that offer in some way. Rationally, customers should refuse: but in fact, they often accept less attractive deal because they feel committed to the decision of buying the car. To explain it further, in this technique, a very good deal is offered to a customer. After the customer accepts, however, something is manipulated to show that it necessary for the salesperson to change the deal and make it less advantageous for the customer-for example, an “error” in price calculations is found, or the sales manger rejects the deal. The totally rational reaction for customers, of course, is to walk away. Yet often they agree to the changes and accept the less desirable arrangement.

***Bait-and-switch tactic* :**

A technique for gaining compliance in which once the customers enters the shop; items offered for sale are showed as unavailable or presented of very low quality. This leads customers to buy a more expensive item that is available. It happens because for customers point of view, changing one’s mind and reversing an initial commitment requires hard work, and many people, it appears, would rather pay a higher price than change their minds.

**C. Tactics Based on Reciprocity :** *The* ***Door- in- the- Face:***

A procedure for gaining compliance in which requesters begin with a large request and then, when this is refused, retreat to a smaller one (the one they actually desired to be agreed ). This is exactly opposite of the foot-in-the-door technique: instead of beginning with a small request and then presenting a larger one, persons seeking compliance sometimes start with a very large request and then, after this is rejected, shift to a smaller request-the one they wanted all along.

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***The Foot- in- the- Mouth:***

When people feel that they are in a relationship with another person-no matter how trivial or unimportant-they often feel that they are obliged to help or considerate to that person simply because the relationship exists. For example, friends help friends when they need assistance, and persons who perceive themselves as similar in some manner may feel that they should help one another when the need arises. For instance, asking donation for one students cover students health expense. “Students help each other? We are both students, right? And students help students, right? So, how about a donation?”

***That’s-not-all technique:***

An initial request is followed, before the target person can make up or his/her his mind to say yes or no, a small incentive is offered by the person who is using this tactic sweetens the deal. For example, auto dealers sometimes decide to throw in a small additional option to the car for e.g., free full tank fill, offer of seat cover, etc., in the hope that this will help them close the deal; and often, it really helps! Persons on the receiving end of the that’s-not all technique view this small extra as a concession on the part of the other person, and so feel obligated to make a concession themselves.

**D. Tactics Based on Scarcity : *Playing Hard to Get :***

This technique involves the efforts to increase compliance by suggesting that a person or object is scarce, rare and hard to obtain. Creating the impression of being a scarce and valuable resource (being hard to get) can be another effective means for gaining compliance.

***Deadline Technique:***

This is a technique for increasing compliance in which target persons are told that they have only limited time to take advantage of some offer or to obtain some item. Advertisements using this deadline techniques state a specific time limit during which an item can be purchased for a specific price. After the deadline runs out, the ads suggest, the price will go up. Of course, in many cases, the sale is not a real one, and the time limit is bogus. Yet many persons reading such ads believe them and hurry down to the store in order to avoid missing a great opportunity.

**E. Other Tactics for Gaining Compliance: *Complaining***

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In the context of compliance, expressing discontent, dissatisfaction, resentment, or regret as a means of exerting social influence on others. Complaining involves expressions of discontent or dissatisfaction with one self or some aspect of the external world, and often such statements are simple expressions of personal states (“I feel lousy!”) or comments on the external world (“Wow, is it cold today!”). Sometimes, however, complaining is used as a tactic of social influence:” Why didn’t you take out the garbage like you, promised?” “We always see the movie you want; it’s not fair,” Statements such as these directed toward the goal of getting the recipient to change his or her attitudes or behaviors in some manner.

***Putting Others in Good Mood:***

People’s moods often exert a strong effect on their behavior. And, it seems, this principle also holds with respect to compliance. When individuals are in a good mood, they tend to be more willing to say “Yes” to various requests than when they are in a neutral or negative mood.

**6.4. Obedience to authority**

Obedience occurs when people obey commands or orders conformity or compliance, because even persons who possess authority and power generally prefer to exert it through the velvet glove-through requests rather than direct orders. Business executives sometimes issue orders to their subordinates; military officers shout commands that they expect to be followed without questions; and parents, police officers, and sports coaches, to name a few, seek to influence others in the same manner.

**Stanley Milgram's Obedience Study**: participants act as teachers who deliver electrical shocks to examinee's that answer incorrectly. The magnitude of voltages increase as the number of questions answered incorrectly increase. Even though screaming sounds of pain were heard from the examinee, 63% of the participants delivered right up to the last 450-volts. The experiment showed that obedience was highest when the order giver has high authority, the victim was far away or unseen, or when no one was seen disobeying. **6.4.1. Destructive Obedience: Its Social Psychological Basis:**

Why does such destructive obedience occur? Why were subjects in various experiments-and many persons in tragic situations outside the laboratory-so willing to this powerful form of social influence? Following factors play role in it:

1. In many life situations, Transfer of responsibility is the underlying phenomenon. “I was only carrying out orders” is the defense mechanism many offer after obeying harsh or cruel directions. In view of this fact, it is not surprising that many tended to obey; after all, they are not held responsible for

