

DEFINING SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY & INTERDISCIPLINARY NATURE- I

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1.1 INTRODUCTION

Social psychology is a subfield of psychology that focuses on how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by the presence and actions of others. It explores the ways in which people perceive, interact with, and are shaped by their social environment. Social psychologists study a wide range of topics related to human behavior within a social context, and their research often sheds light on the complex dynamics of human interactions.

1.2 DEFINITION

Social psychology is a subfield of psychology that focuses on the scientific study of how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are influenced by the presence, actions, and perceptions of others. It delves into the intricate ways in which social interactions, group dynamics, and societal factors shape human behaviour and attitudes.

According to psychologist Gordon Allport, social psychology uses scientific methods "to understand and explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied the presence of other human beings. "Essentially, social psychology is about understanding how each person's individual behaviour is influenced by the social environment in which that behaviour takes place.

Check your progress:

1. Define social psychology

1.3 KEY ASPECTS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY:

1. Social Influence: Social psychology explores the various ways in which people are influenced by others. This includes topics like conformity (adjusting one's behaviour to match the group), compliance (responding to a direct request), and obedience (following orders from an authority figure).

Social influence is a fundamental aspect of social psychology that explores how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are shaped by the presence and actions of others. It encompasses several key concepts and mechanisms:

- **Conformity:** Conformity is the tendency for individuals to adjust their behaviour or attitudes to match those of a group or social norm. This can involve changing opinions, adopting behaviours, or conforming to group expectations to avoid standing out. A classic experiment illustrating this is Solomon Asch's line judgment study, where participants conformed to an incorrect group consensus.
- **Compliance:** Compliance refers to the act of agreeing to a direct request from another person or group, often due to social pressure or persuasion. It involves doing something because someone asked or told you to, even if you may not fully endorse the request. Techniques like foot-in-the-door (starting with a small request before making a larger one) and door-in-the-face (making a large request first, then a smaller one) are commonly studied in compliance research.
- **Obedience:** Obedience involves following the commands or orders of an authority figure, even if it goes against one's personal beliefs or ethics. The Milgram obedience experiments, where participants administered what they believed were painful electric shocks to others under the authority's instruction, highlighted the power of obedience in social situations.
- **Norms and Social Roles:** Social norms are unwritten rules that govern acceptable behaviour in a particular group or society. People often conform to these norms to fit in and avoid social disapproval. Social roles are specific positions within a group that come with expected behaviours, such as the roles of a teacher or a police officer. People often adapt their behaviour to match the expectations of their roles.
- **Minority Influence:** While conformity usually involves the majority influencing the minority, minority influence explores how a smaller group can influence the majority. When a consistent and persuasive minority presents a different viewpoint, it can lead to gradual attitude change within the majority.
- **Informational vs. Normative Influence:** Social influence can be categorized into informational influence (when people conform because they believe others have accurate information) and normative influence

(when people conform to be accepted or liked by others, even if they don't believe the information is correct). These distinctions help explain why individuals may conform in different situations.

- **Deindividuation:** In certain group settings, individuals may experience a loss of self-awareness and self-restraint, leading to behaviours they might not engage in as individuals. This phenomenon, known as deindividuation, can result in both prosocial and antisocial behaviours, depending on the context.
- Understanding social influence is crucial because it sheds light on how individuals adapt and respond to their social environment. It also has practical implications in fields such as marketing, persuasion, leadership, and social change efforts, as it provides insights into how to effectively influence and persuade others in various contexts.

2. Attitudes and Attitude Change: Researchers in this field investigate how attitudes are formed, maintained, and altered. They study the persuasive techniques used in advertising, politics, and everyday communication.

Attitudes and attitude change are fundamental aspects of social psychology, focusing on how individuals form, maintain, and alter their evaluations or feelings toward people, objects, issues, or concepts. Here's an explanation of these key concepts:

Attitudes: An attitude is a psychological tendency to evaluate something with varying degrees of favour or disfavour. Attitudes are typically composed of three components:

- **Cognitive Component:** This involves beliefs and thoughts about the object of the attitude. For example, someone might believe that exercise is good for health.
- **Affective Component:** This pertains to the emotional aspect of the attitude, encompassing feelings and emotions associated with the object. In the case of exercise, someone might feel positive emotions like enjoyment when they think about it.
- **Behavioural Component:** This relates to behavioural tendencies or actions associated with the attitude. In the exercise example, it might involve engaging in physical activity regularly.
- **Attitude Formation:** Attitudes can be formed through various processes, including direct experience, social learning, and exposure to persuasive communication. Personal experiences and interactions with others can shape attitudes over time.
- **Attitude Change:** Attitude change is the process by which individuals alter their attitudes. Several influential models and strategies explain how this change occurs:

- **Cognitive Dissonance Theory:** This theory proposes that individuals experience discomfort (cognitive dissonance) when their attitudes or beliefs conflict with their actions. To alleviate this discomfort, they may change their attitudes to align with their behaviour.
- **Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM):** ELM suggests that the extent to which people scrutinize and process persuasive messages depends on their motivation and ability. Attitude change can occur through central processing (careful evaluation of the message) or peripheral processing (relying on superficial cues).
- **Yale Attitude Change Approach:** This model emphasizes three factors influencing persuasion: the source of the message, the nature of the message, and the audience's characteristics. Persuasive messages are more likely to be effective when these elements are carefully considered.
- **Fear Appeals:** Fear appeals involve using fear to persuade individuals to change their attitudes or behaviours. They work when they induce moderate fear and provide a clear solution to alleviate that fear.
- **Cognitive Response Theory:** This theory focuses on individuals' cognitive responses to persuasive messages. It suggests that attitude change occurs when individuals generate favourable thoughts about the message or engage in counter-arguing against their existing attitudes.
- **Resistance to Attitude Change:** People are not always easily swayed by persuasive messages. Various factors can lead to resistance to attitude change, such as preexisting strong attitudes, reactance (opposition to perceived threats to freedom), and selective exposure (seeking information that confirms existing attitudes).
- **Sleeper Effect:** Sometimes, persuasive messages may not have an immediate impact but can lead to attitude change over time. This delayed effect, known as the sleeper effect, occurs when people forget the source of the message but remember the message itself.
- **Understanding attitudes and attitude change is crucial in marketing, communication, politics, and various domains where persuasion and influence play a role. Social psychologists study these processes to gain insights into how individuals can be persuaded, how they respond to persuasive attempts, and how attitudes influence behaviour.**

3. Social Perception: This aspect of social psychology focuses on how individuals form impressions and make judgments about others. It examines concepts like stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination.

Social perception is a fundamental aspect of social psychology that involves how individuals form impressions of others and interpret the social world around them. It's a crucial process because it influences our interactions, judgments, and behaviours in social situations. Here are key components and concepts related to social perception:

- **Impression Formation:** Impression formation refers to the process by which individuals develop opinions and beliefs about others based on available information. This information can include physical appearance, verbal and nonverbal cues, behaviour, and context. These impressions can be automatic and rapid, often occurring within seconds of meeting someone.
- **Schemas:** Schemas are mental frameworks or templates that people use to organize and interpret information about the social world. They are like cognitive shortcuts that help us make sense of complex social situations. Schemas can be about individuals (person schemas), groups (stereotype schemas), or social roles (role schemas). Stereotypes, which involve making assumptions about a group based on limited information, are a well-studied aspect of schemas.
- **Attribution Theory:** Attribution theory examines how people explain the causes of behaviour, both their own and others'. It distinguishes between internal attributions (assigning behaviour to personal traits or characteristics) and external attributions (attributing behaviour to situational factors). This theory helps us understand how we perceive and judge the actions of others.
- **Fundamental Attribution Error:** The fundamental attribution error is a common bias where individuals tend to overemphasize the role of internal factors (personality, intentions) when explaining others' behaviour and underemphasize the role of external factors (situational influences). This bias can lead to misunderstandings and misjudgements of people's actions.
- **Self-Serving Bias:** The self-serving bias is another attributional bias in which individuals attribute their successes to internal factors but attribute their failures to external factors. This bias helps maintain self-esteem and protect one's self-concept.
- **Cultural and Cross-Cultural Influences:** Social perception can be influenced by cultural norms, values, and beliefs. Different cultures may have distinct schemas, attributions, and ways of interpreting social information. Cross-cultural research in social psychology explores these variations.
- **Impression Management:** People often engage in impression management, which involves consciously or unconsciously controlling the information they present to others to influence the way they are perceived. This can include efforts to enhance one's likability, competence, or trustworthiness.
- **Nonverbal Communication:** Social perception also involves the interpretation of nonverbal cues, such as facial expressions, body language, and tone of voice. These cues can convey important information about emotions, intentions, and attitudes, and they play a significant role in forming impressions of others.

- **Confirmation Bias:** Confirmation bias is the tendency to seek, interpret, and remember information that confirms our preexisting beliefs and stereotypes. It can lead to a self-fulfilling prophecy, where expectations about others' behaviour influence our actions toward them, ultimately confirming our initial beliefs.

- Social perception is essential because it shapes how we interact with others, make judgments, and navigate social situations. Understanding the cognitive processes and biases involved in social perception can help individuals become more aware of their own judgments and improve their ability to accurately perceive and understand the people they interact with in diverse social contexts.

4. **Social Cognition:** Social psychologists explore how people process, store, and retrieve information about social situations and others. This includes cognitive biases, heuristics, and the impact of emotions on decision-making.

- Social cognition is a key aspect of social psychology that focuses on how individuals perceive, interpret, and make sense of social information in their interactions with others and the world around them. It encompasses a range of cognitive processes and concepts, including:

- **Social Perception:** Social perception involves how individuals form impressions of others based on various cues, such as facial expressions, body language, and verbal communication. People quickly categorize others into social groups and make initial judgments about their characteristics, which can influence subsequent interactions.

- **Attribution Theory:** Attribution theory explores how people explain the causes of behaviours, both their own and those of others. It distinguishes between internal attributions (attributing behaviour to personal characteristics or traits) and external attributions (attributing behaviour to situational factors). Understanding attributions helps explain why people make judgments about the intentions and motivations of others.

- **Stereotyping:** Stereotypes are cognitive schemas or generalized beliefs about particular social groups. These stereotypes can influence perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors toward individuals based on their group membership. Social cognition research examines how stereotypes are formed and their impact on decision-making.

- **Prejudice:** Prejudice involves holding negative attitudes and emotions toward individuals or groups based on their perceived social group membership. Social cognition research explores the cognitive processes that contribute to prejudice, as well as strategies to reduce bias and promote tolerance.

- **Social Inference:** Social inference refers to the process of drawing conclusions about people's thoughts, feelings, and intentions based on limited information. This can include making judgments about someone's

trustworthiness, likability, or competence based on subtle cues or behaviours.

- **Heuristics and Biases:** People often use mental shortcuts or heuristics to simplify complex social information processing. These shortcuts can lead to cognitive biases, such as confirmation bias (seeking information that confirms existing beliefs) or the fundamental attribution error (overemphasizing dispositional factors when explaining others' behaviour). Social cognition research examines these cognitive biases and their impact on decision-making.
- **Social Schemas:** Social schemas are mental frameworks that organize knowledge about particular social concepts or categories. They help individuals process information efficiently but can also lead to cognitive errors when applied inappropriately. For example, gender schemas may influence how people perceive and evaluate men and women in different roles.
- **Self-Concept:** Social cognition extends to how individuals perceive and evaluate themselves in social contexts. This includes self-esteem (the overall evaluation of one's self-worth) and self-concept (the collection of beliefs about one's abilities, roles, and characteristics). Social cognition explores how these self-concepts are influenced by social comparisons and feedback from others.
- **Understanding social cognition is crucial** because it provides insights into the cognitive processes that underlie social interactions, judgments, and decision-making. It helps explain why people may form biases, stereotypes, or engage in certain behaviors in social situations. Additionally, by studying social cognition, researchers can develop interventions and strategies to promote more accurate and unbiased social perceptions and interactions.

5. Interpersonal Relationships: Social psychology investigates the dynamics of various types of relationships, such as friendships, romantic partnerships, and family relationships. Topics include attraction, love, intimacy, and conflict resolution.

- **Interpersonal relationships** are a crucial key aspect of social psychology that delve into the ways people interact, connect, and relate to one another within social contexts. This area of study encompasses several important dimensions:
- **Attraction:** Social psychology explores why people are drawn to one another. Factors such as physical attractiveness, similarity, and proximity play a role in the initial stages of attraction. The theory of "similarity-attraction" suggests that people tend to be attracted to others who are similar to themselves in attitudes, values, and interests.
- **Love and Intimacy:** Researchers in this field examine the various forms of love and intimacy, including romantic love, platonic love, and familial love. The concept of love can be broken down into components

like passion, commitment, and intimacy, as described in Sternberg's Triangular Theory of Love. Understanding the dynamics of love helps shed light on the complexities of romantic relationships.

- **Social Exchange Theory:** This theory explores how individuals weigh the costs and benefits of being in a relationship. It suggests that people are more likely to stay in relationships that provide more rewards than costs and that individuals strive for equity in terms of what they give and receive in a relationship.
- **Interpersonal Communication:** Effective communication is essential for building and maintaining relationships. Social psychology studies how people communicate, resolve conflicts, and express emotions within relationships. Communication skills, active listening, and nonverbal communication are all integral components.
- **Aggression and Conflict Resolution:** Social psychologists investigate the causes of interpersonal conflicts, including factors like frustration, miscommunication, and competition. They also explore strategies for conflict resolution, which can include negotiation, compromise, and assertiveness training.
- **Prosocial Behaviour:** Prosocial behaviour refers to actions that benefit others and contribute positively to relationships and society as a whole. Research in this area examines why people help, cooperate, and show altruism towards others. Understanding the motivations behind prosocial behaviour can lead to strategies for promoting kindness and empathy.
- **Social Support:** Social support is the help and assistance people receive from their social networks, such as friends, family, and communities. It plays a significant role in coping with stress and adversity. Social psychologists investigate how social support influences well-being and mental health.
- **Relationship Satisfaction and Longevity:** Researchers explore the factors that contribute to relationship satisfaction and the maintenance of long-term relationships. This includes studying the impact of communication patterns, conflict resolution strategies, and the development of shared goals and interests.
- **Attachment Theory:** Attachment theory examines the emotional bonds people form in close relationships, particularly in early childhood with caregivers. These attachment styles (e.g., secure, anxious, avoidant) can influence adult relationships and affect how individuals approach intimacy and closeness.
- **Understanding interpersonal relationships** is essential for improving the quality of personal and professional connections, enhancing mental health and well-being, and addressing issues related to relationship difficulties, such as divorce and conflict resolution. Social psychology

provides valuable insights into the dynamics, challenges, and joys of human interactions.

6. Group Dynamics: Understanding how individuals behave in group settings is a crucial area of study. This includes examining issues like group cohesion, leadership, social loafing, and the emergence of norms within groups.

Group dynamics is a vital aspect of social psychology that examines how individuals interact within groups, how groups form and function, and how group dynamics influence individual behaviour and decision-making. Here are key aspects of group dynamics explained in detail:

- **Formation of Groups:** Groups can form for various reasons, including shared interests, common goals, or social identity. The process of forming a group often involves individuals coming together, defining their roles, and establishing norms and expectations for group behaviour.
- **Roles within Groups:** In any group, members often take on specific roles that contribute to the group's functioning. These roles can be formal (e.g., a leader, facilitator) or informal (e.g., a peacemaker, clown). Roles help distribute responsibilities and guide group behaviour.
- **Norms and Normative Behaviour:** Norms are unwritten rules and expectations that govern the behaviour of group members. They guide what is considered acceptable or unacceptable behaviour within the group. Conforming to group norms is often a way for individuals to gain acceptance and approval from the group.
- **Group Cohesion:** Group cohesion refers to the degree of unity and solidarity within a group. High cohesion often leads to a sense of belonging and commitment among group members, while low cohesion can result in conflicts and reduced group effectiveness.
- **Social Facilitation:** Social facilitation is the phenomenon where the presence of others can enhance or inhibit an individual's performance on a task. It typically leads to improved performance on simple or well-practiced tasks (social facilitation effect) but can lead to reduced performance on complex or novel tasks (social inhibition effect).
- **Groupthink:** Groupthink is a phenomenon where group members prioritize consensus and harmony over critical thinking and decision-making. This can lead to flawed decisions and a failure to consider alternative viewpoints. It often occurs when there is strong pressure for group conformity.
- **Social Loafing:** Social loafing is the tendency for individuals to exert less effort when working in a group compared to when working alone. This occurs because individuals may feel their contributions are less noticeable in a group setting, leading to reduced motivation.

- **Group Decision-Making:** Groups make decisions through various processes, such as consensus, majority vote, or authoritative leadership. Understanding how group dynamics influence decision-making is crucial in contexts like business, politics, and problem-solving.
- **Conflict and Cooperation:** Group dynamics can lead to both conflict and cooperation. Conflicts may arise from differences in opinions or goals, while cooperation can result from shared objectives or interdependence among group members. Effective management of conflict and fostering cooperation are important group dynamics skills.
- **Group Leadership:** Leadership styles and behaviours can significantly impact group dynamics. Leaders can influence the group's direction, decision-making processes, and cohesion. Different leadership styles, such as autocratic, democratic, and transformational leadership, have distinct effects on group functioning.
- **Diversity in Groups:** The composition of a group in terms of diversity in terms of age, gender, ethnicity, and other factors can influence group dynamics. Diverse groups can bring varied perspectives but may also face challenges related to prejudice, stereotypes, and communication barriers.
- **Understanding group dynamics** is essential in various contexts, including business teams, educational settings, sports, social movements, and more. Effective management of group dynamics can lead to better decision-making, increased productivity, and enhanced collaboration among group members.