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their actions. 2. Persons in authority often possesses visible badges or signs of their status. These consist of special uniforms, insignia, titles, and similar symbols. Faced with such obvious reminders of who is in charge, most people find it difficult to resist. 3. If there is anticipation that targets of influence might resist, then there is gradual intensification of the authority figure’s orders. Initially command or request is made for comparatively mild action but later it is increased in scope and dangerous or objectionable behaviors are expected. For example, police are first ordered to question, threaten, or arrest potential victims. Gradually, demands are increased to the point where these personnel are commanded to even kill unarmed civilians. 4. Events in many situations involving destructive obedience move very quickly: demonstrations turn into riots, or arrests turn into mass beatings-or murders- suddenly. The fast pace of such events gives participants little time for reflection: people are ordered to obey and–almost automatically, they do so. **6.4.2. Resisting Destructive Obedience** How can this type of social influence be resisted? Several strategies seem to help to reduce tendencies to obey. 1. Individual can be reminded that you will be responsible for the harm produced by following commands and not the authority. This will develop a sense of responsibility for individual’s behavior even for taking decision to follow commands given by authority. Under these conditions, sharp reductions in the tendency to obey have been observed. 2. Individuals can be provided with a clear indication that beyond some point, unquestioning submission to destructive commands is inappropriate. One procedure that is highly effective in this regard involves exposing individuals to the actions of disobedient models- persons who refuse to obey an authority figure’s commands. Research findings indicate that such models can greatly reduce unquestioning obedience. 3. Individuals may find it easier to resist influence from authority figures if they question the expertise and motives of these figures. Questions such, as are authority figures really in a better position to judge what is appropriate and what is not? What motives lie behind their commands-socially beneficial goals or selfish gains? By asking such questions, persons who might otherwise obey may find support for independence rather than submission. 4. Simply knowing about the power of authority figures to command blind obedience may be helpful in itself. 5. Also, some research findings suggest that when individuals learn about the results of social psychological research, they sometimes change their behavior to take account of this new knowledge There is hope that knowing about this process can enhance individual’s ability to resist.

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Human being is constantly involved in social interactions. In this process, he/she affects or gets affected by social situations. Conformity is one of such phenomenon. Conformity occurs when individuals change their attitudes or behavior to comply with social norms-rules or expectations about how they should behave in various situations. Conformity is affected by many factors like cohesiveness, group size and type of social norms. Two distinct types of social norms exist; descriptive norms, which describe how most people behave in a given situation and injunctive norms, which indicate which behaviors are approved or disapproved in a given situation. We conform because of two social motives: the need to be liked and the need to be right. Even, there are strong tendencies to conform; individuals often resist social pressure because there is wish to maintain individuality.

Compliance involves efforts by one or more individuals to change the behavior of others. Mainly there are six principles to gain compliance: friendship/liking, commitment/consistency, scarcity, reciprocity, social validation, and authority. There are many techniques to gain conformity like door in the face, the foot in the mouth, and that’s not all, playing hard to get and the fast approaching deadline technique, complaining and the pique technique.

The most visible form of social influence is obedience- following direct orders from another person. This obedience occurs because of factors as authority figures gradually escalate the scope of their orders, they have visible signs of power, and there is little time for target persons to consider their actions in details.

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Introduction to social Psychology: Groups and individuals

**Unit seven: Groups and Individuals**

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

**7 .1. Concepts and meaning of Group**

A group is defined as ‘two or more individuals, interacting and mutually dependent on each other, who have come together to achieve particular objectives’ or ‘group are consisting two or more person who are interacting with one another in such a way that each person influence and influenced by each other’s.**’ In simple words, group means two or more individual who share common values, norms and interest.**

Group, a collection of people, may seem unique, but each possesses that one critical element that defines a group: connections linking the individual members.... Members are linked together in a web of interpersonal relationships. Thus, a group is defined as two or more individuals who are connected to one another by social relationships. Because they interact and influence each other, groups develop a number of dynamic processes that separate them from random collection of individuals.

Group exists in every organization and they affect the behavior of their members, influence the work performed by them which ultimately affect the organization. Such groups are created by the organization as well as by organization members for their own satisfaction.

**10.2. Features of the Group**

The collection individuals, group, to deserve this label should have its own characteristics that differentiate from different kinds of social units. The characteristics are simply different aspects of group process. Kurt Lewin (1948), found that nearly all groups were based on interdependence among their members – and this applied whether the group was large or small, formally structured or loose, or focused on this activity or that. In a famous piece Lewin wrote, ***‘it is not similarity or dissimilarity of individuals that constitutes a group, but interdependence of fate’***. In other words, groups come about in a psychological sense because people realize they are ‘in the same boat’. **The following are some aspects of group:**

• **Interdependence:** This is the essential feature of groups. Group members are

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Interdependent, that is, they influence one another in some way. This influence is mutual and direct. Member of the group share beliefs, values, and norms about areas of common interest

• **Roles:** Another aspect of groups deals with members functions within groups. Role is a set of behaviors that individuals occupying specific positions within a group are expected to perform. In groups, different individuals are expected to perform different tasks. They played different roles. This role exerts profound effects on person’s behavior.

• **Status:** The group has the structure that shows hierarchies and respective roles. Status is an individual’s position or rank in a group. Different roles or positions are associated within the status in the group and people are sensitive for it because it is linked with different desirable outcomes. Many people use the status to influence other members’ behavior.

• **Norms:** The group has rules that every member of the group should abide to /stand for. Rules with in a group indicating how its members should (or should not) behave. Adhering to the norms is often a necessary condition for gaining status and other rewards controlled by the group.

• **Cohesiveness:** Group members have certain level of attraction to their group. Cohesiveness is all about forces (positive or negative) that cause group members to remain in the group. Such forces could be liking for other members, similarity between members, and the desire to gain status by belonging to right groups.

Some specific attributes of the group are:

• A set of people engage in frequent interactions.

• They identify with one another unity.

• They are defined by others as a group

• They share beliefs, values, and norms about areas of common interest

• They define themselves as a group

• They come together to work on common tasks and for agreed purposes

10.3. **Group Formation and development**

Well functioning groups do not just form out of the blue. It takes time for a group to develop to a point where it can be effective and where all members feel

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connected to it. ***Bruce Tuckman has identified four stages that characterize the development of groups***. Understanding these stages can help determine what is happening with a group and how to manage what is occurring. These four group development stages are known as forming, storming, norming, and performing as described below and the skills needed to successfully guide a group through these stages are described.

**1. Forming:** This is the initial stage when the group comes together and members begin to develop their relationship with one another and learn what is expected of them. This is the stage when team building begins and trust starts to develop. Group members will start establishing limits on acceptable behavior through experimentation. Other members’ reactions will determine if a behavior will be repeated. This is also the time when the tasks of the group and the members will be decided. This stage is just orientation for group issues. **2. Storming:** During this stage of group development, interpersonal conflicts arise and differences of opinion about the group and its goals will surface. If the group is unable to clearly state its purposes and goals or if it cannot agree on shared goals, the group may collapse at this point. It is important to work through the conflict at this time and to establish clear goals. It is necessary that there should be discussion so everyone feels heard and can come to an agreement on the direction the group is to move in. **3. Norming:** Once the group resolves its conflicts, it can establish patterns of how to get its work done. Expectations of one another are clearly articulated and accepted by members of the group. Formal and informal procedures are established in delegating tasks, responding to questions, and in the process by which the group functions. Members of the group come to understand how the group as a whole operates. **4. Performing :** During this final stage of development, issues related to roles, expectations, and norms are no longer of major importance. The group is now focused on its task, working intentionally and effectively to accomplish its goals. The group will find that it can celebrate its accomplishments and that members will be learning new skills and sharing roles. After a group enters the performing stage, it is unrealistic to expect it to remain there permanently. When new members join or some people leave, there will be a new process of forming, storming, and norming engaged as everyone learns about one another. External events may lead to conflicts within the group. To remain healthy, groups will go through all of these processes in a continuous loop. When conflict arises in a group, do not try to silence the conflict or to run from it. Let the conflict come out into the open so people can discuss it. If the conflict is

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kept under the surface, members will not be able to build trusting relationships and this could harm the group’s effectiveness. If handled properly, the group will come out of the conflict with a stronger sense of cohesiveness then before.

**10.4. Why individuals join the group** There are possible reasons for formation of the groups and joining groups. The following are some Benefits of Joining of Group: **1) Sharing common interests:** If you joined a group of weekend bikers, you already know what the central topic and subtopics are. You'll probably talk about motorcycle magazines, accessories, maintenance, detailing and tuned exhaust pipes. You will also share a bunch of biking stories, run-ins with the law, and near misses that could make the hairs on the back of everyone's necks stand at attention. **2) Flow of new ideas:** Imagine giving, receiving and recommending tips, tools and pointers that foster your group's growth. You get to pool together the resources of your entire group to solve problems, share tactics and testify to success stories. **3) Minimal investment:** Most special interest groups, clubs or organizations do not charge high dues for membership. Their goal is to build a steady, growing membership. It’s when you get involved with business groups, investment clubs and marketing mentorship you can expect to pay anywhere from two- to four- figures a month. **4) Networking opportunities:** You can expand your business network and exposure through word-of-mouth marketing, referrals and sponsored events. The more people know and like you-the more business will come your way. Its easier to land the big account if someone in your sphere of influence puts in a good word for you. **5) Forming new friendships and alliances:** This is the icing on the cake. Not only do you share common interests already, but also you get to share it with people you like. And you get to look forward to deeper and more meaningful experiences the more time you spend together.

**10.5**. **The effect of others on Performance** Does an audience have an effect on performance? Performance in the Presence of others either inhibited or enhanced. Imagine you are a dancer and you are preparing for a national level stage performance for days and months, several hours each day. Finally on the big day you are on the stage with hundreds of people around. How will you do? Better or worse than you practiced alone? This was the first research topic studied in social psychology by Allport (1920). Allport and other researchers referred to the effects on performance of the presence of other persons as **social facilitation,** because it appeared that when others were present,

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performance was enhanced. But some researchers soon called the accuracy of this research into question. It was soon clear that on certain occasions the presence of others reduced performance. (Pessin, 1933) One elegant answer to this mystery was offered by Robert Zajonc. **Zajonc** gave the **drive theory of social facilitation** which propounds; the presence of others will improve when they are highly skilled. Individuals were likely to perform dominant responses in the presence of others than when alone, and their performance on various tasks was either enhanced or impaired, depending on whether the responses were correct or incorrect in each situation.