7. Aggression and Prosocial Behaviour: Researchers examine the factors that contribute to aggressive behaviour, as well as the conditions that promote helping and altruism. This includes the study of bystander intervention and the diffusion of responsibility.

Aggression and prosocial behaviour are two important aspects of social psychology that examine how individuals interact with others in terms of harmful or helpful actions. Let's delve into each of these key aspects:

Aggression:

Aggression refers to any behaviour intended to harm or injure another person physically or psychologically. It can manifest in various forms, from physical violence to verbal abuse or even passive-aggressive actions. Social psychology explores several facets of aggression:

- **Types of Aggression:** Researchers distinguish between different types of aggression, including instrumental aggression (harming others to achieve a goal), hostile aggression (inflicting harm out of anger or frustration), and relational aggression (harming social relationships, often through gossip or exclusion).

- **Causes of Aggression:** Social psychologists investigate the factors that contribute to aggression, including biological influences (such as hormones), environmental factors (like frustration or provocation), and social learning (how individuals acquire aggressive behaviours through observation and reinforcement).
- **Aggression and Media:** Studies have explored the relationship between exposure to violent media (e.g., video games, television) and aggressive behaviour, addressing concerns about whether media violence desensitizes individuals or increases aggressive tendencies.
- **Aggression in Groups:** Group dynamics can influence aggression. Factors like deindividuation (loss of self-awareness in groups) and diffusion of responsibility (where individuals in a group feel less accountable for their actions) can escalate aggressive behaviour.

Prosocial Behaviour:

Prosocial behaviour refers to actions that are intended to benefit or help others, often without expecting anything in return. This aspect of social psychology investigates the mechanisms behind why people engage in helpful behaviours and the conditions that promote such behaviour:

- **Altruism:** Altruism is a specific form of prosocial behaviour where individuals act selflessly to benefit others, often at some cost to themselves. Understanding what motivates altruistic actions, such as empathy or a sense of moral obligation, is a central focus of research.
- **Reciprocity and Social Exchange:** Some prosocial behaviours are driven by the expectation of reciprocity—helping others in the hope of receiving help in return. The concept of social exchange theory explores the idea that individuals engage in give-and-take interactions to maximize their outcomes.
- **Bystander Effect:** This phenomenon explores how the presence of other people can influence whether individuals offer assistance to someone in need. The more bystanders present, the less likely any one person may be to help, due to diffusion of responsibility and social cues.
- **Cultural and Situational Factors:** Prosocial behaviour varies across cultures and situations. Social psychologists examine how cultural norms, societal values, and situational factors influence whether individuals choose to help or not.
- **Empathy and Compassion:** Empathy, the ability to understand and share the feelings of another, plays a significant role in prosocial behaviour. Research explores how empathy can lead to compassionate actions, such as helping those in distress.
- **Understanding both aggression and prosocial behaviour is critical for comprehending how individuals interact within society and how social dynamics can be influenced for the betterment of communities. These**

areas of study have implications in fields such as conflict resolution, education, and interventions aimed at reducing aggression and promoting positive social behaviours.

8. Social Identity: This area explores how people define themselves in terms of social groups (e.g., nationality, ethnicity, religion), and how these group identities can shape attitudes and behaviours.

Social identity is a central concept in social psychology that focuses on how individuals define themselves in relation to social groups. It plays a significant role in shaping our self-concept and influencing our attitudes and behaviours. Here's a detailed explanation of social identity as a key aspect of social psychology:

- **Definition of Social Identity:** Social identity refers to the part of an individual's self-concept that is derived from their membership in various social groups. These groups can be based on characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender, religion, nationality, occupation, sports teams, or even shared hobbies. Social identity theory, developed by Henri Tajfel and John Turner, is a prominent framework for understanding this concept.
- **Categorization:** People naturally categorize themselves and others into social groups. This categorization helps simplify a complex social world by grouping individuals into "us" (in-group) and "them" (out-group). In-group members are those with whom individuals identify, while out-group members are those perceived as different or outside the group.
- **In-Group Bias:** Social identity often leads to in-group bias, which is the tendency to favour and show positive attitudes toward one's own group (in-group) while displaying prejudice or negative attitudes toward other groups (out-groups). This bias can lead to intergroup conflicts and discrimination.
- **Self-Esteem and Social Comparison:** Social identity contributes to an individual's self-esteem. People often derive a sense of self-worth and positive self-concept from their group memberships. They may engage in social comparison, where they evaluate their group as superior to other groups to boost their self-esteem.
- **Social Norms and Behaviour** Group memberships come with shared social norms and expectations. Individuals often conform to these norms to maintain their social identity and group acceptance. This can influence their behaviour, such as adopting group-specific values or participating in group activities.
- **Identity Salience:** The importance of a particular social identity varies depending on the context. For instance, an individual's gender identity may become more salient in certain situations, like gender-related discussions or events. When an identity becomes salient, it can influence behaviour and attitudes accordingly.

- **Intersectionality:** Many individuals belong to multiple social groups simultaneously, and their social identities intersect. For example, a person may identify as both a woman and a member of a particular racial or ethnic group. Intersectionality recognizes that these intersecting identities can influence an individual's experiences and social interactions in unique ways.
- **Social Change:** Social identity theory also has implications for social change efforts. By understanding how social identities influence attitudes and behaviour, activists and policymakers can work to promote positive intergroup relations, reduce prejudice, and address social inequalities.

In summary, social identity is a crucial aspect of social psychology that helps us understand how individuals define themselves in the context of social groups. It has far-reaching implications for our perceptions of self and others, intergroup relations, and the role of group membership in shaping attitudes and behaviours.

9. Cultural and Cross-Cultural Psychology: Social psychologists examine how culture influences social behaviour, attitudes, and values. Cross-cultural research helps understand the universality and cultural variability of social psychological principles.

- Cultural and cross-cultural psychology are important subfields within social psychology that focus on the influence of culture on human behaviour, thoughts, and emotions. These aspects help researchers and practitioners understand how cultural factors shape individuals' social experiences. Here's an explanation of these key aspects:
- **Cultural Psychology:** This branch of social psychology examines how culture, defined as the shared beliefs, values, customs, and practices of a particular group or society, influences individuals' psychological processes. Cultural psychologists investigate how culture affects cognitive processes, emotions, identity, and social behaviour.
- **Cultural Differences:** Cultural psychologists study the differences in cognition, emotion, and behaviour across different cultures. For example, they may explore variations in communication styles, decision-making processes, or concepts of self across cultures.
- **Cultural Universals:** Despite cultural differences, cultural psychology also recognizes the existence of cultural universals—traits or behaviours that are common to all cultures. Understanding both differences and universals helps build a comprehensive understanding of human behaviour.
- **Acculturation:** Acculturation is the process of adapting to and adopting elements of a new culture when an individual or group comes into contact with a different culture. Cultural psychologists investigate how individuals navigate this process and its effects on their identity and well-being.

- **Cross-Cultural Psychology:** Cross-cultural psychology extends the study of cultural influences to compare and contrast different cultures systematically. Researchers in this field aim to identify patterns and variations in human behaviour across cultures.
- **Comparative Research:** Cross-cultural psychology involves conducting research in multiple cultural settings to identify how cultural factors shape psychological phenomena. Researchers often use cross-cultural studies to determine whether psychological theories developed in one cultural context apply universally or have culture-specific variations.
- **Cultural Dimensions:** Researchers may use cultural dimensions such as individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity-femininity to categorize and compare cultures. These dimensions help explain cultural variations in social behaviour and attitudes.
- **Cultural Psychology and Globalization:** In an increasingly interconnected world, cross-cultural psychology is vital for understanding how globalization impacts cultures and individuals. It explores how exposure to diverse cultures through media, travel, and communication technologies affects people's cultural identities and behaviours.

Both cultural and cross-cultural psychology emphasize the importance of context in understanding human behaviour. They acknowledge that cultural norms, values, and practices can significantly shape how individuals perceive themselves, interact with others, and respond to social situations. These subfields contribute to a more inclusive and holistic understanding of social psychology by highlighting the role of culture in shaping social processes and behaviours. Additionally, their insights are valuable for addressing cultural diversity and promoting intercultural understanding in an increasingly globalized world.

10. Applied Social Psychology: Social psychology is also applied to address real-world issues, such as prejudice reduction, conflict resolution, and the promotion of social change.

Researchers in social psychology use a combination of experimental methods, surveys, observations, and field studies to gain insights into these phenomena. The findings from this field help us better understand human behaviour in various social contexts, which can have practical applications in areas such as education, marketing, healthcare, and conflict resolution.

Applied social psychology is a vital and practical aspect of social psychology that focuses on using the principles and findings of social psychology to address real-world issues and improve people's lives. It bridges the gap between theory and practice, aiming to make meaningful contributions to various domains and help solve societal problems.

Here are some key aspects of applied social psychology:

- **Behaviour Change:** Applied social psychologists work on strategies to promote positive behaviour change in individuals and communities. This includes interventions related to health behaviours (e.g., smoking cessation, healthy eating), environmental conservation (e.g., reducing energy consumption), and public policy (e.g., encouraging seatbelt use).
- **Health Psychology:** This subfield within applied social psychology focuses on understanding and improving health-related behaviours and outcomes. Researchers in health psychology work on topics such as promoting exercise, preventing risky behaviours (e.g., substance abuse), and enhancing healthcare communication.
- **Social Justice and Equity:** Applied social psychology plays a significant role in addressing issues related to social justice, discrimination, and inequality. It seeks to combat prejudice, bias, and discrimination by developing interventions and programs that promote understanding, inclusivity, and fairness.
- **Conflict Resolution:** Applied social psychologists work on strategies to manage and resolve conflicts, whether at the interpersonal, organizational, or societal levels. They may design conflict resolution programs, mediation techniques, and strategies for promoting peace and cooperation.
- **Education and Learning:** Understanding how people learn and retain information is a crucial aspect of applied social psychology. Researchers in this area develop educational interventions, teaching methods, and assessment tools to enhance learning outcomes and educational practices.
- **Consumer Behaviour:** Marketers and advertisers often draw from applied social psychology to understand consumer behaviour, including how advertisements influence purchasing decisions and how to design products that align with consumer preferences.
- **Community Development:** Applied social psychology can contribute to the improvement of communities by addressing issues like community cohesion, crime prevention, and urban planning. Researchers work on initiatives to create safer, more vibrant, and supportive neighbourhoods.
- **Environmental Psychology:** This field explores how people interact with their physical environment and how their behaviour impacts the environment. Applied environmental psychologists work on initiatives to promote sustainable behaviours and conservation efforts.
- **Leadership and Organizational behaviour:** Applied social psychology is relevant in the workplace, where it helps organizations enhance leadership skills, teamwork, employee motivation, and overall productivity. Strategies may include training programs and interventions to create a positive work environment.

- **Political and Policy Influences:** Applied social psychology can inform the development and evaluation of public policies. Researchers examine how policy decisions and communication strategies can influence public opinion and behaviour in areas like voting, public health, and social welfare.

In essence, applied social psychology takes the theoretical insights from social psychology and translates them into practical solutions to address real-world challenges. It contributes to positive social change by providing evidence-based approaches that can enhance the well-being of individuals and communities while addressing critical societal issues.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. State the key concepts and mechanisms of social influence
2. Define an attitude & state the three components of attitudes
3. Explain the Yale attitude change approach
4. Define social perception
5. What are schemas?
6. What is the confirmation bias?
7. Define group cohesion
8. What is altruism?
9. Define acculturation

1.4 HISTORY & DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY:

The history and development of social psychology are marked by significant milestones and the contributions of various scholars and researchers. Here's an overview of the evolution of social psychology:

1. **Early Roots (Late 19th to Early 20th Century):** The roots of social psychology can be traced back to the late 19th century, with the work of psychologists like Gustave Le Bon and William McDougall. Le Bon's book "The Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind" (1895) explored the behaviour of individuals in group settings, while McDougall emphasized instinctual factors in social behaviour.
2. **Gestalt Psychology Influence (1920s):** In the 1920s, the Gestalt psychologists, particularly Kurt Lewin, made significant contributions to social psychology. Lewin is often considered the founding figure of modern social psychology. He introduced the concept of "field theory" and conducted influential research on group dynamics and social perception.
3. **The Rise of Experimental Social Psychology (1930s-1940s):** Social psychology as an experimental science gained prominence during this period. Researchers like Solomon Asch, Muzafer Sherif, and Kurt Lewin conducted pioneering experiments that examined topics like conformity, group norms, and social influence. Asch's conformity studies and Sherif's Robbers Cave experiment are well-known examples.

4. Post-World War II Era (1940s-1950s): The aftermath of World War II and the Holocaust spurred interest in understanding prejudice and intergroup relations. Psychologists like Gordon Allport published influential works on this topic, and the field of social psychology increasingly focused on issues of social justice and discrimination.

5. Cognitive Revolution (1960s-1970s): The 1960s and 1970s saw a shift towards a cognitive approach in social psychology. Researchers like Leon Festinger and Albert Bandura explored cognitive processes underlying attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour. Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance and Bandura's social learning theory were major contributions.

6. Social Cognition (1980s-1990s): The 1980s and 1990s witnessed the development of social cognition as a prominent subfield within social psychology. Researchers examined how people process social information, make judgments, and form attitudes. The introduction of concepts like automatic thinking and heuristics significantly influenced this era.

7. Contemporary Trends (2000s-Present): Social psychology continues to evolve, addressing contemporary issues such as the impact of technology on social behaviour, the psychology of online interactions, and the study of social neuroscience (examining the neural basis of social behaviour). Research on topics like social identity, prejudice reduction, and social influence remains active.

8. Interdisciplinary Collaboration: Social psychology increasingly collaborates with other fields such as sociology, anthropology, and neuroscience. This interdisciplinary approach has led to a broader understanding of social behaviour.

9. Global Perspectives: As the field has grown, social psychology has become more inclusive of diverse cultural perspectives. Researchers recognize the importance of studying social behaviour in various cultural contexts, leading to the development of cross-cultural and cultural psychology.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. Create a timeline of important events in the evolution/ development of social psychology as a field

1.5 SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AS AN INTERDISCIPLINARY NATURE

Social psychology has an interdisciplinary flavour, meaning it draws upon and collaborates with various other disciplines to gain a more comprehensive understanding of human behaviour within social contexts. Here are some of the key interdisciplinary aspects of social psychology:

1. Psychology: Social psychology is a subfield of psychology, and it naturally integrates psychological principles and theories. It delves into

individual cognitive processes, emotions, and motivations to explain social behaviour.

2. Sociology: Sociology and social psychology often overlap in their study of society and human behaviour. While sociology tends to focus on broader social structures and institutions, social psychology examines how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are influenced by these societal factors.

3. Anthropology: Anthropology contributes to social psychology by providing insights into cultural variations in social behaviour. Cultural anthropology, in particular, explores how culture shapes beliefs, values, and social norms, influencing individuals' behaviours and attitudes.

4. Neuroscience: Social neuroscience is an emerging interdisciplinary field that combines social psychology with neuroscience. It investigates the neural mechanisms underlying social behaviour, shedding light on how the brain processes social information and emotions.

5. Economics: Behavioural economics is another interdisciplinary field that incorporates social psychology. It examines how psychological factors, such as cognitive biases and emotions, influence economic decision-making and consumer behaviour.

6. Political Science: Social psychology is often applied to the study of political behaviour and attitudes. Researchers in this area explore topics like political ideology, voting behaviour, and the formation of political opinions.

7. Communication Studies: Communication scholars and social psychologists collaborate to study how communication processes impact social interaction, persuasion, and the spread of information.

8. Criminology: Social psychologists and criminologists work together to understand the social and psychological factors that contribute to criminal behavior, crime prevention, and the criminal justice system.

9. Public Health: Applied social psychology plays a significant role in public health initiatives by examining factors influencing health behaviours, disease prevention, and healthcare communication.

10. Environmental Science: Environmental psychologists collaborate with social psychologists to explore the social factors influencing environmental attitudes and behaviours, such as sustainability practices and conservation efforts.

11. Education: The field of educational psychology intersects with social psychology when studying how social factors, peer interactions, and classroom environments influence learning and academic achievement.

12. Management and Organizational behaviour: Social psychology contributes to the understanding of workplace dynamics, leadership,

teamwork, and employee motivation, benefiting organizational psychology and management studies.

13. Law and Legal Studies: Social psychology is relevant to the legal field by examining issues like eyewitness testimony, jury decision-making, and the psychology of criminal behaviour.

Defining social
psychology &
Interdisciplinary
nature- I

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. State the key interdisciplinary aspects of social psychology

1.6 SUMMARY

In summary, social psychology examines how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are influenced by their social environment, including the presence of others, social norms, and cultural factors. It encompasses a wide range of topics, offering insights into the intricacies of human social interactions and behaviour.

Overall, the history and development of social psychology reflect its evolution from early explorations of crowd behaviour to a multifaceted discipline that examines the complexities of human interaction, social cognition, and societal issues. It continues to adapt and expand as it addresses new challenges in an ever-changing social landscape.

In essence, social psychology's interdisciplinary nature allows it to draw from various fields to enrich its research and provide insights into the complexities of human behaviour in social settings. This collaborative approach enhances our understanding of how individuals interact, make decisions, and respond to social and cultural influences.

1.7 QUESTIONS

2. Explain and define social psychology using Gordon Allport's definition of social psychology
3. Discuss in detail the key aspects of social psychology
4. What is the fundamental aspect of social psychology? Explain
5. Explain the key concepts and mechanisms of social influence
6. Discuss the key concepts of attitudes and attitude change
7. Define the three components of attitudes
8. What does the elaboration likelihood model explain?
9. What does the attribution theory explain?
10. State the fundamental attribution error
11. Why is social perception important?
12. Why is Group dynamics a vital aspect of social psychology?
13. Define the following: groupthink, social loafing, aggression.
14. Explain aggression and prosocial behavior as a key aspect in social psychology
15. What is social identity?
16. Discuss the key aspects of applied social psychology
17. Discuss the evolution of social psychology
18. Explain the key interdisciplinary aspects of social psychology

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CORE CONCERNS, AND EMERGING TRENDS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY & THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Unit Structure:

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Core concerns in the field of social psychology
- 2.2 Emerging trends in social psychology
- 2.3 Theoretical perspectives in Social Psychology
 - 2.3.1. Social Cognition Theories
 - 2.3.2. Social Influence Theories
 - 2.3.3. Social Identity Theories
 - 2.3.4. Social Exchange Theories
 - 2.3.5. Interpersonal Relationship Theories
 - 2.3.6. Group Dynamics Theories
 - 2.3.7. Intergroup Theories
 - 2.3.8. Prejudice and Stereotyping Theories
- 2.4 Social Cognitive Theory
- 2.5. Social Exchange Theory
- 2.6. Symbolic Interactionism
- 2.7. Social Learning Theory
- 2.8 Evolutionary Perspective
- 2.9 Cultural Psychology Perspective
- 2.10 Social Identity Theory
- 2.11 Social Constructionism
- 2.12. Self-Determination Theory
- 2.13 Summary
- 2.14 Questions
- 2.15 References

2.0 INTRODUCTION

Social psychology is a subfield of psychology that explores how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by the presence and actions of others. It delves into the complex interplay between individuals and their social environment. These core concerns of social psychology collectively contribute to our understanding of human behavior in social contexts, offering insights into how individuals interact, form relationships, and navigate the complexities of the social world.

2.1 CORE CONCERNS IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

The core concerns in the field of social psychology include:

1. **Social Influence:** Studying how people are affected by the presence and actions of others, including topics like conformity, obedience, and persuasion.
2. **Attitudes and Beliefs:** Exploring how attitudes are formed, changed, and influenced by social factors.
3. **Group Dynamics:** Investigating how individuals behave in groups, addressing topics like groupthink, social identity, and intergroup relations.
4. **Social Cognition:** Examining how people process and interpret social information, including topics such as stereotypes, prejudice, and attribution.
5. **Social Behaviour:** Analysing various aspects of human behaviour in social contexts, including altruism, aggression, and interpersonal relationships.
6. **Self-Concept and Self-Esteem:** Understanding how individuals perceive themselves and how this perception impacts their interactions with others.
7. **Cultural and Cross-Cultural Psychology:** Examining the influence of culture on social behaviour and cognition, as well as studying cultural variations in social phenomena.
8. **Social Neuroscience:** Investigating the neural basis of social behaviours and interactions.

These concerns collectively help researchers and psychologists understand how individuals are influenced by their social environment and how they, in turn, shape that environment through their actions and attitudes.

2.2 EMERGING TRENDS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY:

In the recent years, several emerging trends and areas of interest in social psychology were gaining attention. However, it's important to note that the

field of psychology continually evolves, and new trends may have emerged since then. Here are some of the emerging trends in social psychology up to that point:

Core concerns, and emerging trends in social psychology & Theoretical perspectives in social psychology

1. Digital and Online behaviour: With the increasing use of social media and digital platforms, researchers were focusing on how online interactions and environments influence social behaviour, identity, and relationships.
2. Crisis and Collective behaviour: Research on how individuals and groups respond to crises, such as natural disasters, pandemics, and social movements, was gaining importance. This includes understanding collective behaviour, social cohesion, and resilience in such contexts.
3. Implicit Bias and Diversity: Studies on implicit biases, diversity, and inclusivity were expanding. Researchers were examining ways to reduce biases and promote more inclusive attitudes and behaviours.
4. Environmental Psychology: Social psychology was increasingly applied to environmental issues, including understanding pro-environmental behaviour, the psychology of climate change communication, and sustainable behaviour change.
5. Neurosocial Psychology: Advances in neuroimaging technology allowed researchers to explore the neural basis of social behaviour and cognition. This field was growing to better understand the brain's role in social processes.
6. Behavioural Economics and Nudging: The integration of insights from behavioural economics into social psychology was becoming more common. Researchers were interested in how subtle nudges and interventions could influence social behaviour.
7. Positive Psychology and Well-Being: The intersection of social psychology and positive psychology was gaining attention. Studies were focusing on factors that contribute to well-being, happiness, and positive social interactions.
8. Cross-Cultural and Cultural Psychology: An increased emphasis on cross-cultural research was evident, exploring how culture shapes social behaviour and cognition and how globalization impacts social psychology.
9. Technology and Virtual Reality: Advances in technology, such as virtual reality, were opening up new avenues for studying social interactions, empathy, and social influence in immersive digital environments.
10. Social Neuroscience: The field of social neuroscience, which explores the neural mechanisms underlying social behaviour, was expanding, providing insights into topics like empathy, moral decision-making, and social cognition.

2.3 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Social psychology encompasses various theoretical perspectives that provide frameworks for understanding and explaining social behavior and interactions. Some of the key theoretical perspectives in social psychology include:

These theories can be categorized into several broad categories:

2.3.1. Social Cognition Theories:

- Attribution Theory: Focuses on how individuals explain the causes of their own and others' behaviour, including internal and external attributions.
- Cognitive Dissonance Theory: Explores the discomfort individuals feel when holding conflicting beliefs or attitudes and how they resolve this discomfort.
- Schema Theory: Examines how mental frameworks (schemas) influence the processing of social information and guide behaviour.

2.3.2. Social Influence Theories:

- Conformity: Investigates how individuals change their behaviour, attitudes, or beliefs to fit in with a group's norms or expectations.
- Compliance: Studies the ways in which people are influenced to agree or comply with a request or suggestion from others.
- Obedience: Focuses on the willingness to follow orders or commands, often associated with authority figures.
- Social Norms Theory: Explores how societal norms and cultural expectations shape behaviour.

2.3.3. Social Identity Theories:

- Social Identity Theory: Examines how individuals categorize themselves and others into social groups and how this impacts self-concept, stereotypes, and intergroup relations. This theory, proposed by Henri Tajfel, focuses on how individuals categorize themselves and others into social groups. It explores how group membership and identification can influence attitudes, behaviour, and intergroup relations.
- Self-Categorization Theory: Builds on social identity theory and emphasizes the fluidity of group identification and its influence on behavior.

- In-Group/Out-Group Dynamics: Investigates how people perceive and interact with members of their own group (in-group) compared to those from other groups (out-group).

Core concerns, and emerging trends in social psychology & Theoretical perspectives in social psychology

2.3.4. Social Exchange Theories:

- Social Exchange Theory: Analyses social interactions as transactions where individuals seek to maximize rewards and minimize costs.
- Equity Theory: Focuses on the perception of fairness in social relationships and how imbalances in equity can affect behaviour and satisfaction.

2.3.5. Interpersonal Relationship Theories:

- Attachment Theory: Examines how early attachment experiences with caregivers influence the formation and dynamics of adult relationships.
- Interdependence Theory: Explores how individuals' outcomes in a relationship are linked to the actions and outcomes of their partners.
- Social Exchange Theories of Romantic Relationships: Applies social exchange principles to understand the dynamics of romantic partnerships.

2.3.6. Group Dynamics Theories:

- Groupthink: Investigates how group cohesion and a desire for consensus can lead to poor decision-making within groups.
- Social Facilitation and Social Loafing: Examine how the presence of others can either enhance or reduce individual performance in group settings.
- Group Polarization: Explores how group discussions can lead to more extreme opinions and decisions than individual members initially held.

2.3.7. Intergroup Theories:

- Realistic Conflict Theory: Focuses on how competition for limited resources can lead to intergroup conflict and prejudice.
- Social Identity Theory (Intergroup Perspective): Applies social identity theory principles to understand intergroup dynamics, conflict, and cooperation.

2.3.8. Prejudice and Stereotyping Theories:

- Social Cognitive Theories of Prejudice: Investigate how cognitive processes contribute to the formation and maintenance of stereotypes and prejudice.

- **Implicit Bias Theories:** Examine the automatic, unconscious biases that people may hold toward others based on race, gender, or other characteristics.

These are some of the major categories of theories in social psychology, and many theories within each category continue to evolve and adapt as researchers gain new insights into human social behaviour. Researchers often use these theories to explore and explain a wide range of social phenomena, from interpersonal relationships and group dynamics to prejudice, conformity, and social influence.

2.4 SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY:

This perspective emphasizes the role of cognitive processes, such as perception, memory, and judgment, in shaping social behavior. It examines how people acquire, store, and use social information to make sense of their social world.

Here's a detailed explanation of the key components of Social Cognitive Theory:

- **Observational Learning (Modeling):** A central concept in Social Cognitive Theory is observational learning, also known as modeling or imitation. This involves acquiring new behaviors or information by observing and imitating others. Bandura's research demonstrated that individuals can learn from watching others, and this process plays a crucial role in socialization and skill acquisition.
- **Reciprocal Determinism:** Social Cognitive Theory posits a dynamic and reciprocal relationship between three factors that influence behavior: the individual, the environment, and behavior itself. This means that an individual's behavior can influence and be influenced by their environment and personal factors. For example, a person's behavior can shape their social environment, and the environment can, in turn, affect the person's behavior.
- **Self-Regulation:** Social Cognitive Theory emphasizes the role of self-regulation, which refers to an individual's ability to control their thoughts, emotions, and behaviors. This self-regulation is influenced by self-efficacy beliefs (confidence in one's ability to perform a specific task), outcome expectancies (beliefs about the consequences of one's actions), and self-control.
- **Self-Efficacy:** Self-efficacy is a key concept in this theory. It refers to an individual's belief in their ability to successfully perform a particular behavior or task. High self-efficacy tends to lead to increased motivation and persistence in the face of challenges, while low self-efficacy can result in avoidance or giving up.
- **Triadic Reciprocal Causation:** This principle highlights the dynamic interplay among personal factors (e.g., beliefs, attitudes, self-concept), behaviors, and environmental factors. It suggests that changes in one of

these factors can influence the other two, leading to a continuous cycle of interactions.

- **Vicarious Reinforcement and Punishment:** Social Cognitive Theory recognizes that individuals not only learn from direct consequences of their own actions but also from observing the rewards and punishments experienced by others. This vicarious learning process influences whether individuals choose to adopt or avoid specific behaviors.
- **Cognitive Processes:** Cognitive processes play a significant role in this theory. Individuals engage in cognitive activities like attention, memory, and problem-solving when they observe, interpret, and make sense of social situations. Cognitive processes mediate the influence of social information on behavior.
- **Self-Concept:** Social Cognitive Theory acknowledges the importance of self-concept, which is an individual's perception of themselves. Self-concept is influenced by self-evaluation, social comparisons, and feedback from others. It can affect an individual's self-efficacy and motivation.
- **Development and Change:** The theory is applied across the lifespan and is used to understand how individuals develop new skills, adapt to changing circumstances, and modify their behaviors over time.

Core concerns, and emerging trends in social psychology & Theoretical perspectives in social psychology

2.5. SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY:

Rooted in economics and sociology, this theory views social interactions as a form of exchange, where individuals seek to maximize rewards and minimize costs. It is often applied to understanding relationships and interactions based on reciprocity.

Social Exchange Theory is a social psychological and sociological perspective that seeks to explain social interactions and relationships in terms of costs and benefits. It suggests that individuals engage in social relationships and interactions when they perceive that the benefits outweigh the costs.

Here's a detailed explanation of the key components of Social Exchange Theory:

- **Rational Choice:** At the core of Social Exchange Theory is the idea that individuals are rational actors who make decisions based on a rational assessment of the potential outcomes of their actions. This rationality is guided by self-interest, with individuals seeking to maximize their rewards and minimize their costs.
- **Costs and Benefits:** Social Exchange Theory identifies two primary elements in social interactions: costs and benefits. These can be tangible (e.g., financial resources, time) or intangible (e.g., emotional support, companionship). Costs are what individuals invest or lose in a relationship, while benefits are what they gain from it.

- **Comparison Level (CL):** Individuals in social exchange situations have a comparison level, which is the standard against which they judge the desirability of the outcomes in a given relationship. If the actual outcomes surpass the comparison level, the individual is likely to perceive the relationship as rewarding.
- **Comparison Level for Alternatives (CLalt):** In addition to the comparison level, individuals also consider their alternatives when evaluating a relationship. The comparison level for alternatives assesses what an individual could achieve in an alternative relationship or by being alone. If the outcomes in the current relationship are superior to the alternatives, the individual is more likely to remain in the relationship.
- **Outcome (O):** The outcome in a social exchange is the result of subtracting the costs from the benefits ($O = \text{Benefits} - \text{Costs}$). If the outcome is positive, the individual is more likely to engage in or continue the relationship. A negative outcome may lead to dissatisfaction and a desire to change the relationship or exit it.
- **Equity Theory:** Equity Theory is often associated with Social Exchange Theory. It suggests that individuals strive for fairness or equity in their relationships. They aim to ensure that the ratio of their contributions (costs) to the benefits received is roughly equivalent to their partner's contributions.
- **Balancing Acts:** Social Exchange Theory acknowledges that individuals engage in a continuous process of assessing costs and benefits throughout a relationship. They may engage in "balancing acts" to maintain an equilibrium where the perceived benefits continue to outweigh the costs.
- **Trust and Commitment:** Trust and commitment play essential roles in Social Exchange Theory. Trust is necessary for individuals to believe that the promised benefits will be delivered, while commitment keeps individuals invested in a relationship even when there are occasional negative outcomes.
- **Variability of Outcomes:** The theory recognizes that outcomes in social exchanges can vary over time. Relationships may experience periods of imbalance where costs temporarily outweigh benefits, but individuals may continue to invest in the hope that the situation will improve.

Applications: Social Exchange Theory has been applied to various aspects of human behavior, including interpersonal relationships, economic decision-making, organizational behavior, and even romantic relationships. It is used to explain why people enter, maintain, or dissolve relationships.

2.6. SYMBOLIC INTERACTIONISM

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This perspective, associated with theorists like George Herbert Mead, focuses on the role of symbols and language in shaping social reality. It emphasizes the importance of communication and shared meanings in social interactions.

Social Interactionism is a sociological and social psychological perspective that focuses on the ways individuals create and interpret meaning in their social interactions. It emphasizes the significance of symbols, language, and communication in shaping human behavior and society. Here's a detailed explanation of the key components of Social Interactionism:

- **Symbolic Interaction:** At the core of Social Interactionism is the idea that individuals interact with each other and with their environment through the use of symbols. Symbols can be words, gestures, objects, or any meaningful representations that convey shared meanings. These symbols serve as the basis for communication and social interaction.
- **Meaning-Making:** Social Interactionism emphasizes that individuals assign meaning to symbols and interpret the world around them based on these meanings. These meanings are not fixed or universal but are created and negotiated through social interactions. For example, a smile can convey happiness in one context and nervousness in another.
- **The Self:** The theory places a strong emphasis on the development of self-concept and self-identity through social interactions. According to Social Interactionism, individuals come to understand themselves through their interactions with others. The concept of the "looking glass self" suggests that we see ourselves through the perceptions and judgments of others.
- **Role-Taking:** Individuals engage in role-taking, which means they mentally step into the shoes of others to understand their perspectives and behaviors. Role-taking allows individuals to anticipate how others might react to their actions and adjust their behavior accordingly.
- **The Generalized Other:** Social Interactionism introduces the concept of the "generalized other," which represents the collective attitudes, values, and expectations of society. Individuals consider this generalized other when making decisions and interpreting their own actions and the actions of others.
- **Socialization:** Social Interactionism places a strong emphasis on the role of socialization in shaping individuals' behavior and identity. Socialization is the process through which individuals learn the values, norms, and roles of their culture or society. It occurs through interactions with family, peers, schools, and other social institutions.
- **Micro-Level Analysis:** Social Interactionism primarily focuses on the micro-level of analysis, examining the day-to-day interactions between

individuals in specific social contexts. It is interested in the small-scale processes that shape social reality.

- **Face-to-Face Interaction:** The theory often highlights the importance of face-to-face interaction in the creation and negotiation of meaning. Nonverbal communication, gestures, and facial expressions play a significant role in conveying and interpreting symbols.
- **Deviance and Labeling:** Social Interactionism is also concerned with the labeling and stigmatization of individuals in society. It suggests that individuals can be labeled as deviant based on how others perceive and react to their behavior. This labeling can influence an individual's self-concept and future behavior.
- **Research Methods:** Researchers in Social Interactionism often use qualitative research methods, such as participant observation and in-depth interviews, to gain insights into the subjective experiences and meanings individuals attach to their interactions.

2.7. SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY

Developed by Albert Bandura, this theory emphasizes the role of observational learning and modeling in shaping behavior. It explores how individuals acquire new behaviors and attitudes by observing and imitating others.

Social Learning Theory, developed by Albert Bandura, is a comprehensive theory that focuses on how individuals learn from observing, modeling, and interacting with others in a social context. It goes beyond traditional behaviorist theories by incorporating cognitive processes, such as attention, memory, and motivation, in explaining how behaviors are acquired and modified.

Here's a detailed explanation of the key components of Social Learning Theory:

- **Observational Learning (Modeling):** Observational learning is a central concept in Social Learning Theory. It suggests that individuals can acquire new behaviors and information by observing others, including peers, parents, teachers, and media figures. Observational learning involves paying attention to a model's actions, retaining those actions in memory, and reproducing them when the opportunity arises.
- **Modeling:** A model is a person or source that an individual observes and imitates. Models can be real-life individuals or characters portrayed in media. Bandura's Bobo doll experiment is a classic example of modeling, where children who observed aggressive behavior towards a doll were more likely to replicate that behavior.
- **Reinforcement and Punishment:** Social Learning Theory acknowledges the role of reinforcement and punishment in shaping behavior. Observational learning is most effective when it is followed by

reinforcement or when it helps individuals avoid punishment. Positive outcomes strengthen the likelihood of behavior being repeated, while negative outcomes reduce the likelihood.