**The drive theory of social facilitation:**

Presence others: audience, spectators/viwer

If dominant responses are correct in present situation

Performance is enhanced

Heightened

Enhanced arousal

tendency to perform a dominant response

If dominant responses are incorrect in present situation

Performanc e is impaired

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**10.6. Problems in Groups**

**1. Social Loafing:**

**Social Loafing** is the phenomenon of people making diminished effort when working in a group towards a common goal. (Slacking off; let the other do it).The main explanation for social loafing is that people feel unmotivated when working with a team, because they think that their contributions will not be evaluated or considered. This is viewed as one of the main reasons as to why groups are sometimes less productive than the combined performance of their members working as individuals

Social loafing is a pervasive phenomenon, but it does not occur when team members feel that the task or the team itself is important. It can occur when the person feels underappreciated within their team or group

According to Hwee Hoon Tan and Min Li Tan, social loafing is an important area of interest in order to understand group work. **While the opposite of social loafing, called "organizational citizenship behavior",** can create significant productivity increases, both of these behaviors can significantly impact the performance of organizations. Social loafing is a behavior that organizations want to eliminate. Understanding how and why people become social loafers is critical to the effective functioning, and effectiveness of an organization

**2. Group polarization**

Group Polarization is pre-existing attitudes become enhanced when discussed within a group. (When abusive parents talk together, they feel their actions are more justified and become even more abusive.) If a group is like-minded, discussion strengthens its prevailing opinions

**3. Group Think**: People in group discussions tend to agree with whatever is being proposed in order to maintain harmony. Alternative views are suppressed even though they are better than the presented one. mode of thinking that occurs when the desire for harmony in a decision-making group overrides realistic appraisal of alternatives

**4. Deindividuation**:

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Loss of self- restraint when one is part of a large group. *It is the* loss of self-awareness and self-restraint in group situations that foster arousal and anonymity. For instance, participation in mob behavior.

**5.** C**onflict or Cooperation** The pattern behavior in which helping is mutual and both sides benefit is known as **cooperation** and involves situation in which groups work together to **attain shared goals.** Cooperation can be highly beneficial through this process group of persons can attain goals they could never hope to reach by themselves.

Some times for worse person may perceive their personal interests as incompatible, with the result that instead of working together and coordinating their effort, they often **work against each other**. In this way they produce negative results for both sides, which are known as **conflict.** Conflict is a process in which individuals or groups perceive that others will soon take actions incompatible with their own interest. Conflict has a nasty way of escalating, with a simple mistrust and quickly moving through a spiral of anger, resentment and actions designed to harm the other side.

When carried to extremes, the ultimate effects can be very harmful to both the sides.

Cooperation is often highly beneficial to the person involved. The question is then why don’t group members always coordinate their activities in this manner? They don’t cooperate because some goals people don’t like to simply share. Several people seeking promotion, same job or romantic partner cannot come together to attain the goal; rewards can go to only one. In such cases **cooperation** is not possible, and **conflict** may quickly develop in group as each person will maximize his or her own outcomes.

***THE END!***

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**7.3. Aggression**

**7.3.1. Definition of aggression**

Aggression is one of the most potential dangers to mankind. It is a greatest stumbling block for one’s self development and growth. Aggression and violence have been experienced by almost all societies and times. The two world wars, terrorist attacks, racial conflicts, communal clashes, etc., have gradually increased over the years. Whether aggression is manifested by individuals or groups (including nations), it is the most destructive force in social relations and consequently an important social issue. A major concern in either individual or group aggression is its origin.

Aggression is behavior, verbal or physical, intended to physically hurt or harm in some other way another person or anything. Two important definitions are:

i. According to Dollard et al., aggression can be defined as “a behavior whose goal is the injury of the person towards whom it is directed”. Supposedly this includes physical and verbal aggression. ii. Baron and Bryne have defined aggression that “aggression is any form of behaviour directed towards the goal of harming or injuring another living being who is motivated to avoid such treatment”.

Aggression is defined as behavior aimed at causing harm or pain, psychological harm, or personal injury or physical distraction. An important aspect of aggressive behavior is the intention underlying the actor's behavior. Not all behaviors resulting in harm are considered aggression. For example, a doctor who makes an injection that harms people, but who did so with the intent of preventing the further spread of illness, is not considered to have committed an aggressive act. Aggression is intended to injure another person who does not want to be injured. Aggression can be direct or indirect, active or passive, and physical or verbal. **7.3.2. Perspectives on aggression**

Various theories and research findings concerning the origins of aggression differ in their perspectives. These perspectives vary in terms of the degree to which they emphasize the “nature” or “nurture” origins of aggression. Perspectives emphasizing the former include those that regard aggression as an innate instinct, as a characteristic favored by natural selection and other processes of evolution, as produced by genetic heritability, and as influenced by

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biological factors such as hormones and neurotransmitters. Perspectives emphasizing the latter include social learning theory, which focuses on the influence of models of aggression. These perspectives are not necessarily mutually exclusive, and they can be seen together as illustrating the interaction between nature and nurture, or biological and social factors. **A. Biological Perspectives** One of the important debatable issues has been what role do instincts or genetic factors play in aggression. *One view holds that human beings are genetically programmed for aggression and violence*. According to this viewpoint aggression springs mainly from a built in fighting, instinct that humans share with many other species. Presumably, this instinct developed during the course of evolution because *it yielded many benefits*. **For example** fighting serves to disperse populations over a wide area, thus, ensuring maximum use of available resources. And since it is often closely related to mating, such behaviour often helps to strengthen the genetic makeup of a species by assuring that only the strongest and most vigorous individuals manage to reproduce. ***1. Psychodynamic theory*** One of the earliest instinct theories was given by Sigmund Freud which held the view that human violence stems from built-in (i.e., inherited) tendencies to aggress against others. He held the view that *human aggression is instinctive*. Freud believed that the individual has two basic instinctive drives: **Eros** (or libido or life instinct) and **Thanatos** or death instinct. He called the instinct to live and obtain pleasure libido or eros and gave the name Thanatos to the death drive. When thanatos dominates, the result is self-punishment and suicide. According to Freud, this instinct is initially aimed at self-destructions but soon redirected to others. **2. Konrad Lorenz on Aggression:** Konrad Lorenz held the view that instinct to aggress is common to many animal species. Lorenz, however, differs from Freud, since he states that aggressive behaviour will ***not occur unless it is triggered by external cues.*** Most Social Psychologists ***rejected the instinctive theories of aggression***. According to them it is difficult to give a genetic explanation of human aggression because aggression in human beings is expressed in many different forms, how can such a huge variation be caused by genetic factors. Secondly, the genetic theory of aggression is weak because ***all societies are not equally aggressive***. The frequency of aggressive actions

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varies tremendously across human societies, so that it is much more likely to occur in some than in others. Do biologically inherited tendencies toward aggression actually exist among human beings? Most social psychologists doubt that they do, primarily for two important reasons: i. First, they note that instinctive view such as the one proposed by Freud is somewhat circular in nature. These views begin by observing that aggression is a common form of behaviour. On the basis of this they then reason that such behaviour must stem from universal built-in urges or tendencies. Finally, they use the high incidence of aggression as support for the presence of such instances and impulses. ii. Second, and perhaps more important - several findings argue against the existence of universal, innate human tendencies toward aggression. Comparisons among various societies indicate that the level of at least some forms of aggression varies greatly. **For example**, more murders are committed each year in each city in the United States than in entire nations (with ten times their population) in Europe and the Orient. Similarly, the incidence of aggression seems to change over time in different societies. If aggression is indeed a universal human tendency based largely on genetic factors, such differences and shifts would not occur.

The present day Social Psychologists generally conclude that *genetic and biological factors* play little if any role in human aggression. **3. Evolutionary Perspective:** Evolutionary perspective to a great extent believes that human aggression is adaptive in nature and that aggressive acts help individuals to preserve their genetic material. Studies of mate selection among human beings as well as aggression among animals have revealed that aggression confers many evolutionary advantages among individuals of a given species and help them to successfully survive and adapt to their environment. B. **Drive Theories : The Motive to Harm Others:** Drive theories suggest that aggression originates from external conditions that give rise to the motive to harm or injure others. In other words drive theories suggest that various external conditions (frustration, physical pain, loss of face) serve to arouse a strong motive to engage in harm- producing behaviour and such aggressive drive, in turn then leads to the performance of overt assaults against others. One ***important***

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***drive theories of aggression was presented by Dollard et al***., called as Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis. 4. **Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis:**

This hypothesis was proposed by Dollard et. al., (1939), at Yale University. They stated that aggression is always a consequence of frustration and that frustration always leads to some kind of aggression. In short, it held that frustrated people always engage in some type of aggression and that all acts of aggression result from some type of frustration. Critics have objected to both the portions of the frustration aggression hypothesis.

First, it is now clear that frustrated individuals do not always respond to thwarting with aggressive thoughts, words or deed. Rather, they may actually show a wide variety of reactions, ranging from resignation and despair on the one hand to attempts to overcome the source of their frustration on the other. In many cases, it appears that, the most likely reaction to powerful frustration is depression not overt acts of aggression (Bandura 1973).

Second, all aggression does not result from frustration. People aggress for many different reasons and in response to many different factors.

***For example*** boxers hit and sometimes injure their opponents because it is a part of their job to do so, not because they are frustrated. Soldiers often attack and kill others out of a sense of patriotism or simply because it is their duty. Public executioners as well as hired assassin regularly kill individuals they do not know simply because they are being paid to carry out these actions. Thus, all aggression is not a result of frustration.

Social Psychologists have largely rejected this theory.

C. **Modern Theories of Aggression :**

**The Social Learning Perspective and The General Aggression Mode :** The two most well know modern theories of aggression are the social learning perspective and The General Aggression Model. We would discuss each of these briefly.

***5. The Social Learning Perspective:***

This is one of the most popular theories of aggression. According to it aggression, like other complex forms of social behaviour, is

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largely learned. The theoretical position that aggression is learned social behaviour has been presented in the writings of Bandura (1973), Baron (1977) and Zillmann (1979). The social learning theories have basically attempted to see how social models lead to aggression. They have studied the effect of viewing violence, especially televised violence. The social learning view of aggression also states that through direct and vicarious experience we also learn.

• How to attack others (For, e.g., through guns, blows, sticks, etc.).

• Which persons or groups are appropriate targets for aggression?

• What actions by other either justify or actually require aggression retaliation and.

• What situations or contexts are ones in which aggression is appropriate or inappropriate. Social learning perspective suggests that whether a specific person will aggress in a given situation depends on many factors, including an individual’s past experience, the current rewards associated with past or present aggression and attitudes and values that shape an individual’s thoughts concerning the appropriateness and potential effects of such behaviour.

**6. The General Aggression Model:**

The general model of aggression was presented by a group of researchers; chief among them is Anderson (1997, 2002). According to this model aggression is a result of combination of two factors: (a) situational factors and (b) personal factors.

***Factors relating to the current situation (situational factors):*** Frustration, Some kind of provocation from another person (e.g., insult), Exposure to other people behaving aggressively (aggressive models – real or those shown in the media), and anything that causes individuals to experience discomfort – such as high temperature, dentist injection / drill, extremely boring lecture.

**Factors relating to the people involved (personal factors):** These factors include individual differences of different types which we find among people. Some of the personal factors that can cause aggression in us are as follows:

• Traits that predispose some individuals towards aggression (such as high irritability, antisocial personality, impulsivity, etc.).

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• Attitudes and belief about violence (e.g., believing that it is acceptable and appropriate).

• A tendency to perceive hostile intentions in other’s behavior

• Specific skills related to aggression (e.g., knowing how to fight or how to use various weapons.