- **Attention:** Before learning can occur through observation, individuals must pay attention to the model and the behavior being demonstrated. Factors such as the model's characteristics, the observer's motivation, and the complexity of the behavior can influence attention.
- **Retention:** After paying attention to the model, individuals must be able to remember or retain the observed behavior. This involves encoding the information into memory for future use.
- **Reproduction:** Reproduction refers to the ability of the individual to mimic or reproduce the observed behavior. This requires physical and cognitive capabilities to perform the actions accurately.
- **Motivation:** Social Learning Theory emphasizes that individuals are more likely to imitate behaviors if they are motivated to do so. Motivation can be influenced by factors such as the expected rewards, consequences, and personal goals.
- **Self-Efficacy:** Bandura introduced the concept of self-efficacy, which refers to an individual's belief in their own ability to perform a specific behavior successfully. Higher self-efficacy increases motivation and persistence, while low self-efficacy can lead to avoidance or reduced effort.
- **Vicarious Learning:** Individuals can learn from observing the consequences of others' behaviors without directly experiencing those consequences themselves. This vicarious learning allows people to adapt their behavior based on others' experiences.
- **Reciprocal Determinism:** Social Learning Theory incorporates the idea of reciprocal determinism, where behavior, the environment, and personal factors continually interact and influence each other. This dynamic relationship emphasizes the bidirectional nature of human behavior.
- **Application:** The theory is often applied in various settings, including education, therapy, and advertising. Educators use modeling to teach new skills, therapists help clients modify behaviors through observational learning, and advertisers employ models to influence consumer behavior.

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2.8 EVOLUTIONARY PERSPECTIVE

Drawing from principles of evolution, this perspective seeks to understand how human social behaviors and instincts have evolved to increase reproductive fitness. It explores topics like mate selection, altruism, and aggression from an evolutionary standpoint.

The evolutionary perspective in social psychology applies principles of evolution to understand how human behaviors, emotions, and social interactions have evolved over time. This perspective assumes that many aspects of human psychology and behavior can be explained by considering how they might have provided evolutionary advantages to our ancestors.

Here are some key components and principles of the evolutionary perspective in social psychology:

- **Natural Selection:** The foundation of the evolutionary perspective is the concept of natural selection, proposed by Charles Darwin. Natural selection posits that traits that enhance an organism's chances of survival and reproduction are more likely to be passed on to future generations. Therefore, behaviors and psychological traits that increase an individual's fitness (ability to reproduce and pass on genes) should be favored by evolution.
- **Adaptations:** Evolutionary psychologists study how certain behaviors and psychological mechanisms are adaptations, meaning they have evolved because they provided advantages in terms of survival and reproduction. For example, traits like cooperation, empathy, and social bonding are seen as adaptations that helped early humans form social groups for protection, resource sharing, and reproductive success.
- **Evolutionary Explanations for Social Behavior:** The evolutionary perspective seeks to explain various social behaviors in terms of their adaptive value. For instance, mate selection and attraction are explained by concepts like parental investment theory, which suggests that males and females have different reproductive strategies due to differences in the costs and benefits of reproduction.
- **Kin Selection:** This concept suggests that individuals may be more likely to help close relatives (kin) because doing so indirectly promotes the survival and reproduction of shared genes. It can explain phenomena like altruism toward family members.
- **Reciprocal Altruism:** This idea suggests that individuals might cooperate and help others, even if they are not closely related, with the expectation of receiving help in return at some point in the future. This concept can explain cooperative behaviors in non-kin social groups.
- **Evolution of Aggression:** The evolutionary perspective also explores the origins of aggression, suggesting that aggression might have evolved as a response to competition for resources, mates, or protection of one's group. It can help explain both aggressive and protective behaviors in social contexts.
- **Sex Differences:** Evolutionary psychology examines sex differences in behavior, such as differences in mate preferences and aggression, through the lens of reproductive strategies. These differences are often attributed to ancestral roles in reproduction and parental investment.

- **Evolutionary Mismatch:** Critics of the evolutionary perspective point out that contemporary societies are very different from the environments in which our ancestors lived. This "evolutionary mismatch" can lead to maladaptive behaviors or psychological challenges in modern society.
- **Cultural Variation:** The evolutionary perspective acknowledges that culture can shape and modify behavior. It doesn't assume that all behaviors are universal or solely the result of evolution but seeks to understand how cultural factors interact with evolved predispositions.
- **Research Methods:** Evolutionary psychology often relies on cross-cultural comparisons, studies of behavior in small-scale societies, and experiments to test hypotheses about evolved psychological mechanisms.
- It's important to note that the evolutionary perspective is just one of many approaches in social psychology, and it has generated both support and criticism. While it offers insights into the potential origins of human social behavior, it is not without controversy and debate, and it is often used in conjunction with other perspectives to provide a more comprehensive understanding of human social interactions.

2.9 CULTURAL PSYCHOLOGY PERSPECTIVE

This perspective examines how culture influences social behavior, cognition, and norms. It emphasizes the impact of cultural values, beliefs, and practices on individuals' social experiences and identities.

Social psychology and cultural psychology are two distinct but closely related fields within psychology. While social psychology focuses on understanding how individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by their social interactions and environment, cultural psychology explores how culture shapes and influences human psychology, including cognition, emotion, and behavior. Here's an explanation of how these two fields intersect and interact:

1. Cultural Context in Social Psychology:

Cultural Norms and Values: Cultural psychology emphasizes the role of cultural norms, values, and practices in shaping individual and group behavior. Social psychologists often consider how cultural norms influence social interactions, attitudes, and conformity. For example, cultural norms related to politeness or hierarchy can affect social behavior differently across cultures.

Cultural Influences on Social Perception: Cultural psychology highlights that people from different cultures may perceive and interpret social situations differently due to their cultural backgrounds. Social psychologists investigate how culture influences the perception of faces, emotions, and social cues.

Cultural Variations in Social Behavior: Social psychology recognizes that social behavior can vary across cultures. Researchers in both fields study

how cultural factors can lead to variations in behaviors such as aggression, cooperation, helping, and conformity. Cultural psychology delves deeper into understanding the specific cultural contexts that shape these behaviors.

2. Cultural Factors in Social Identity:

Cultural Identity: Cultural psychology emphasizes the importance of cultural identity in shaping an individual's self-concept. Social psychologists study how cultural identity influences group membership and intergroup relations, including issues of prejudice, discrimination, and identity formation.

Cultural Dimensions: Cultural psychologists have identified dimensions such as individualism-collectivism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance, which have been integrated into social psychology to explore how these cultural dimensions influence social behavior and attitudes. For instance, individualistic cultures may prioritize personal achievement, while collectivist cultures emphasize group harmony and interdependence.

3. Cross-Cultural Research in Social Psychology:

Cross-Cultural Studies: Both fields recognize the value of cross-cultural research. Social psychologists conduct cross-cultural studies to examine whether psychological phenomena observed in one culture hold true in others. This helps determine the generalizability of social psychological theories across diverse cultural contexts.

Cultural Variations in Social Influence: Social psychology investigates how social influence processes like conformity and obedience manifest differently in various cultural settings. Cultural psychology provides insights into why these variations occur based on cultural norms and values.

4. Cultural Influences on Emotion and Cognition:

Emotion Expression: Cultural psychology explores how culture shapes emotional expression and the interpretation of emotional cues. Social psychologists consider these cultural differences when examining emotional contagion, empathy, and emotional regulation in social contexts.

Cognitive Processes: Cultural psychology highlights that cognitive processes, such as perception, memory, and problem-solving, can be influenced by culture. Social psychologists investigate how cultural schemas and frames affect the way individuals process and interpret social information.

2.10 SOCIAL IDENTITY THEORY

Developed by Michael Hogg and Dominic Abrams, this theory focuses on how individuals categorize themselves and others into social groups and

how this categorization influences intergroup behavior, such as prejudice and discrimination.

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Social Identity Theory, developed by Henri Tajfel and John Turner in the 1970s, is a social psychological theory that explains how individuals derive a sense of self and self-esteem from their membership in social groups. This theory focuses on the cognitive processes and social categorization that influence our attitudes, behaviors, and interactions in a group context. Here's a detailed explanation of the key components of Social Identity Theory:

- **Social Categorization:** Social Identity Theory begins with the premise that individuals categorize themselves and others into social groups based on shared characteristics. These characteristics can include race, ethnicity, nationality, religion, gender, age, occupation, and even sports teams. Categorization helps simplify and make sense of the complex social world.
- **Social Identity:** Social identity refers to the part of an individual's self-concept that is derived from their group memberships. For example, someone may identify themselves as a "student," "parent," "American," "Christian," or "football fan." These social identities contribute to a person's sense of who they are in a social context.
- **In-Group and Out-Group:** Social Identity Theory introduces the concepts of "in-groups" and "out-groups." An in-group is the group to which an individual belongs and identifies with, while an out-group is any group to which the individual does not belong. People tend to favor their in-group over out-groups, often leading to in-group bias or favoritism.
- **Social Comparison:** Within the framework of Social Identity Theory, individuals engage in social comparison by comparing their in-group to out-groups. They tend to perceive their in-group as superior in some way, whether it's in terms of skills, values, or attributes. This comparison enhances their self-esteem.
- **Social Identity Salience:** The importance or salience of a particular social identity varies depending on the context. When a specific social identity becomes salient (e.g., during a sports game, a political debate, or a national crisis), it can influence an individual's behavior and attitudes more strongly.
- **Social Identity and Self-Esteem:** Social Identity Theory suggests that an individual's self-esteem is closely tied to their perception of their in-group's status. When the in-group is viewed positively or when its status is elevated, individuals experience a boost in self-esteem. Conversely, threats to the in-group's status can lead to lowered self-esteem.
- **Social Mobility and Social Change:** The theory acknowledges that individuals may attempt to improve their social identity by moving to a higher-status group through social mobility. Additionally, social change and collective action can occur when individuals identify with a group

experiencing discrimination or injustice, leading them to work together for social reform.

- **Inter-Group Behavior:** Social Identity Theory explains inter-group behaviors such as prejudice, discrimination, and bias as consequences of social categorization and the desire to enhance the status of one's in-group. It suggests that these behaviors can be reduced through strategies that promote positive inter-group relations.
- **In-Group Diversity:** Social Identity Theory recognizes that even within a single in-group, there can be diversity. Individuals may identify with multiple social groups simultaneously, and their sense of self and behavior can vary depending on which identity is most salient in a given context.

2.11 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONISM

This perspective suggests that many aspects of social reality, including gender, race, and identity, are socially constructed through language, discourse, and social interactions. It explores how these constructs shape individuals' experiences and perceptions.

Social constructionism is a theoretical perspective in sociology and social psychology that asserts that many aspects of our social reality are not inherent or objective but are instead created and shaped by social interactions, language, culture, and societal norms. This perspective challenges the notion of fixed or universal truths and emphasizes the role of human agency and shared beliefs in constructing meaning and reality. Here's a detailed discussion of social constructionism:

- **The Construction of Reality:** Social constructionism suggests that reality, including concepts of knowledge, identity, and meaning, is not discovered but constructed through social processes. This means that what we consider to be true, normal, or real is influenced by our social context and cultural background.
- **Language and Discourse:** Language is a central element in social constructionism. It argues that words and language are not neutral but carry meaning and power. Through language, individuals and societies define, categorize, and interpret the world. Different cultures and communities may use language differently, leading to diverse constructions of reality.
- **Social Norms and Beliefs:** Social constructionism highlights the role of societal norms, values, and beliefs in shaping our perceptions and behaviors. These norms guide how we view gender, race, family structures, and other social categories. For example, the concept of gender varies across cultures, and what is considered "normal" or "appropriate" can differ significantly.
- **Institutional Influence:** Social institutions, such as the legal system, education, and the media, play a significant role in reinforcing and

perpetuating social constructions. These institutions can create, legitimize, or challenge societal norms and definitions of reality.

- **Historical and Cultural Context:** Social constructionism emphasizes the historical and cultural context in which social realities are constructed. What is considered normal or deviant, for example, can change over time and across cultures. This perspective challenges the notion of fixed human nature and highlights the fluidity of social constructs.
- **Social Identity:** Social constructionism is particularly relevant in discussions of identity. It suggests that aspects of personal identity, including gender, sexuality, and race, are not predetermined but are constructed through social interactions and societal expectations. This perspective supports the idea that identity is socially negotiated and can be subject to change.
- **Critique of Essentialism:** Essentialism is the belief that there are inherent, unchanging qualities that define categories like gender, race, or sexuality. Social constructionism challenges essentialist views by arguing that these categories are socially constructed and do not have fixed, universal characteristics.
- **Social Change:** Social constructionism has been influential in social justice movements. By highlighting the constructed nature of social realities, it provides a framework for challenging oppressive norms and advocating for social change. Movements for LGBTQ+ rights and gender equality, for example, often draw on social constructionist perspectives to challenge traditional norms.
- **Postmodern Influence:** Social constructionism is often associated with postmodernism, a philosophical perspective that questions grand narratives and meta-narratives. Postmodernism emphasizes the plurality of perspectives and the idea that there are no objective, overarching truths.

In summary, social constructionism is a theoretical perspective that emphasizes the role of social interactions, language, culture, and norms in shaping our understanding of reality and the construction of social categories and identities. It challenges essentialist views and highlights the dynamic, context-dependent nature of social constructs. This perspective has had a profound impact on fields like sociology, psychology, gender studies, and cultural studies.

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2.12. SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY:

This theory emphasizes the role of intrinsic motivation and the fulfillment of basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) in driving human behavior, including social interactions and relationships.

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is a motivational theory in social psychology that focuses on the factors that drive human behavior, particularly in the context of personal growth and well-being. Developed by Edward L. Deci and Richard M. Ryan in the 1980s, SDT proposes that

individuals have innate psychological needs that, when satisfied, lead to increased motivation and well-being. Here's a detailed explanation of the key components of Self-Determination Theory:

1. Basic Psychological Needs:

- **Autonomy:** Autonomy is the need to feel a sense of choice and control over one's actions and behaviors. It involves acting in accordance with one's own values and interests rather than feeling controlled or pressured by external forces.
- **Competence:** Competence is the need to feel effective and capable in one's actions and interactions with the environment. It involves mastering tasks, gaining new skills, and experiencing a sense of accomplishment.
- **Relatedness:** Relatedness is the need for social connection, belonging, and meaningful relationships with others. It encompasses feelings of connection, intimacy, and mutual care.

Types of Motivation:

- **Intrinsic Motivation:** Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in an activity for the sheer enjoyment and inherent satisfaction it provides. Individuals are driven by internal factors, such as interest, curiosity, or personal values.
- **Extrinsic Motivation:** Extrinsic motivation involves engaging in an activity because of external rewards or punishments. While external factors, such as money or praise, can drive behavior, extrinsically motivated actions may not be as sustainable or fulfilling as intrinsically motivated ones.

Self-Determination Continuum:

- SDT proposes a continuum of motivation, ranging from high autonomy (intrinsic motivation) to low autonomy (controlled or motivated). At one end, individuals are self-determined, meaning they engage in activities because they value them. At the other end, individuals feel pressured or coerced into actions, which can undermine their motivation.

Support for Autonomy:

- SDT emphasizes the role of environments and social contexts in facilitating or hindering self-determination. Environments that support autonomy, by providing choices, acknowledging individuals' perspectives, and minimizing external pressure, promote intrinsic motivation and well-being.

Basic Psychological Needs and Well-Being:

- SDT suggests that when individuals' basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied, they experience

greater well-being, positive emotions, and psychological health. Conversely, the thwarting of these needs can lead to negative outcomes such as stress and psychological distress.

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Application to Various Domains:

- SDT has been applied to various domains, including education, work, sports, healthcare, and interpersonal relationships. It provides insights into how to create environments that foster motivation, engagement, and well-being in these contexts.

Interventions and Behavior Change:

SDT has also been used to design interventions aimed at promoting behavior change and fostering well-being. By understanding the role of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, interventions can be tailored to enhance individuals' intrinsic motivation and adherence to health behaviors or other goals.

In summary, Self-Determination Theory posits that individuals have innate psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. When these needs are satisfied, individuals are more likely to experience intrinsic motivation, well-being, and personal growth. SDT has practical applications in various fields and is used to understand and enhance motivation, behavior change, and overall psychological health.

These theoretical perspectives provide different lenses through which social psychologists can analyze and interpret human behavior and social phenomena. Researchers often draw from multiple perspectives to gain a more comprehensive understanding of complex social issues and behaviors.

2.13 SUMMARY

In a nutshell, Social Cognitive Theory provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how individuals learn from their social environment, including through observation and imitation. It highlights the importance of cognitive processes, self-regulation, and self-efficacy beliefs in shaping behavior and personality. This theory has been widely influential in fields such as education, psychology, and communication, and it continues to inform research on human behavior and development.

The Social Exchange Theory provides a framework for understanding social interactions and relationships as a process of cost-benefit analysis. It emphasizes the rationality of individuals in assessing the rewards and costs associated with their interactions and decisions to engage or disengage in social relationships. While it provides valuable insights into human behavior, it doesn't capture all aspects of complex social interactions, such as emotions and social norms.

The Social Interactionism is a sociological and social psychological perspective that emphasizes the importance of symbols, meaning-making,

and social interactions in shaping human behavior and society. It provides a valuable framework for understanding how individuals construct their identities, roles, and understandings of the world through their interactions with others.

Social Learning Theory posits that individuals learn through observation and modeling, taking into account cognitive processes, motivation, and reinforcement. It emphasizes the role of the social environment in shaping behavior and provides insights into how behaviors are acquired, maintained, and modified in social contexts.

Social psychology and cultural psychology intersect in their exploration of how culture influences social behavior, cognition, and identity. While social psychology provides a broader understanding of individual and group behavior in social contexts, cultural psychology delves deeper into the specific cultural factors that shape these behaviors and psychological processes. Researchers often draw from both fields to gain a more comprehensive understanding of human social interactions and how culture plays a pivotal role in shaping them.

Social Identity Theory emphasizes the role of group membership and social categorization in shaping individuals' self-concept, attitudes, and behaviors. It helps explain why people tend to favor their in-groups, sometimes leading to inter-group conflicts and biases. Researchers and practitioners often use this theory to understand and address issues related to prejudice, discrimination, and inter-group dynamics.

2.14 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the core concerns in the field of social psychology
2. What are the emerging trends in social psychology
3. Discuss the various categories of theories in the field of social psychology
4. In detail, discuss the social identity theory
5. What is the social exchange theory?
6. Explain the correlation of social psychology and cultural psychology

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SELF AND IDENTITY & SOCIAL PERCEPTION AND COGNITION

Unit Structure:

3.0 Introduction

3.1 Key aspects of the self in social psychology

3.1.1. Self-Concept

3.1.2. Self-Esteem:

3.1.3. Self-Perception

3.1.4. Self-Presentation:

3.1.5. Cultural and Social Influences

3.1.6. Self-Identity and Social Identity

3.2 The self and identity

3.2.1 The correlation between the self and identity in social psychology

3.3 The development of self-identity

3.4 Social perception

3.5 Social cognition

3.6 Summary

3.7 Questions

3.8 References

3.0 INTRODUCTION:

The concept of the self is a fundamental topic in social psychology, as it plays a central role in understanding how individuals perceive themselves and interact with others within a social context. Social psychologists study the self from various perspectives, including self-concept, self-esteem, self-perception, and self-presentation.

3.1 KEY ASPECTS OF THE SELF IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY:

3.1.1. Self-Concept:

- Self-concept refers to the way individuals perceive themselves. It encompasses beliefs, values, attitudes, and perceptions about who we are. It includes both personal identity (unique characteristics that distinguish us from others) and social identity (aspects of our identity that are shaped by group membership, such as gender, ethnicity, or religion).
- Social psychologists are interested in how self-concept is formed and maintained. One influential theory is the self-concept maintenance theory, which suggests that people strive to maintain a positive self-concept by seeking out information that confirms their self-views and avoiding information that challenges them.

3.1.2. Self-Esteem:

- Self-esteem refers to an individual's overall evaluation of their self-worth. It can be influenced by various factors, including personal achievements, social comparisons, and feedback from others.
- Social psychologists study self-esteem to understand how it impacts behavior and well-being. For example, individuals with high self-esteem tend to be more confident and resilient, while those with low self-esteem may be more vulnerable to negative social experiences.

3.1.3. Self-Perception:

- Self-perception theory, proposed by Daryl Bem, suggests that individuals often infer their own attitudes and beliefs by observing their own behavior in a particular situation. This theory is essential for understanding how people come to understand their own preferences and motivations.

3.1.4. Self-Presentation:

- Self-presentation, also known as impression management, involves the conscious or unconscious process of shaping how one is perceived by others. People engage in self-presentation to create specific impressions or maintain a desired social identity.
- Social psychologists explore various strategies and tactics individuals use for self-presentation, such as self-promotion, ingratiation (trying to be likable), and intimidation (projecting power).

3.1.5. Cultural and Social Influences:

- The self is not a fixed entity but is influenced by cultural and social factors. Different cultures and social contexts can shape how individuals perceive themselves and their roles in society.

- Social psychologists examine how cultural norms, social roles, and group dynamics impact self-concept and self-esteem. This can lead to insights about cultural differences in self-construal, which refers to how people define themselves in relation to others.

3.1.6. Self-Identity and Social Identity:

- Social psychologists distinguish between self-identity (personal aspects) and social identity (group-based aspects). Social identity theory, developed by Henri Tajfel and John Turner, explores how people categorize themselves and others into social groups and how this categorization affects behavior and intergroup relations.

3.2 THE SELF AND IDENTITY

The relationship between the self and identity is central to the field of social psychology. While the terms "self" and "identity" are often used interchangeably, they refer to slightly different aspects of the individual's psychological makeup and are closely related.

3.2.1 The correlation between the self and identity in social psychology:

1. Self as a Component of Identity:

- The self is a fundamental component of one's identity. It encompasses an individual's perceptions, beliefs, and evaluations about themselves. In other words, the self is how a person defines themselves personally and socially.
- Personal identity refers to the unique characteristics, attributes, and experiences that make an individual distinct from others. It includes aspects like personality traits, talents, and personal history.
- Social identity, on the other hand, involves the aspects of identity that are shaped by group membership, such as gender, race, nationality, religion, or any other social category. Social identity often influences how individuals perceive themselves in relation to others who share the same group membership.

2. Self-Identity and Social Identity:

- Social psychologists distinguish between self-identity and social identity to understand how individuals define themselves in different contexts.
- Self-identity pertains to one's individuality and personal attributes. It reflects who you are as a unique person.
- Social identity, on the other hand, emerges from an individual's identification with a social group. It is based on the belief that one belongs to a particular social category and shares common characteristics with other members of that group.

- The relationship between self-identity and social identity is dynamic and context-dependent. Depending on the situation, individuals may emphasize one aspect of their identity over the other. For example, a person might emphasize their social identity as a member of a sports team during a game, but their self-identity as a parent when interacting with their children.

3. Social Identity Theory:

- Social identity theory, developed by Henri Tajfel and John Turner, provides a framework for understanding how social identity influences behavior and intergroup relations.
- The theory posits that people categorize themselves and others into social groups based on shared characteristics. They then derive a sense of self-esteem and identity from their group memberships.
- Social identity theory explains phenomena such as in-group favoritism (favoring one's own group), out-group derogation (negative attitudes towards other groups), and the impact of group memberships on an individual's self-concept.

4. Self-Esteem and Identity:

- Self-esteem, which is an individual's evaluation of their self-worth, is closely related to both self-identity and social identity.
- Self-esteem can be influenced by personal achievements and evaluations of one's personal identity, as well as by the perceived status and social identity of the groups to which one belongs.
- For instance, a person's self-esteem may be positively affected when they perceive their social group as prestigious or successful, leading them to identify more strongly with that group.

3.3 THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-IDENTITY

Self-identity development from a social psychology perspective is a complex process that involves both individual and social factors. Social psychologists study how individuals come to understand and define themselves in relation to others and the larger social context. Several theories and concepts help explain the development of self-identity:

1. Socialization:

- Socialization is the process by which individuals acquire the norms, values, beliefs, and behaviors of their culture or social group. It begins in childhood and continues throughout life.
- Socialization agents, such as family, peers, schools, and media, play a significant role in shaping an individual's self-identity by transmitting cultural and societal norms.

2. Self-Concept Formation:

- Self-concept is the collection of beliefs and attitudes an individual holds about themselves. It develops through introspection and self-reflection.
- Social psychologists emphasize that self-concept is influenced by social comparisons, or the tendency to evaluate oneself by comparing to others. People may categorize themselves as similar or different from others, which contributes to the development of self-concept.

3. Social Identity Theory:

- Social identity theory, as mentioned earlier, posits that individuals categorize themselves into social groups based on shared characteristics. This process leads to the development of social identity.
- When people identify with a particular group, they adopt the group's norms, values, and behaviors as part of their self-concept. This group membership becomes a significant aspect of their self-identity.

4. Reference Groups:

- Reference groups are groups with which individuals identify and use as a standard for self-evaluation. These groups influence self-concept by providing a benchmark against which individuals assess themselves.
- For example, a teenager may develop their self-identity by comparing themselves to their peers, their family, or a role model they admire.

5. Social Feedback and Validation:

- Social feedback from others, such as praise, criticism, and recognition, plays a vital role in shaping self-identity. Positive feedback can enhance self-esteem and reinforce certain aspects of self-identity, while negative feedback can lead to self-doubt or a desire for self-improvement.
- Validation from social groups or significant others can also contribute to an individual's sense of belonging and self-identity. Being accepted and valued by one's social groups can strengthen one's identification with those groups.

6. Cultural Influences:

- Cultural norms and values significantly influence self-identity. Different cultures have different expectations and ideals for individuals, which shape how people perceive themselves and their roles in society.

- Cultural identities, such as nationality, ethnicity, religion, and gender, can become central components of an individual's self-identity.

7. Life Transitions and Experiences:

- Life experiences, including major life transitions (e.g., becoming a parent, starting a new job, or moving to a new place), can lead to shifts in self-identity. These transitions often prompt individuals to reevaluate their values, priorities, and self-concept in response to changing social roles and expectations.

3.4 SOCIAL PERCEPTION

Social perception is a fundamental concept in social psychology that focuses on how individuals perceive, interpret, and make sense of the social world and the people within it. It involves the cognitive processes and biases that influence our understanding of others and the social environment.

Here's a discussion of various aspects of social perception in social psychology:

1. Attribution Theory:

- Attribution theory is a key component of social perception that explores how people attribute the causes of behavior, both their own and that of others. It seeks to answer questions like, "Why did this person act this way?"
- Attributions can be categorized into two main types: internal (dispositional) attributions, which attribute behavior to the person's characteristics, and external (situational) attributions, which attribute behavior to external circumstances.
- The fundamental attribution error is a common bias in social perception, where individuals tend to overemphasize internal attributions for others' behavior and underemphasize situational factors.

2. Schemas and Stereotypes:

- Schemas are mental frameworks or cognitive structures that help individuals organize and interpret information about the social world. Stereotypes are a specific type of schema, representing generalized beliefs about members of particular social groups.
- Schemas and stereotypes can influence social perception by shaping our expectations about how people from certain groups will behave. This can lead to biases and inaccuracies in how we perceive and judge others.

3. Social Cognition:

- Social cognition refers to the cognitive processes involved in perceiving, interpreting, and making judgments about the social world. It encompasses various processes, including attention, memory, and decision-making.
- Cognitive heuristics, such as availability heuristic (relying on readily available information) and representativeness heuristic (making judgments based on perceived similarity), can affect social perception and lead to cognitive biases.

4. Nonverbal Communication:

- Nonverbal cues, such as facial expressions, body language, and tone of voice, play a significant role in social perception. People often rely on these cues to infer emotions, intentions, and attitudes of others.
- The accuracy of interpreting nonverbal cues can vary, and misinterpretations can lead to misunderstandings or misjudgments.

5. Impression Formation and Management:

- Impression formation is the process of creating initial judgments and perceptions about other individuals. These initial impressions can influence subsequent interactions.
- Impression management involves efforts made by individuals to control or shape the impressions others have of them. People often engage in self-presentation strategies to create a desired image in social situations.

6. Cultural Influences:

- Cultural norms and values can impact social perception. What is considered appropriate or acceptable behavior may vary across cultures, leading to differences in how individuals perceive and interpret social interactions.
- Cultural differences can also affect the use of nonverbal cues and the interpretation of facial expressions and gestures.

7. Confirmation Bias:

- Confirmation bias is the tendency to seek, interpret, and remember information that confirms one's preexisting beliefs and stereotypes while ignoring or discounting contradictory information.
- Confirmation bias can reinforce existing stereotypes and lead to a self-perpetuating cycle of biased social perception.

3.5 SOCIAL COGNITION

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cognition

Social cognition is a broad field within social psychology that focuses on how people think about, perceive, remember, and make sense of the social world and the individuals within it. It examines the mental processes and cognitive mechanisms that influence social behavior and interactions. Here's a detailed discussion of social cognition:

1. Cognitive Processes in Social Cognition:

- **Attention:** Social cognition begins with attention, as individuals selectively attend to certain aspects of the social environment while ignoring others. Factors like salience, novelty, and personal relevance can influence what people pay attention to in social situations.
- **Perception:** Perception in social cognition involves the interpretation of sensory information from the social environment. This includes how individuals perceive facial expressions, body language, and vocal tones, which are crucial for understanding emotions and intentions in others.
- **Memory:** Memory plays a significant role in social cognition. People store and retrieve information about past social interactions, individuals, and group stereotypes, which can influence their judgments and behavior in current social situations.
- **Judgment and Decision-Making:** Social cognition encompasses the processes of forming judgments and making decisions about others. This includes attributing causes to behavior (attribution theory), evaluating the credibility of information (source credibility), and making choices based on social information.
- **Social Inference:** Social inference involves drawing conclusions about people's thoughts, feelings, and intentions based on available information. It often involves making inferences about mental states (mentalizing or theory of mind) and predicting future behavior.

2. Cognitive Heuristics and Biases:

- **Heuristics:** Heuristics are mental shortcuts that people use to simplify complex social information and make decisions more efficiently. For example, the availability heuristic involves estimating the frequency or likelihood of an event based on how easily it comes to mind.
- **Biases:** Cognitive biases are systematic patterns of deviation from norm or rationality in judgment and decision-making. Some common social cognitive biases include confirmation bias (seeking information that confirms preexisting beliefs), the fundamental attribution error (attributing others' behavior to dispositional factors), and the self-serving bias (attributing positive outcomes to internal factors and negative outcomes to external factors).

3. Schemas and Stereotypes:

- Schemas: Schemas are mental frameworks or templates that help individuals organize and process information about the social world. They guide perception, interpretation, and memory of social information.
- Stereotypes: Stereotypes are specific types of schemas that involve generalized beliefs and expectations about members of social groups. Stereotypes can be both explicit (conscious) and implicit (unconscious) and can influence how individuals perceive and interact with others.

4. Emotion and Affect:

- Emotions and affective processes are integral to social cognition. They play a crucial role in how individuals perceive and respond to social stimuli. Emotions can serve as information about the social environment and influence decision-making, social judgments, and behavior.

5. Culture and Social Cognition:

- Culture significantly shapes social cognition. Cultural norms, values, and practices can influence cognitive processes, such as how emotions are expressed and interpreted, the importance of social hierarchy, and the role of individualism versus collectivism in social judgments.

6. Social Cognitive Neuroscience:

- Social cognitive neuroscience is an interdisciplinary field that combines social psychology with neuroscience to investigate the neural basis of social cognition. Researchers use techniques like functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) to examine how brain regions are activated during social perception and decision-making.

3.6 SUMMARY

The self is a complex and multifaceted construct that plays a crucial role in social psychology. Understanding how individuals perceive themselves, evaluate their self-worth, and present themselves in social situations provides valuable insights into human behavior, social interactions, and the influence of the social environment on the individual. Social psychologists continue to explore the intricacies of the self to better comprehend the dynamics of human behavior in a social context.

The self and identity are intertwined concepts in social psychology. The self encompasses an individual's personal and social perceptions, while identity includes both personal and social aspects of who a person is. Social identity theory helps to explain how individuals navigate their self-concept and self-esteem in the context of group memberships, highlighting

the intricate relationship between the self and identity within social psychology.

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Self-identity development is a dynamic process influenced by both individual introspection and external social factors. Social psychologists emphasize the role of socialization, social comparisons, group memberships, feedback, and cultural influences in shaping how individuals define and understand themselves in relation to others and their social environment. This process continues throughout life and is subject to change as individuals encounter new experiences and social contexts.

Social perception is a multifaceted area of study within social psychology that examines how individuals perceive and make sense of the social world. It involves the attribution of causes for behavior, the influence of schemas and stereotypes, the role of nonverbal communication, the formation and management of impressions, cultural influences, and cognitive biases. Understanding social perception is essential for comprehending how individuals form judgments, make decisions, and interact with others in a social context.

Social cognition is a multifaceted area of study that explores how individuals process, interpret, and make sense of social information. It encompasses various cognitive processes, heuristics, biases, the role of schemas and stereotypes, the influence of emotions, cultural factors, and even the underlying neural mechanisms. Understanding social cognition is essential for comprehending how people navigate the complexities of social interactions and make judgments and decisions in a social context.

3.7 QUESTIONS

1. Define the key concepts of self
2. Explain the correlation between the self and identity in social psychology
3. What are the various aspects of social perception
4. Explain in detail social cognition

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FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES OF THE PSYCHOLOGY OF DECISION-MAKING & STATUS OF THEORY AND RESEARCH ON LOVE

Unit Structure:

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Definition of decision making

4.1.1 Process of decision making

4.1.2 Fundamental principles of decision making

4.2 The status of theory

4.3 Research of love

4.4 Summary

4.5 Questions

4.6 References

4.0 INTRODUCTION:

Decision making is a fundamental aspect of human behavior, and it plays a significant role in the field of social psychology. Social psychology is the scientific study of how individuals think, feel, and behave in social situations. It investigates how people make decisions when they are influenced by others, societal norms, and various situational factors. Understanding decision making in social psychology can shed light on the complexities of human interactions and provide valuable insights into social behavior. Here's an introduction to the key concepts and principles related to decision making in social psychology:

Decision making in social psychology is a complex and multifaceted process that is influenced by various social, cognitive, and emotional factors. Researchers in this field seek to understand how individuals navigate the intricacies of social interactions and make choices that are often shaped by social context and interpersonal relationships. By studying decision making in social psychology, we gain insights into human behavior in group settings and can develop a deeper understanding of the factors that influence our choices in social situations.

4.1 DEFINITION OF DECISION MAKING

Decision-making is often regarded as the cognitive process resulting in the selection of a belief or a course of action among several possible alternative options. It could be either rational or irrational. The decision-making process is a reasoning process based on assumptions of values, preferences and beliefs of the decision-maker. Every decision-making process produces a final choice, which may or may not prompt action.