According to the General Aggression Model, these situational and individual (personal factors) variables lead to **overt aggression** through their impact on three basic processes:

***i) Arousal:*** They may increase physical arousal or excitement. ***ii) Affective States :*** They can arouse hostile feelings and outwards signs of these (e.g., angry facial expressions) and ***iii) Cognitions:*** They can induce individuals to think hostile thoughts or can bring beliefs and attitudes about aggression to mind. **7.3.3. Causes of human aggression**

Human aggression is a result of many causes acting in combination. The four most important causes of human aggression are Social causes of Aggression, Cultural causes of Aggression, Personal causes of Aggression and Situational causes of Aggression I. **Social causes of Aggression:** Important social causes of aggression are frustration, provocation, heightened arousal, exposure to media and violent pornography

• **Frustration:** Frustration is one important and powerful cause of aggression. Frustration can arise due to many factors such as environmental or natural calamities, accidents, personal limitations, lack of aptitude, others ill intentions, etc. Unexpected frustration and illegitimate or unjustified frustration produce stronger aggression. For, e.g. an employee who has been abruptly terminated from service without a reasonable and proper explanation will feel that his termination is illegitimate and unjustified.

• **Provocation:** This is another major cause of aggression. Direct provocation leads to anger. Research studies suggest that direct provocation from others, either physical or verbal, often play a powerful role in eliciting overt aggression. Provocation could be can be Condescension, Harsh and Unjustified Criticism and Teasing

• ***Heightened Arousal:*** Heightened physiological arousal, irrespective of its source, may often serve to facilitate overt

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aggression. Heightened arousal created by such sources as loud and unpleasant noises, competitive activities and even vigorous exercise has been found to facilitate aggression under “certain” conditions. **Excitation Transfer Theory** introduced by Zillmann (1983) stated that arousal produced in one situation can persist and intensify emotional reactions occurring in later situations, unrelated situations. According to excitation transfer theory the interaction of emotion and cognition causes aggression. Accordingly our thoughts can lead us to reappraise various emotion provoking events as a result of which we would reinterpret the situation and this cognitive activity in turn, may well influence your emotional reactions leading to aggression.

• **Exposure to Media Violence:** Exposure to media violence increases aggression in individuals. A large number of research studies have conclusively demonstrated that exposure to aggressive models stimulate similar behavior among observers. Similarly, research studies have also conclusively shown that exposure to violence in the mass media (films and TV), increases aggression by viewers. Exposure to media violence enhances aggression because it desensitizes an individual to aggressive acts and makes the individual aggress against others with increasing intensity.

• ***Violent Pornography:*** It means viewing sex films involving violence. A large number of research studies also indicate that violent pornography leads to aggressive behavior. Exposure to violent pornography increases the tendency of males to aggress against females. Combination of explicit sexual content and violence against women is potentially dangerous. It makes men aggressive.

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**II. Cultural causes of Aggression :**

Cultural factors also considerably influence aggression. Certain cultural practices with respect to honor, sexuality, etc., are filled with violence and aggression.

• An important concept in this area is **“Cultures of Honor”**. It refers to those cultures in which there are strong norms indicating that aggression is an appropriate response to insults to one’s honor. In ‘cultures of honor’ there are strong norms suggesting that insults to one’s honor must be avenged through aggression

• **Sexual Jealously :** Social psychological research as well as observation of scholars like Shakespeare and Freud have pointed out that sexual jealously is one of the most potential causes of aggression. Sexual jealously can be defined as the perception of a threat to a romantic relationship by a rival for one’s partner. Individuals who feel that their lover has “done them wrong” by flirting with another person often experience strong feelings of anger and frequently think about or actually engage in actions designed to punish their lover, the rivals, or both. Some studies have found that most of the blame is on one’s lover rather than the rival. It has also been found that females experience stronger feelings of anger at both the partner and the rival than males do and they are more likely to react aggressively to such betrayals. **III. Personal Causes of Aggression :**

Many personal factors contribute towards aggression, some of which includes: Type A Behavior Pattern**,** Narcissism and Ego Threat**,** Sensation Seeking **and** Gender Differences

**Type A Behavior Pattern:** The Type A behavior pattern is a pattern of behavior consisting primarily of high levels of competitiveness, time urgency and hostility. The Type A personalities are highly competitive, achievement oriented and always worried about time. They take too many activities at hand and always work against the pressure of time. Type A individuals are prone to aggressive and hostile behaviors. Type A individuals are hostile because aggressing against others is a useful means for reaching one's goals, such as furthering one’s career or winning in athletic competitions (This is called as instrumental aggression). Type A individuals also engage in hostile aggression i.e., aggression whose prime purpose is that of inflicting pain and

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suffering on the victims. It has been found that Type A’s are more likely than Type B’s to engage in such actions as child abuse or spouse abuse

**Narcissism and Ego Threat:** Narcissistic individuals are highly self- centered and hold an over-inflated view of one’s own virtues or accomplishments. It has been found that high levels of Narcissism are associated with aggressive behavior. Individuals who have high levels of Narcissism often react with exceptionally high levels of aggression to slights from others, i.e., feedback that threatens their inflated self-image. They also react in an aggressive manner to mild provocations because they believe that they are much better than other people and as a result, perceive mild critical comments from others as strong slurs on their inflated self- image. Due to their inflated self- image narcissistic individuals perceive themselves to be victims of transgressions (wrong doings).