Decision-making in social psychology involves the study of how individuals, influenced by social and interpersonal factors, make choices and decisions in various social contexts.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. Define decision making

4.1.1 Process of decision making:

The process of decision-making in social psychology can be broken down into several key stages:

1. Identification of the Decision: This is the initial stage where individuals recognize that they need to make a decision. The decision may pertain to personal matters, interpersonal relationships, group dynamics, or societal issues.
2. Problem Definition: Once the decision is identified, individuals need to define the problem or goal they are trying to address. In social contexts, this often involves understanding the social dynamics, norms, and expectations surrounding the decision.
3. Information Gathering: Decision-makers collect relevant information, which may include facts, opinions, and perspectives from others. In social decision-making, information often comes from interactions with peers, family members, experts, or through media and communication channels.
4. Evaluation of Alternatives: Decision-makers consider various alternatives or courses of action. In social contexts, this may involve evaluating how each option aligns with social norms, values, and the impact on relationships with others.
5. Value Assessment: Individuals assess the importance or value they attach to different aspects of the decision, including personal preferences, social acceptance, ethical considerations, and potential consequences for themselves and others.
6. Decision-Making Heuristics: People often use heuristics or mental shortcuts in social decision-making. These heuristics can include relying on stereotypes, seeking social approval, or following the actions of others as a guide.

7. **Decision Commitment:** After evaluating options and considering values, individuals make a decision and commit to a particular course of action. This decision may be influenced by personal preferences, social pressure, or a combination of factors.

8. **Implementation:** The chosen course of action is put into practice. In social decision-making, this can involve interactions with others, communication of the decision, and taking steps to achieve the chosen goal.

9. **Outcome Evaluation:** Following the implementation of the decision, individuals assess the outcomes and consequences. This evaluation can influence future decisions and may lead to adjustments in behavior or beliefs.

10. **Feedback and Learning:** Decision-makers often learn from the outcomes of their decisions and incorporate this feedback into their future decision-making processes. Social interactions and feedback from others play a significant role in this learning process.

11. **Social Influence:** Throughout the decision-making process, social influence is a key factor. Peer pressure, conformity, persuasion, and social norms can all impact the choices individuals make in social contexts.

12. **Emotional Responses:** Emotions, such as empathy, guilt, shame, or pride, can be closely tied to social decision-making. These emotions can influence both the decision-making process and how individuals feel about the decisions they make.

13. **Group Decision-Making:** In many social contexts, decisions are made within groups. Group decision-making involves additional complexities related to consensus-building, leadership, power dynamics, and collective influence.

Social psychology recognizes that individuals are not isolated decision-makers but are deeply embedded in social networks and influenced by the beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors of others. Understanding the intricacies of social decision-making is essential for comprehending how individuals navigate social relationships, conform to or challenge social norms, and contribute to group dynamics and societal outcomes.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

2. State the process of decision making

4.1.2 Fundamental principles of decision making

The psychology of decision-making is a complex field that examines how individuals make choices and decisions in various situations. There are several fundamental principles and concepts that underlie the study of decision-making in psychology. These principles include:

1. **Bounded Rationality:** This concept, introduced by Herbert Simon, suggests that individuals have cognitive limitations that prevent them from making perfectly rational decisions. Instead, people use heuristics and shortcuts to simplify complex decision-making processes.
2. **Utility:** Decision-makers seek to maximize their utility, which represents the satisfaction or benefit they gain from a decision. Utility can be influenced by both objective factors and individual preferences.
3. **Prospect Theory:** Developed by Daniel Kahneman and Amos Tversky, this theory suggests that people evaluate potential outcomes of decisions based on perceived gains and losses relative to a reference point, rather than in absolute terms. Loss aversion, for example, can lead individuals to make choices to avoid losses rather than seeking gains.
4. **Risk and Uncertainty:** Decision-makers often face situations involving risk and uncertainty. Risk refers to situations where probabilities are known, while uncertainty arises when probabilities are unclear or unknown. How individuals perceive and respond to risk and uncertainty varies.
5. **Confirmation Bias:** People tend to seek out and interpret information in a way that confirms their preexisting beliefs or preferences. This bias can affect decision-making by limiting exposure to alternative viewpoints and information.
6. **Anchoring:** Anchoring is a cognitive bias where individuals rely heavily on the first piece of information encountered (the "anchor") when making decisions. Subsequent information is often evaluated in relation to this initial anchor.
7. **Availability Heuristic:** This heuristic involves making judgments and decisions based on the ease with which relevant information comes to mind. If an event or outcome is more readily recalled, it is often perceived as more likely, even if it's not necessarily the case.
8. **Sunk Cost Fallacy:** People sometimes continue to invest time, money, or effort into a decision simply because they have already invested in it (sunk costs), even when it's not rational to do so. This can lead to poor decision-making.
9. **Overconfidence:** Many individuals overestimate their own knowledge, abilities, and the accuracy of their predictions. Overconfidence can lead to excessive risk-taking and suboptimal decisions.
10. **Emotional Influence:** Emotions play a significant role in decision-making. Emotions such as fear, anger, and excitement can impact judgment and lead to impulsive or irrational choices.
11. **Social Influence:** Social and cultural factors can significantly affect decision-making. Peer pressure, social norms, and cultural values can influence individual choices.

12. Cognitive Biases: Various cognitive biases, such as confirmation bias, anchoring, and availability heuristic, can lead to systematic errors in judgment and decision-making.

13. Dual-Process Theory: This theory posits that there are two modes of thinking: intuitive (automatic and fast) and analytical (slow and deliberate). Decision-making often involves a combination of these processes, with the balance depending on the situation and individual.

14. Temporal Discounting: People tend to place less value on future rewards or costs compared to immediate ones. This can lead to impulsive decision-making that prioritizes short-term gains over long-term benefits.

Understanding these fundamental principles of the psychology of decision-making can help individuals and researchers better comprehend why people make the choices they do and develop strategies for improving decision quality and avoiding common pitfalls.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

3. What are the fundamental principles of decision making?

4.2 THE STATUS OF THEORY

The status of theory in social psychology can vary depending on several factors, including its relevance, empirical support, and acceptance within the field. Social psychology is a dynamic and evolving discipline, and the status of theories within it can change over time. Here are some key aspects that influence the status of theories in social psychology:

1. Empirical Support: One of the primary criteria for evaluating the status of a theory in social psychology is the extent to which it is supported by empirical research. Theories that have a robust body of empirical evidence to support their key propositions are generally held in higher regard. Researchers often conduct experiments, surveys, and observational studies to test and refine social psychological theories.

2. Relevance: The status of a theory also depends on its relevance to contemporary issues and questions in the field. Theories that can explain and address current social phenomena are more likely to be influential. Social psychology is responsive to changes in society, and theories that can shed light on pressing social issues tend to gain prominence.

3. Theoretical Integration: Theoretical integration involves connecting and synthesizing different theories and concepts within social psychology. Theories that can be integrated with other well-established theories to provide a more comprehensive understanding of social behavior tend to have a higher status.

4. Popularity and Citation: The frequency with which a theory is cited in research papers and textbooks can be an indicator of its status. The more frequently a theory is referenced, the more influential it is considered to be within the field.

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5. **Historical Significance:** Some theories in social psychology are considered classics due to their historical significance. These theories laid the foundation for the field and continue to be influential. Examples include Kurt Lewin's field theory, Festinger's cognitive dissonance theory, and Milgram's obedience studies.

6. **Controversy and Debate:** The status of a theory can also be influenced by controversy and debate within the field. Controversial theories may attract attention and discussion, which can shape their status. Some theories may be considered groundbreaking but also face criticism or alternative interpretations.

7. **Practical Applications:** The application of social psychological theories to real-world problems and interventions can enhance their status. Theories that have practical implications for addressing social issues, improving relationships, or promoting positive social change are often valued.

8. **Cross-Cultural Validity:** Theories that have cross-cultural validity, meaning they apply to a wide range of cultural contexts, are highly regarded. Social psychology is increasingly focused on understanding the universality and cultural variations in social behavior.

9. **Evolution and Adaptation:** Social psychology is not static, and theories may need to evolve and adapt to new research findings and societal changes. Theories that can accommodate new data and insights tend to maintain their relevance and status.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

4. Describe the theory of status

4.3 RESEARCH OF LOVE

Research on love is a fascinating and integral part of social psychology. Love is a complex and multifaceted emotion that plays a central role in human social interactions and relationships. Social psychologists investigate various aspects of love, including its nature, development, impact on behavior, and the factors that influence it. Here are some key areas of research on love within social psychology:

1. **Types of Love:** Psychologist Robert Sternberg proposed the Triangular Theory of Love, which identifies three components of love: intimacy, passion, and commitment. Researchers in social psychology explore how these components combine to form different types of love, such as romantic love, companionate love, and consummate love.

2. **Attachment Theory:** Attachment theory, developed by John Bowlby and expanded upon by Mary Ainsworth, examines the bonds people form with significant others. Social psychologists study how early attachment experiences with caregivers influence later romantic relationships and attachment styles, such as secure, anxious, or avoidant.

3. Love and Attraction: Researchers investigate the factors that contribute to romantic attraction. This includes physical attractiveness, similarity in attitudes and values, proximity, and the role of social norms and cultural factors in shaping romantic preferences.

4. Love and Relationships: Social psychology explores how love influences various aspects of romantic relationships, including communication, conflict resolution, satisfaction, and stability. Research also delves into the impact of love on the quality and longevity of relationships.

5. Love and Social Influence: Social psychologists examine how love and romantic relationships can be influenced by external factors such as peer pressure, social norms, and media portrayals of love. This research helps us understand how societal expectations can shape our experiences of love.

6. Love and Well-Being: Love is often associated with positive emotions and well-being. Studies explore the links between love and mental health, happiness, and life satisfaction. Healthy relationships are associated with better psychological and physical health outcomes.

7. Love and Culture: Cross-cultural research investigates how love and romantic relationships vary across different cultures. Cultural norms, values, and traditions play a significant role in shaping how love is experienced and expressed.

8. Love and Evolution: Evolutionary psychology provides insights into the evolutionary origins of love and mate selection. Research examines how evolutionary processes have shaped human mating strategies, preferences, and behaviors related to love.

9. Love and Gender: Social psychologists explore gender differences and similarities in love and romantic relationships. This includes the study of gender roles, stereotypes, and the impact of gender on relationship dynamics.

10. Love and Technology: In the digital age, researchers examine how technology, particularly online dating and social media, has influenced the initiation and maintenance of romantic relationships. This research helps us understand how technology is changing the landscape of love and dating.

11. Love and Well-Being: Studies on the connections between love and well-being have shown that positive, supportive relationships can enhance overall life satisfaction, mental health, and even physical health. Conversely, the absence of love or the presence of unhealthy relationships can have detrimental effects.

4.4 SUMMARY:

The psychology of decision-making is a complex field that explores how individuals make choices and judgments. The fundamental principles illustrate the multifaceted nature of decision-making and how it is influenced by cognitive, emotional, social, and even neurological factors. Researchers in psychology continue to explore these principles to gain deeper insights into how individuals navigate the choices they face in various aspects of life.

It's important to note that the status of theories in social psychology can be fluid, with some theories gaining or losing prominence over time as new research emerges and societal contexts shift. Researchers in the field continually evaluate, refine, and challenge existing theories to deepen our understanding of social behavior.

Overall, research on love in social psychology provides valuable insights into one of the most fundamental and universal human experiences. It helps us understand the dynamics of romantic relationships, the factors that contribute to successful and satisfying partnerships, and the ways in which love influences our thoughts, emotions, and behaviors in social contexts.

4.5 QUESTIONS:

1. Define and explain the process of decision making
2. What are the fundamental principles of decision making? Explain
3. Explain the status of theory
4. Discuss the key areas of research on love within social psychology

4.6 REFERENCES

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ATTITUDE, PERSUASION AND INTERGROUP CONFLICT, NEGOTIATION

Unit Structure:

5.0 Objective

5.1 Introduction to Attitude

5.2 Development of Attitude

5.3 Components of Attitude

5.4 Attitudes - Predictors of Behaviour

5.4.1 Attitude-behaviour relationship

5.5. Introduction to Persuasion

5.5.1 Models of Persuasion

5.6. Intergroup conflict

5.6.1 Development of Intergroup conflict

5.6.2 Resolving Intergroup Conflict

5.6.3 Negotiation

5.7 Summery

5.8 Questions

5.9 References

5.0 OBJECTIVES:

- 1) The learner will be able to understate the nature, component of attitudes
- 2) The learner will be able to understand the relationship between attitudes and behaviour
- 3) The learner will be able to describe the various models of persuasion
- 4) The learner will be able to understand the nature of intergroup conflict
- 5) The learn will be able to describe the techniques for intergroup conflict negotiation

5.1 INTRODUCTION :

Dear learners, let us study the concept of attitude in this unit. The term attitude refers to your opinion about marriage, your views about which party to vote for, your views about eating meat. According to psychologists attitudes are learned tendency to evaluate things in certain way. Attitudes are our evaluations or feelings toward a person, idea, or object and typically are favourable or unfavourable. ‘ I feel nice when I recycle my old stuff’, ‘One must recycle to reduce garbage’, ‘Using recycled products is good for the environment’ from these statements we can say that this person has a positive attitude towards recycling. statements are example of a person holding positive or we can say positive attitude towards recycling. Attitude can strongly influence behaviours and affect. Attitudes which one is aware of can be termed as explicit attitudes and attitude which operate at the conscious level is known as implicit attitude.

5.2 DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDE

How do you feel about a dress code in college, telemarketers, eating street food, people who talk over the cell while driving, gifting a doll to a boy. Most of us have attitudes about these aspects of our lives. Let us try to understand where do these attitudes come from, how are they developed? Are these developed only by our experiences or do we learn them from others. Many of our attitudes develop as a part of social learning in which we acquire new information, behaviours or attitudes from other people. Now, let us now discuss about how are attitudes formed.

According to some psychologists, attitudes are developed through a process of socialisation. Socialisation is a life long process in which an individual learns from environmental sources like, parents, family members, friends, media. This learning shapes our feelings about things, these feelings shape our attitudes.

Attitudes can be formed through classical conditioning. For example; television advertisers may form a favourable attitude toward a sport drink by showing the drink with young people enjoying on the beach. Classical conditioning is a process of learning in which one stimulus which is neutral (does not evoke a response) acquires a capacity to evoke a response through repeated pairing with another stimulus.

If a person is reinforced either through reward or pleasant experiences or discouraged through negative unpleasant experiences, forming of attitudes is through instrumental conditioning. For example, if parents praises a child for completing home work on time will develop favourable attitude towards home work.

Attitudes are also formed by observing others, comparing ones attitude with the reference group, which a person identifies with and whose opinions we value.

Apart from learning from others, the nature of personal experiences with people, objects, events shape our attitudes. If we have pleasant experiences, it will lead to positive attitudes. Similarly bad experiences lead to negative attitude formation.

5.3 COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDE

Attitude comprises of three component namely; affective, cognitive and behavioural. Affective component which is; how you feel about the object, person, issue or event.

Cognitive component is the the thoughts and beliefs one has regarding the subject. And the third component of attitude is behavioural component, which is how attitudes influence your actions or behaviour. The three components of attitudes may vary. Some attitudes are primarily affective in nature, when we say ‘ I am scared of cockroaches’ , you may be aware that cockroaches will not harm you, they are small in size, these cognitive reasoning may not help you to change the attitude you have towards cockroaches. An electric car is cost effective, low maintenance, zero emission, tax benefit, all these aspects are the cognitive component attitude regarding buying an electric car. It is not that how you feel about the car ; rather, it is simply factual benefits of buying a car.

Greater consistency between the cognitive and affective components is associated with greater attitude stability and resistance to persuasion. Greater consistency is also associated with a stronger relationship between attitude and behaviour,

5.4 ATTITUDES - PREDICTORS OF BEHAVIOUR

We may have a favourable attitude towards exercise and understand the importance of it for a healthy living, inspite of this we may not exercise. Let us discuss about the conditions in which our attitude will predict behaviour. Generally it is believed that strong attitudes predict behaviour. As we have seen above that attitudes have three components, cognitive, affective and behaviour. From this perspective, cognitive and affective components can vary from person to persona as an overall evaluation. Rosenberg work showed that high cognitive consistency of an attitude may predict behaviour.

Assessibility of the attitude- We hold many attitudes, some are in our conscious awareness and others may not be in our conscious awareness but situations, events may triggers attitudes, for example, An unknown and lonely street, with low street lights, can activate fear or feelings of uneasiness as it activates a stereotypical picture of danger in our minds. As proposed by Regan and Fazio, direct behavioural experiences with the attitudinal object will strengthen accessibility of an attitude. Apart from direct experience, repeated expression may also increase accessibility of an attitude and will be seen in behaviour.

Another predictor of attitude -behaviour link is the cognitive efforts that a person takes to form the attitude. Attitudes formed via effortful processing (central route) is more likely to lead to behaviour, this aspect we will further explore in the topic on persuasion.

Personality variables like self monitoring, self awareness may affect the attitude strength, relative importance of attitude and consistency of behaviour. People who are low in self monitoring whose social behaviour is reflective of their inner thought processes show higher attitude behaviour consistency than people with high self monitoring. People who are high in self awareness will more like exhibit behaviour according to their attitudes as they will be accessed and use more for behavioural decision.

5.4.1 Attitude-behaviour relationship

The reason action model was proposed by Fishbein & Ajzen. According to these models, if there is behavioural intention then it will translate into behaviour. The behavioural intention arises from 1) an attitude about performing at the behaviour 2) the perceived social consequences of the behaviour or subjective norms. For example, a person may believe that his daughter thinks he should buy a new car but his wife strongly disapproves of buying a car, he would be motivated to agree to the wife. Not complying to his wife would be negative and would weaken the intention of buying the car. The extension of the theory of reasoned action, known as theory of planned behaviour, added the variable of perceived behavioural control. For example, a person who thinks it will not be easy to climb the mountain, will be less likely to succeed if she starts to climb the mountain. Thus, if she perceived behaviour control is not seen, even if a person acts will not result in the targeted behaviour.