**Sensation Seeking:** Sensation seeker is one personality characteristics. Individuals who are described as sensation seekers are ones who are highly impulsive, adventurous, seeks new experiences and gets bored quickly. These individuals seek exciting events having an element of risk in it. They are also less inhibited. Such individuals are high in aggression. Those who are high in sensation seeking are found to be highly aggressive due to following reasons: Their emotions are easily aroused; they have lower thresholds for becoming angry, attracted to situations that elicit aggression, etc.

**Gender Differences:** Research studies have shown that there are sex differences in aggression. Males are found to be more aggressive than females. Statistical data indicates that males are more likely than females to be arrested for violent acts. Harris (1994) in his research study found that males have indulged in wide range of aggressive actions as compared to females.

Gender differences are also found with respect to types of aggression. Males are more likely than females to engage in various forms of physical aggression such as kicking, punching, hitting and use of weapons. On the other hand women are found to indulge more in verbal assaults. It has been further found that females engage in forms of aggression that make it difficult for victims to identify the aggressor or even to realize that they have been the targets of aggressive behavior. Research findings indicate that males are more likely than females to engage in various forms of direct aggression - actions aimed directly at the target and which

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clearly stem from the aggressor, e.g., physical assaults, pushing, shoving, throwing something at another person, shouting, making insulting remarks, etc. Females were found to indulge more in indirect forms of aggression - actions that allow the aggressor to conceal his/her identity from the victim, and which, in some cases, make it difficult for the victim to know that they have been the target of intentional harm doing. Such actions include:

• Spreading vicious rumors about the target person.

• Gossiping behind this person’s back

• Telling others not to associate with the intended victim,

• Making up stories to get them in trouble, etc.

IV. **Situational Causes of Aggression :**

There are many Situational factors that influence aggressive behavior. Situational forces refers to the context in which the aggression occurs and weather it is viewed as acceptable in a given culture or not. There are many situational factors that influence aggression. The two most important situational factors that can influence aggression are Heat (Temperature) and Alcohol

Social psychological researchers have found a close connection between temperature (heat) and aggression. High tend to increase aggression, but only up to a point; beyond this level, as temperature continued to raise, aggression decreases. Beyond some level, people become so uncomfortable that they lack the energy for engaging in aggression or any other kind of vigorous activity.

Social Psychologists have found a close relationship between alcohol and aggressive behavior. Alcohol triggers aggression because consumption of alcohol impairs our cognitive functions of higher order such as rational and logical thinking. It makes us more impulsive resulting in higher levels of aggression.

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**7.3.4. The Prevention and Control of Violence (Aggression)**

Prevention and control aggression is a well planned strategy. Since aggression originates from a complex interplay of external events, cognitions and personal characteristics, it can be prevented or reduced. Some important techniques for preventing and controlling aggression are Punishment, Self-regulation**,** Forgiveness**,** Non-violence and others

**1. Punishment:** Punishment can be defined as delivery of aversive consequences. It is a major technique for reducing aggression. People who are given punishment: Are made to pay fines, Put in prison, Placed under solitary confinement, Receive physical punishment for their aggressive acts, etc. It is a common belief among the members of the society that those individuals who have indulged in acts of aggression needs to be punished. The main aim of punishing the individual who have indulged in acts of aggression is to deter him/her form engaging in such acts in the future. Aggressive acts which are hard to detect, For example, that involve hidden or covert forms of harming others, should be strongly punished because only strong punishment will deter people from engaging in actions they believe they can get away with. Punishing the aggressors for their violent behavior or merely threatening to do so may be a highly effective means of preventing these persons from engaging in such activities. While punishing, if the aggressor knows that he will be punished for his aggressive behavior, he is likely to control his aggression, at least to some extent. Parents as well as social institutions resort to punishment to control children's aggressive behavior and aggressive activities of the criminals. Punishment is assigned in proportion to the extent of seriousness of the aggressive behavior. It is true that punishment is sometimes quite effective. Results of several studies conducted with children suggest that the frequency or intensity of such behavior can often be considerably reduced by even mild forms of punishment like social disapproval. **Conditions necessary for punishment to be effective:** In order for punishment to be effective several conditions as follows must be met.

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• Punishment must follow objectionable behavior immediately or at least quickly. In other words punishment must be delivered promptly.

• It must be of sufficient magnitude to be aversive to the recipient.

• There must be clear contingency between individual behavior and punishment.

• Punishment must also be certain, i.e., the probability that it will follow aggression must be very high.

• Punishment must be strong, i.e., strong enough to be highly unpleasant to potential recipients.

• Punishment must also be effective. **2. Self-regulation:** Self-regulation refers to internal mechanism for controlling aggression. It involves displaying self-control and restraints. It refers to our capacity to regulate many aspects of our behavior including display of overt aggression. Self- regulation involves the use of cognitive effort to control aggression. Changing one’s cognitions and attributions about a given event can lead to reductions in aggression. **3. Forgiveness:** Forgiveness can be defined as giving up the desire to punish some one who has hurt us and seeking, instead, to act in a kind and helpful ways towards them. Forgiveness helps to reduce subsequent aggression and retaliation. **4. Non-violence:** It is an important principle of peace that has been a part of the Indian philosophy and has been advocated by Lord Buddha, Mahatma Gandhi and others. Non-violence helps to reduce aggressive acts. In public life, especially protests against the authorities, non-violence plays an important role **5. Other methods of reducing aggression:** Many different methods of reducing aggression are available. These include as follows: **Catharsis:** It refers to a view that if individuals give went to their anger and hostility in relatively non-harmful ways, their tendencies to engage in more dangerous types of aggression will be reduced. In other words catharsis hypothesis, as presented by Dollard et al (1939), states that providing angry individuals with the opportunity to “blow off steam” through vigorous but non- harmful actions will: Reduce their level of arousal, and Lower their tendencies to engage in overt acts of aggression.

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**Cognitive Intervention Strategies:** By cognitive intervention strategies we mean various forms of perception, thoughts, reasoning or inferences that will help us to change our ideas, behavior or outlook with respect to aggression. There are many cognitive intervention strategies that should be worked with professional counselor **Exposure to Non-aggressive Models:** Aggression results due to exposure to aggressive models. Similarly, exposing individuals to non-aggressive models can lead to decrease in aggression. **Training in Social Skills:** One of the reasons why individuals indulge in aggression is that they lack some form of social skill. There is a communication breakdown. Helping such individuals to learn appropriate communication skills, to learn expressive modes of frustration and to become sensitive to emotional feelings of others will considerably help to reduce aggression

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**7.2. Pro-social behavior**

**7.2.1**. **Prosocial behavior and Altruism**

To begin, we should be clear about the meaning of two key concepts: altruism and prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior includes any act that helps or is designed to help, regardless of the helper's motives. In other hands Altruism is helping someone with no expectation of reward or personal benefit, except perhaps a feeling of having done a good deed. Prosocial behavior is a much broader category. Many prosocial acts are not altruistic. The basic difference is in ***helper’s intention***. In altruistic behavior there is *no any intension of getting reward* but in prosocial behaviors there *may be*. Prosocial behavior ranges over a continuum from the most selfless acts of altruism to helpful acts that are motivated entirely by self-interest. Prosocial actions are very common in our social life.

**7.2.2. Theoretical explanations for prosocial behavior**

Social psychologists interested in finding reasons for prosocial behaviors. As social psychologists finding, there are many motives behind prosocial behavior. The following are the different views that explain helping behavior:

**1. Empathy- Altruism Hypothesis**

It refers to putting oneself in other’s shoes-understanding the situation from other’s perspective. According to this perspective we help others because we experience empathy towards them; we want their plight to end. Batson, Duncan Ackerman Buckley and Birch (1981) gave the Empathy-Altruism Hypotheses to explain prosocial behavior. Empathy Altruism Hypotheses suggested that ***at least some prosocial acts are motivated only by the desire to help someone in need***. If such motivation is strong, the helper is willing to engage even in dangerous and life threatening activity. It is difficult to experience empathy when there are many victims who are in the need of help. This is the reason why many charitable institutions mention the existence of large number of people in the need of help; they feature the photo of single child who is in the need. This allows individual for selective altruism, where helping

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one child may involve ignoring several others (Batson Ahmed et al 1999).

**2. Negative-State Relief Model :** Cialdini, Baumann & Kenrick,1981)

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

**3. Empathic Joy Hypothesis**

Helping behavior has been explained by Empathic Joy Hypothesis (Smith, Kealing & Stotland 1989). This theory suggests that helper responds and helps victims not because of empathy but because he wants to accomplish something and doing so is rewarding. The argument goes like this if we help people only for empathy, then they would not be concerned about feedback.

**4. Competitive Altruism :**

According to this view people help others because ***in doing so their status and reputation is enhanced***. Thus, the benefits incurred are larger than the cost of the pro-social behavior. Those people who help others get higher status because society will always prefer to have people who engage in prosocial behavior. If helping person has higher status then such a person may be well compensated for engaging in prosocial action. They are not only treated as a star but they may have entire buildings named after them. In general helping others is a signal to others that doing so would enhance their status. The benefits that are received are substantially more than the costs incurred.

**5. Kin Selection Theory: Evolutionary perspective**

The Kin Selection Theory (as given by Cialdini Brown Lewis luck & Neuberg (Pinker 1997) sates that helping ourselves by helping people who share our genes is possible. From the evolutionary perspective the main goal of all organisms is passing our genes to

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next generation. Therefore, we are more likely to help others to whom we are closely related rather than those to whom we are not related.

**7.2.3. Influences of Prosocial behavior**

Pro-social behavior could be inhibited or triggered by different external and internal factors. Situational factors, personal factors and interpersonal factors influence helping others. **i. Situational influence on helping others: when do people help? 1. The presence of others : Bystander Effect**

When emergency arises and someone is in need of help, a bystander may or may not respond in prosocial way. Responses can range from heroism to apathy. Individuals who take risks in less dangerous and dramatic ways to help others during emergency such as donating someone kidney, helping during war time and natural disaster like tsunami are heroes. Those individuals who are willing to help others are really prosocial and unselfish by nature. Helping a stranger in distress is called bystander intervention

There are instances, when people still behave in an unresponsive manner that shows selfishness, unconcern and apathy. These are the situations when victims are left to fend for themselves. We generally feel that more bystanders are present in any situation, more likely a victim to receive help from people. But reality is different. When a group of people that do not know each other are faced with an emergency, each individual in the group is less likely to help than if they faced the emergency alone. The presence of multiple by standards does not increase prosocial behavior rather it affects. This phenomenon is called ***Bystander effect***-the effect where by the presence of others inhibit helping.

The presence of others can lead to a decrease in helping in three ways. First, when other people are around, everyone is likely to be distracted and thus less likely to notice the emergency. Second, when other people are around, the ambiguous actions of others are often taken as cues that the situation may not be an emergency. Each person may believe that he or she is the only one who thinks it

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