5.5 INTRODUCTION TO PERSUASION

Persuasion is a communication to change the attitude of audience towards an object, practice or ideas. Persuasion through mental efforts an active attempt by one person to change another person's attitudes, beliefs, or emotions associated with some issue, person, concept, or object. Speeches, seminars, written articles, advertisement carry persuasive message to convince people to change their attitudes.

Research on attitudes has showed that positive or negative evaluations of events, people, situation can be result of novel stimuli being paired repeatedly with unconditional stimuli will elicit either a positive or negative stimuli.

5.5.1 - Models of Persuasion:

The process of attitude change has been explained by various persuasion models.

A) The information processing model- this model developed by McGuire gives stages of persuasive communication. According to the model impact

of persuasive message involves 5 steps 1)attention 2) comprehension 3) yielding 4) retention and 5) behaviour. To change attitude of the recipient of the message must go through the above mentioned stages.

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B) According to the cognitive response model proposed by Greenwald and his colleagues merely reception of persuasive message will not persuade the receiver. Recipient of the message actively process the message like a mental discussion. If the message triggers favourable thought then the message will be accepted but if it fails to do so then attitude change will not be seen, Thus, the impact of persuasive message depends on the argument put forth in the message but it depends on the extent to they stimulate the individuals to generate favourable or unfavourable thoughts about the information presented.

C) Elaboration Likelihood model proposed by John Cacioppo and Richard Petty how people process messages persuasive messages which may lead to attitude change depends upon the level of elaboration. Elaboration is the level of efforts the recipient of the message put in persuasive processing the message. These efforts can be high or low level of elaboration. The elaboration of the message will depend on the recipient's motivation and ability to process the information. Depending on the motivation and ability the person receiving the persuasive message , two ways in which one can change attitudes is either by taking a central route or the peripheral route. Central route persuasion occurs when interested people focus on the argument presented in the messages, will analyse it and accept the message if it appeals them. For people who do not engage in thinking a per will take the central route or peripheral route to process the information, The central route is logic driven and uses data and facts to convince people of an argument's worthiness. For example, a car company seeking to persuade you to purchase their car will emphasise on the car's fuel efficiency, safety feature, price. In order for the central route of persuasion to be effective in changing attitudes, thoughts, and behaviours, the argument must be strong and, if successful, will result in lasting attitude change. This route is taken when the recipient of the message are motivate and analytical.

For people who do not wish to engage in analysing the message, a peripheral route can be taken. In peripheral route people can be influenced by incidental cues regarding the message. This route does not focus on the factual information of the message but it depends on the positive characteristics such as positive emotions and celebrity endorsement of the message. For example, the legendary actor Amitabh Bachchan encouraging people to get their children vaccinated against polio. This route to attitude change does not require much effort or information processing. Here, the recipient of the message is not analytical or motivated to process the information. This method of persuasion may promote positivity toward the message or product, but it typically results in less permanent attitude or behaviour change.

D) Heuristic Systematic Model:

Another model proposed by which explains how people receive and process persuasive message was proposed by Chaiken and colleagues. Similar to the Elaboration likelihood model, the heuristic systematic model proposes two modes of processing an effortless -top-down heuristic mode and effortful -systematic bottom up mode. These modes are similar to the central route and peripheral route respectively.

Systematic processing is similar to the central route explained earlier. In which the recipient of the message carefully analyses, scrutinises all the available information while forming their judgements. Systematic processing effortful. For example; a systematic approach to thinking about a proposed economic policy might involve reading as many magazine and newspaper reports as possible to learn and develop an opinion about the "best" course of action for the economy. Heuristic processing is defined as simple rules of inferences or judgement rules that are learnt and stored in our memories which are useful in interpreting the situation. Thumb rules like 'experts are always correct', 'go with the majority', 'my own group can be trusted,' are examples of heuristic processing. Systematic processing requires higher level of motivation and capacity than heuristic processing. The HSM's least effort principle adopts this classic logic. Importantly, it assumes that people prefer less effort to more effort, not because they are lazy, but because they are economy-minded processors who spend their cognitive resources only when they are truly needed-when one's interests are engaged. This suggests that the heuristic mode is the default processing strategy because it requires much less effort and much less capacity than systematic processing. According to this model, the heuristic mode and systematic mode can co-exist.

5.6 INTERGROUP CONFLICT

Intergroup conflict refers to disagreement or confrontation between two or more groups and their members. This confrontation can involve physical violence, interpersonal discord, and psychological tension. The intergroup conflict can be between organised group, or between group belonging different social categories.

5.6.1 Development of Intergroup conflict

Intergroup conflict develop as groups have opposing interest that prevent them from achieving the goals which leads to friction, hostility and overt conflict between groups. When members of one group perceives themselves as different in important ways from another group, the group may act in a discriminatory way towards the other group. Conflict may also occur when one group threatens or deprives another group of accessibility to their goals, which provokes aggressive reaction.

A classic study by Muzafer Sherif and colleagues, known as the Robber Cave study conducted in stages demonstrated how underlying conflict of interest lead to overt conflict in groups. In the first week of the experiment, the participants who were middle class American boys were

divided in two groups, activities were conducted in such a way that contact within groups was high and between groups was minimum. In the second stage of the experiment conflict was induced between the groups. This study demonstrated the realistic group conflict theory. It shows that when groups perceive that attainment of one's goals will be at the loss of the other, this is called as opposition of interest. This opposition of interests leads to group member feeling frustrated and result in antagonistic attitude. Members then develop negative and unfavourable attitude towards group members and strongly get attached to their group. Solidarity with the group increases and overt conflict with the other group is seen with the slightest trigger.

Another factor in intergroup conflict is how strongly members identify with their own group which is termed as in-group. Although conflict of interest may not be present but a strong identification with one's group may lead to bias thinking about the out group. This is known as ethnocentrism which is a tendency to believe that one's own group is the superior in every way to the out group. These attitudes lead to the in-group members devaluing the out-group members often leading to overt acts of discrimination.

The social identity theory of intergroup behaviour developed by Tajfel and colleagues. Individual desire to have positive self concept. Self concept comprises of one's personal identity and social identity both become a part of self concept. Social identity comes from one's membership to the social groups. In order to maintain a positive self-concept a person is pressurised to view one's own group positively and better than the out group. And will engage in activities to support one's group activities. This will lead to a person having higher self esteem and positive self concept.

An occurrence of an aversive event may lead to inter group conflict. When the aversive event is thought to be caused by or attributed to the out group may lead to overt conflict with out group. This is based on the frustration-aggression hypothesis. According to the hypothesis frustration leads to anger which quickly turns into aggression under conducive conditions.

5.6.2 - Resolving Intergroup Conflict

One of the techniques to resolve intergroup conflict is to develop superordinate goals. Superordinate goal is a goal held by all groups in conflict that cannot be achieved by the support of the other group

According to the intergroup contact hypothesis, increased contact should lessen stereotypes and reduce bias and, consequently, lessen antagonism between groups. One of the techniques to resolve intergroup conflict is to develop superordinate goals. Superordinate goal is a goal held by all groups in conflict that cannot be achieved by the support of the other group

According to the intergroup contact hypothesis, increased contact should lessen stereotypes and reduce bias and, consequently, lessen antagonism

between groups . The extent of contact is also important. Research has suggested that sustained and personal contact will help in reducing conflict. The theory of cognitive dissonance suggested that group members will change their attitude towards the out group as a means to justify their newly acquired behaviour. Secondly contact among members will lead to self disclosure which would promote interpersonal liking thus leading to a positive outlook towards the members of the out- group. Sustained contact may also break down the stereotyping of the out-group members.

Inter group contact is likely to reduce conflict if the members of in-group and out-group share an equal status. If institution supported intergroup contact may reduce the intergroup conflict.

5.6.3 Negotiation:

Negotiation is a communication between two or more parties aimed at reaching an agreement that will settle a conflict between them.

The following are the strategies generally used by negotiators to resolve intergroup conflicts.

- 1) Contending- is aimed at winning the conflict. It is an attempt to impose one's will on the other group. Contentious tactics include inflated demands, irrevocable commitments, persuasion, and threats.
- 2) Yielding is also called concession making. The purpose of yielding is to making early resolution of conflict. It is an act to reduce the aspiration of the group in order to resolve the conflict. This involves keeping the other party from leaving the negotiation by repaying other party's concession or gain credit with the other party. Yielding increases the likelihood of agreement but decrease party outcome.
- 3) Problem solving - aims to satisfy both parties needs. Tactics involve soliciting, providing information of the group's goals and values and seeking a win- win situation. Problem solving increases the likelihood of reaching an agreement which is valued by both parties in conflict.

5.7 SUMMARY

Attitudes are evaluation regarding an object, people or situation. The attitude has three components affective, cognitive or behavioural. Attitudes are developed as a result of social learning. Classical and instrumental conditioning also result in formation of the attitudes. The model of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour suggests that attitude will predict behaviour in case we have the behavioural intention.

Persuasion is a communication to change the attitude of audience towards an object, practice or ideas. Various models like information processing model, cognitive response model suggest the process of persuasion. The most widely accepted models of persuasion are the elaboration likelihood model (ELM) and the systematic heuristic model which proposes that the

recipient of persuasive message will either take a effortful route of persuasion (central /systematic route) or process involving less efforts (Peripheral /heuristic route) while processing the persuasive message.

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Intergroup conflict refers to disagreement or confrontation between two or more groups and their members. The intergroup conflict develop as a result of realistic group conflict, which proposed that conflicts are generated due to feelings solidarity with the in group members and development of negative attitude towards the out group members, thus resulting in overt conflict. Another explanation of intercrop conflict is the social identity theory. Intergroup conflict can be resolved by having superordinate goals, which are goals held by all the conflicting groups. Intergroup conflict can also be resolves by increasing the contact between the conflicting groups. Negotiation is a communication between two or more parties aimed at reaching an agreement that will settle a conflict between them. Contending, yielding and problem solving are the strategies that one can use to negotiate in an intergroup conflict.

5.8 QUESTIONS:

- Q1) Define attitudes. Describe the various component of attitudes.
- Q2) Explain the attitude behaviour relationship.
- Q3) With suitable examples explain the models of persuasion.
- Q4) What are intergroup conflicts and explain why do they occur.
- Q5) Explain the various techniques of negotiations and conflict resolution.

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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF LEADERSHIP AND COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOR, SOCIAL CHANGE

Unit Structure:

6.0 Objectives:

6.1 Introduction to Leadership

- 6.1.1 Trait perspective
- 6.1.2 Behavioural perspective
- 6.1.3 Contingency Theory
- 6.1.4 Transactional Approach
- 6.1.5 Transformational Leadership

6.2. Collective Behaviour and Social Movement

- 6.2.1 Underlying causes of Collective Behaviour

6.3. Introduction to Social Movement

- 6.3.1 Types of Social Movements
- 6.3.2 Development of Social Movement

6.4. Summary

6.5 Questions

6.6 References

6.0 OBJECTIVES:

- 1) The learner will be able to understand the various perspective of leadership
- 2) The learner will be able to explain the various collective behaviour
- 3) The learner will be able to understand the nature of social movement

Social Psychology of Leadership:

In this section let us try to understand how social psychologists explain the concept of leadership. Just to give you example, when we think of leaders names like Mahatma Gandhi, Lokmanya Tilak , Dr. Babasaheb Ambedkar, Dr. APJ Abdul Kalam, JRD Tata and many more come to our

mind. These great people have played a pivotal role and influenced peoples lives.

Chemers (2001) defines leadership as "a process of social influence through which an individual enlists and mobilizes the aid of others in the attainment of a collective goal" As leadership is a social influence on a group, the study of leadership can be approached as a group process. Leaders influence the group members to adopt a vision and work towards it.

6.1. INTRODUCTION TO LEADERSHIP

Let us now look at the various perspectives on leadership. Leadership research ranges from identifying personality traits of effective leaders, to understanding behaviours that make leaders effective. Researchers have also focused on the situation that make leader or they have also analysed the relations between the leaders and the subordinates. The concept of leadership is multi-dimensional and a leader operates in various context like political, governmental, cultural, religious, corporate, artistic, organisational.

6.1.1 Trait Perspective:

The study of leadership began with identifying personality characteristics of effective leaders. This approach was known as the trait approach to leadership. Researchers have identified certain characteristics that make effective leaders which were adaptability & flexibility, assertiveness, capacity to motivate. Judge, Bono, Ilies and Gerhardt (2002) conducted a meta analysis study to establish the relation between traits and effective leadership, indicated that extraversion/surgency, intellect/openness to experience, and conscientiousness as the best predictors of effective leadership. According to some psychologists, the trait approach is non conclusive as understanding leadership from a trait perspective is simplistic approach. In general, correlations among traits, and between traits and effective leadership, are very low. Non conclusive research on the trait approach hence some psychologist take a situational approach to leadership.

6.1.2 Behavioural Perspective: According to this perspective, effective leadership is an interaction between leaders qualities or styles and the situational demands. The research arising from this perspective focuses on the behaviour of the leader.

One of the earlier studies in social psychology was conducted by Lippitt and White's (1943) experiment on the effect of three different leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire) on group atmosphere, morale, and effectiveness in after-school activities clubs for school boys. They found that a democratic leadership style was most effective—it produced a friendly, group-centered, task-oriented atmosphere that was associated with relatively high group productivity, which was unaffected by whether or not the leader was physically present.

Another program of research, based on interaction styles in groups (Bales, 1950), identified two key leadership roles: task specialist and socio-emotional specialist. The task specialists leader is more involved by offering opinions and giving directions and guidance to the group members. The task specialist leader is more likely to be dominant leader. The socio-emotional specialists tend to respond and pay attention to the feelings of other group members and is less dominant. The two types of leadership were opposite to each other.

The Ohio State leadership studies identified two styles of leadership 1) initiating structure and 2) consideration. Leaders rating high on initiating structure define the group's objectives and organize members 'work toward the attainment of these goals: They are task oriented. Leaders rating high on consideration are concerned with the welfare of subordinates and seek to promote harmonious relationships in the group: They are relationship oriented.

Unlike Bales (1950), who believed that task-oriented and socioemotional attributes were inversely related, but the Ohio State researchers believed that a the same leader could be high on both initiating structure (task-oriented) and consideration (socioemotional), and such a person would be an effective leader.

The general distinction between a leadership style that pays more attention to the group task and getting things done and one that gives importance to the relationships with the group members.

6.1.3 Contingency Theory:

Contingency theories of leadership recognizes that the leadership effectiveness of particular leadership behaviours or styles is dependent or contingent on the situation. Some styles are better suited to some situations or tasks than are others.

Let us to understand the contingency model to leadership proposed Austrian psychologist Fred Fiedler.

1) Fiedler's Contingency Theory

According to the contingency theory proposed by Fiedler there is no one best leadership style but effective leadership is determined by whether the leader and the environment in which the leader is operating fits with each other.

To be an effective leader the leadership style must be matched in accordance with the situational aspect. Thus, the theory looks at two aspects one being the style of the leader and is the situational dimension. The leadership style outlined was task oriented and relationship oriented. To measure the leadership style, he used the Least preferred coworker scale

High LPC scores indicated that the leadership style was relationship - oriented, that is the leader had a favourable opinion of a person inspite of

the person not performing well. And a low LPC scores indicated a task-oriented style.

Fielder's prediction was that low LPC task-oriented leaders would be most effective when situational control was low, where the group needed a directive leader who focuses on getting things done and when it was high, the group is doing just fine so there is little need to worry about morale and relationships within the group.

High LPC, relationship-oriented leaders are more effective when situational control lies between these extremes.

The situational dimensions have been classified as Fiedler has classified as:

1. Leader-member relations is the extent to which the members have confidence, trust, and respect about their leader.
2. Clarity regarding the task structure, that is, the extent to which the task given is well defined.
3. Position power is the degree of influence a leader like, hiring, firing, discipline, promotions, and salary increases.

This theory proposes that leadership is easy if the leader-member relation is good, task at hand is clear and there is great amount of power with maximal 'situation control' leadership is easy. On the other hand if there is poor leader-member relations, task is unclear, low position power with minimal situations control leadership is difficult.

2) Normative Decision Theory :

Now, let us understand another contingency theory proposed by Vroom and his colleagues. According to their viewpoint, leadership is contingent on the participation of the group members in the decision making process. The theory identifies three decision making leadership styles that leaders can choose from; 1) Autocratic in which the subordinate input is not asked 2) Consultative in which the opinions of the group members issued but the authority of the final decision lies on the leader. 3) Group decision making is a shared decision making process in which the leaders and group members are equal partners in decision making.

Whether the leader is effective will be dependent on the leader-subordinate relationship and clarity, structure of the task. When the subordinate support are high and task is well defined and clear in such situation autocratic leadership is effective. Consultative leadership more effective Task is less clear and greater involvement of group members is needed. When subordinates are not very committed or supportive, group decision making strategy is required to increase participation and commitment.

3) Path-Goal Theory :

Path-goal theory (PGT) theory was developed by House and his colleagues. According to the theory, the main function of a leader is to motivate followers by clarifying the path to reach the group goal. Structuring behaviour and consideration were identified as two classes of leader behaviour by the theory. In structuring behaviour are behaviours of a leader in which, the leader directs task-related activities, and consideration behaviours, whereby the leader addresses followers' personal and emotional needs.

PGT predicts that when the task is novel, difficult and ambiguous and the group members are unclear about the goals and ways to achieve the goals, structuring behaviours of a leader will be most effective. When tasks are clear and paths to reach the goal are well defined, structuring behaviours are less effective. In such situations, leadership behaviours will be seen as undue meddling and micromanagement done by the leader.

6.1.4 Transactional Perspective

Transactional leadership has been referred to as a "process of exchange that is analogous to contractual relations in economic life and contingent on the good faith of the participants" (Downton, 1973). Transactional leaders are leaders who direct their groups by rewarding them for desired behaviour and take actions to correct mistakes from existing rules.

1) Vertical Dyad Linkage Model and Leader-Member Exchange Theory

This leadership is about how the leader relates to the followers

George Graen and his associates believed that leaders do not see the members as one group but they relate to individual followers differently and hence the followers also have individual perception about the leader. According to VDL researchers, leaders develop dyadic exchange relationships with different specific subordinates. In these dyadic relationships, the subordinate can either be treated as a close and valued "in group" member with the leader or in a more remote manner as an "out group" member who is separate from the leader.

Green and associates further develop the leader-member exchange theory from the vertical dyad linkage model. The LMX approach analysed the quality of relationship between the leader and the individual member. According to the theorists, the leader member relationship can be analysed on a continuum of quality of exchange relationships high LMX to Low LMX. A high quality LMX was based on mutual trust, respect and obligation and low quality LMX was based on ones that are rather mechanical, task oriented formal relationship between the leader and subordinate.

In high-quality LMX relationships subordinates are favoured by the leader and receive many valued resources, which can include material benefits

like money, promotions as well as psychological benefits like trust and confidence. Leader–member exchanges go beyond the formal employment contract, with managers showing influence and support and giving the subordinate greater autonomy and responsibility. High-quality relationships should motivate subordinates to internalize the group's and the leader's goals. In low-quality LMX relationships subordinates are not favoured by the leader and receive fewer valued resources.

6.1.5 Transformational Leadership

Transactional leaders appeal to followers 'self-interest, whereas transformational leaders inspire followers to adopt a vision that involves more than individual self-interest.

Three key components of transformational leadership are (1) individualized consideration, that is, the leaders play careful attention to follower's needs, abilities and aspirations so that the followers grow and aspire for higher goals. (2) Intellectual stimulation in which the leaders challenge the followers thinking so that the followers develop different skill sets to achieve better practices. (challenging of followers 'basic thinking, assumptions, and practices to help them adopt newer ways of thinking)(3) charismatic/inspiring leadership, which provides the energy, reasoning, and sense of urgency that transforms followers.

The notion of charisma is integral part of transformational leadership. Charismatic leadership is linked to the big five personality model., extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness. It is also linked to the trait of visionary leadership. Charismatic leaders are seen as emotionally expressive, enthusiastic, eloquent, self confident, therefore facilitate effective leadership.

6.2 COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOUR AND SOCIAL MOVEMENT

6.2.1 What is Collective Behaviour

Collective behaviour refers to two or more persons engaged in behaviour judged common or concerted on one or more dimensions. Collective behaviours have three dimensions: spatial, temporal and scale. Collective behaviours can occur at a single point like a street or a building at a larger site like a stadium or across the entire nation or country. Temporal is the duration of the collective behaviour can be for a few minutes to several hours or days. Collective behaviour can occur on a small scale or a large scale.

Many theorists focus on crowds as a form of collective behaviour. Haven't we seen crowds doing the 'mexican wave' as a way to support home team at sporting events. We have read about stone pelting instances at railway stations, where the crowd ransacked the railway station destroying properties due to train delay.

Crowd: is a temporary gathering of persons in close physical proximity, engaging in an activity which is unconventional. Crowd incidents are marked with high levels of emotions, for example a crowd watching an India-Pakistan cricket match. Gustave Le Bon has proposed that emotion in a crowd leads to unity and gives direction to the crowd behaviour. Crowd influences how one thinks, feels and acts.

1. Deindividuation: One influence of the crowd on individual behaviour is deindividuation. Social Psychologist earlier thought that the individual members temporarily experience reduction of self awareness and personal responsibility, therefore people act by impulse to break the social norm. But recently some social psychologists attributed the behaviours in deindividuation may be a result of conforming to the norms in the specific situation.

2. Contagion: it is believed that imitation of behaviour in a crowd can spread quickly. When crowded in a small area, there is tendency to copy behaviour. Le Bo concluded that a disease-like contagion was spreading through the crowd and infecting everyone present. Thus, crowds are transformed in one unanimous mass. That is why it is said that a crowd has no face. He thought the hypnotized mass was highly suggestible and thus could easily be turned to destructive behavior.

Gathering:

Another form of collective behaviour is termed as gathering. Gatherings are the basis of collective behaviour. People may gather for a variety of reasons. Some gatherings are for purposes of recreation or "hanging out," as in parks, theaters, swimming pools, or at the scene of an accident, or arrest. Other gatherings are demonstrations that involve two or more people meeting in public to protest or celebrate some person, principle, or condition; these may be political or religious in nature, or involve an athletic event. Still other gatherings are ceremonies, intended to mark a change in status or a life-course transition; these may be semipublic or private events.

6.2.1 What are the underlying causes of collective behaviour

The three proposed causes of collective behaviour are strain, relative deprivation, grievances and competition.

Strain: World over we have witnessed instances of people coming to protest against banks, attacks on factories & business establishments. Social change caused by culture, technology, social composition, social conflict, economic development & crisis creates strains in the society that causes individuals to feel stress. The strain and frustration contribute to collective behaviour

Relative Deprivation: Another theory of the causes of collective behaviour of revolt is the J-curve theory (Davies, 1962,1971). This theory suggests that revolt occurs when there is intolerable gap between what people's expectations of need satisfaction and the actual level of satisfaction they experience. In response to improved economic and social conditions, people expect continuing improvement in the satisfaction of their needs. As long as they experience satisfaction, there is political stability, even if there is a gap between expected and actual satisfaction. If the level of actual satisfaction declines, the gap gets bigger; at some point it becomes intolerable, and collective action occurs.

Grievances and competition: In societies across the world some resources are highly valued as they are scarce and there is unequal distribution of these resources. When one group has grievances or discontent about the the distribution of resources leads to collective actions resulting in collective behaviour. In such situations three types of collective actions are seen, Competitive action which involves conflicts in communal groups usually at the local level. Foreg: conflict that arises due to the 'son of soil' ideology. A second type of collective action can be reactive which involves the local group are in conflict with national political system. Like the farmer's protest against the farm laws or the protest against the GST. A third type of collective action is proactive involving demands for material resources, equal rights or power, like the protests for voting rights for women or the r

or non violent protests for the betterment of the society are all forms of proactive collective

6.3 SOCIAL CHANGE THROUGH SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

What are social movements and how are they different from collective behaviour

You must have read read a social reforms movement against caste and gender discrimination, a movement to save the jungles - chipko movement, the Telangana creation movement, the Narmada bachaoandolan against the height of the Narmada dam and the rehabilitation of the people affected. All these people protests were aimed to bring about change in the existing social order. The participating people felt strongly about the issues and felt the need to act, and people joined these movements in thousands.

A social movement is a sustained collective action over time. It aims to bring about change in the social issues. The difference between collective behaviour and social movement is the extent of involvement and degree of organization of the participant.

6.3.1 Types of Social Movements

Social Movements can be classified into redemptive or transformatory reformist and revolutionary. 1) A redemptive social movements aims to bring change in the personal consciousness and actions of its individual members. 2) Reformist social movements aim to change the existing social and political arrangements gradual change for example the Right to Information movement. 3) Revolutionary social movement attempt to bring radical change by capturing state power. How a social movement is classified is a depends on the perception and interpretation. Like the 1857 movement was termed by the British as a rebellion but the Indian nationalist termed it as war of independence. Thus, people attach different meanings to a social movement.

6.3.2 Development of Social Movement

Preconditions: The presumed cause of social movement is discontent, strain, grievances cause social movement. But mere discontent do not cause social movements, for a social movement to take place people must perceive their discontent as a result of forces external forces which are controllable. People also come together because they feel that they have a right to be satisfies. And our to inaccessibility of the established system and when their needs are not met. The discontent may take a form of a social movement. Another factor that can lead to social movements is the believe that the social obtained through their can can make something better.

Ideology and framing: When the people interact, an ideology or generalized belief is developed. Ideology is a conception of reality that emphasizes certain values and justifies a movement. This ideology guides the movement. It is necessary to have an ideology behind every social movement as it provides a way of identifying people and events and a set of beliefs regarding appropriate behaviour toward them. A second function of ideology is that it gives a movement a temporal perspective. That is, it gives a picture of what caused the present undesirable situation by providing a history, an assessment of what is Wong in the current situation and gives a goals that can be achieved in the future. When the ideology is defined, articulated for others to follow it is called social movement framing. The leaders of the movement try to link the ideologies to the ideologies participants already hold, for example, 'all men are create equal.'

Recruitment: The growth of any social movement depends on supports it gets from the people or the recruitment. Recruitment of supports depends upon the ideology, identity and the existing social network. Supporters are drawn to participate in a social movement content and framing of ideology. Movement can develop if the recruits have a shared understanding of who they are as a group, that is when they develop collective identity. Movements spread rapidly, when entire group is recruited all at once,. For example students movement which took place

in Delhi, all the student community joined the movement, making it successful.

Mobilization: Mobilisation is a process through which individuals surrender personal resources and commit to the pursuit of group and group goals. One basis of commitment is moral—anchoring an individual's worldview in the movement's ideology.

Committed members may become take the leadership position. To take the movement forward it is necessary for there to be dedicated individuals.

Thus, in a social movement it is not enough to say that the social problems exist which aren't addressed by the current systems. The problems have to be diagnosed, people have to be convinced and leaders of the movement must also outline a corrective action plan that will be accepted.

6.4 SUMMARY:

Now, let us take a place of what we studied in this unit. We began with the concept of leadership, in psychology leadership is viewed as the a group process in which the leader influence the followers. The research on leadership takes various perspectives. The trait perspective focuses factors or characteristics of effective leaders. The behaviour approach has identified task oriented and people oriented leadership behaviour styles which helps us to identify effective leadership styles. According to the contingency theories effective leadership depends on the situation in which the leader operates. We further discussed the relational approach of leadership which is also known as the transactional approach, which analyses the leader subordinate transactions. We also learnt about the transformational and charismatic leadership.

The next section discussed about the collective behaviour, in which two or more people engage in some common activity. Collective behaviour are in form of crowds or gatherings. And when the collective movements are more organised and sustained over time, they take a form of social movement. We studied the development of social movement from a social psychology perspective.

6.5 QUESTIONS:

- Q1) What is leadership? Describe the contingency perspective of leadership.
- Q2) Write a note on behavioural perspective of leader.
- Q3) Explain the transactional leadership model.
- Q4) What are social movements. With suitable examples explain the types of social movement.
- Q5) Write a detailed note on social change through social movement.

Q6) Explain the term collective behaviour. Why do people engage in collective behaviours

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APPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY I

Unit Structure

7.0 Objectives

7.1. Introduction

7.2.Social Psychology and the law

7.2.1.Two Basic Principles and Two Contexts

7.2.2.Ascertaining the Truth

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7.3..Implications of Social psychology for health behaviour

7.3.1.Social Influence and Health Behaviors

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7.3.3.The Health Belief Model

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7.3.7.Stress

7.3.8.Social Support

7.3.9.Coping Style

7.4.Summary

7.5.Questions

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7.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe Social Psychology and the law
- Understand The Health Belief Model
- Explain Social Support

7.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the relationship of social psychology to the law, and then examines health behavior and the implications of social psychology for health. With this in mind, attitude change, the effect of message and social support, and other factors are explored. After that, we focused on health models, stress management style, self-efficacy and much more.

7.2. SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY AND THE LAW

Social psychology can be characterized as a hub science that bridges behavioral, societal, and other scientific disciplines by means of careful conceptual analysis and empirical study; it can well be argued that focusing on the social psychology of law is timely and important. In exploring this issue the aim of this chapter is twofold: (1) to provide a general overview of the topics that fit under the general umbrella of the "social psychology of law" and (2) to provide an overall conceptual framework for organizing these topics by affording a set of basic principles governing the social psychology of law.

7.2.1. Two Basic Principles and Two Contexts

Psychological science, including the science of social psychology, can be depicted as an exploded confetti factory, producing many colorful empirical findings and fascinating mini theories (Ellemers, 2013). It can be difficult to figure out how the various ideas, research studies, phenomena, and domains in social psychology (including the social psychology of law) fit together (Stangor, 2011). The chapter's focus is on the two basic principles that distinguish in the social psychology of law.

The first social psychological principle that researchers distinguish has to do with the notion that people working in legal contexts are and should be busy with ascertaining the truth on which legal decisions should be based. An important corollary of this principle implies that the presence of bias in legal functioning and decision making warrants our close attention. In fact, a lot of legal psychology is oriented toward delineating these biases. This first principle includes the determination by people working in the legal domain of who is guilty or innocent in criminal law cases. The reliability of eyewitness testimony and to what extent we can trust human memory in criminal law is also important here. This basic principle also involves the striving for the absence of biases and discrimination, as well as the issue of individual and group decision making of judges and juries in various legal

cases. In short, the first basic principle on which this chapter focuses examines ascertaining the truth. They label literature on this issue as legal psychology.

The second social psychological principle I put forward here focuses on the human justice judgment process is related to the first principle and that is important both inside and outside the courtroom. That is, the law is all about establishing justice. Thus, when people interpret their court hearings, perceive the legal system, and try to ascertain the truth in legal contexts, they rely on their judgments whether justice has prevailed and whether just treatment and just outcomes were established in the court hearings, by the law, and in the ascertainment of truth. Therefore, people's judgments of justice play a pivotal role in various legal contexts and in every topic thus far mentioned. This assumption implies that the justice judgment process warrants special attention when studying the social psychology of law.

Researchers propose that to understand social psychology in legal contexts, it is pivotal to realize that there are many different legal contexts that vary in important ways from each other, both from legal and psychological perspectives. Lawyers distinguish, for example, between criminal law cases (pertaining to crimes and the appropriate punishment of those crimes), civil law cases (having to do with private relations between members of a community or organizations or businesses within that community), and constitutional or administrative law cases (referring to the relationship between individuals and the state). Many different categorizations are made by lawyers, and many nuances are important to understand the ins and outs of legal arrangements and different types of law cases. Thus, lawyers make relevant distinctions between various legal contexts.

Furthermore, although different legal systems tend to deal with similar basic issues, jurisdictions categorize and identify their legal subjects in different ways. As such, systems can differ widely across different countries (e.g., the United States vs. the United Kingdom vs. Continental Europe). The presence or absence of juries is one important difference. This is not the time and the place to review all the different legal categories and the various legal contexts that are distinguished in the legal literature. The psychological processes involved in different types of law cases may well vary between cases, in part because different types of opponents tend to be involved in the different cases and because different legal issues are at stake in these different cases. This is something the social psychology of law should pay more attention to.

Against this background, Researchers distinguish between two different legal contexts, namely, what happens inside the courtroom and what occurs outside the courtroom (or courthouse). This simple distinction is often overlooked, yet studies conducted inside or outside the courtroom tend to examine different social psychological issues and processes. Whereas studies inside the courtroom examine legal decision making and how litigants respond to this decision making, studies done outside the courtroom tend to assess how the legal system is functioning and how

people perceive the functioning of the legal system. Therefore, after having discussed the two basic social psychological principles on which this chapter focuses, pay some attention to the social psychology of people's reactions to what happens inside versus outside the courtroom as two relevant legal contexts.

7.2.2. Ascertaining the Truth

The whole justice system, including the criminal justice system, is oriented toward determining the truth. This does not imply that the law as a system is always able or even good at finding the truth, and it also does not mean that "the" truth is always simple to uncover, but it does suggest that officials working for the law should be oriented toward ascertaining the truth. This basic principle of law is the part that many people first think of when reflecting on psychology and the law. And indeed it is a very important part of what psychological insight can offer to the field of law. In fact, the literature on this issue is huge, and is inspired to a large extent by cognitive psychology and the literature on social cognition (see, e.g., Ellsworth & Mauro, 1998; Kovera & Borgida, 2010).

One of the core areas of legal psychology is the groundbreaking research on eyewitness reports by Loftus (1975) and others. Rooted in the observation that human memory is often flawed (e.g., Loftus & Greenspan, 2017), it has been shown that the way questions are asked during interrogations and other interviews can have a dramatic impact on what people report to have seen (Loftus, 1975). The way that possible guilty individuals are lined up and presented to those who have to identify the guilty person is also influencing cognitive processes and the decisions of those who do the identification tasks (Wells & Turtle, 1986). In addition to system variables such as lineup composition, lineup instruction, and lineup presentation that all influence witness accuracy, own race, unconscious transference, and stress of the identifying person also affect the (un)reliability of eyewitness identifications (Kovera & Borgida, 2010).

The criminal law system has been reluctant to accept these conclusions and the implications that follow from them, but things now seem to be changing, resulting in eyewitness science paying off in the end (Loftus, 2013). Perhaps the biggest boost to public appreciation of eyewitness research came as a result of progress in forensic DNA testing. It was DNA that helped exonerate many wrongfully convicted individuals in the mid-1990s, and today over 300 innocent people owe their freedom to that testing. As a result, expert testimony has an easier time being admitted. Courts are commenting more favorably on eyewitness science (Loftus, 2013). And expert evidence on eyewitness reports has played a very important role in important law cases (e.g., Wagenaar, 1988). This slow-to-start but exponentially growing collaboration among psychologists, legal professionals, and others has done a great deal to change the justice landscape for people accused of crimes (Stebblay & Loftus, 2013), although a lot still needs to be done (see, e.g., Vredevelde, Hildebrandt, & Van Koppen, 2016; Wixted & Wells, 2017).

Another important issue in legal psychology is whether there are experts in deception detection. Bond (2008) presented videotaped statements produced by paroled felons to students and law enforcement personnel. Results suggested that those correctional officers who could be identified as experts were accurate in their assessment of the video statements over 80 or 90% of the trials. Experts showed high discrimination in signal-detection tasks and did not evidence biased responding. The experts relied on nonverbal cues to make fast and accurate decisions.

O'Sullivan, Frank, Hurley, and Tiwana (2009) note that although most people have a no better than chance probability of detecting deception, some groups of police professionals have demonstrated significant lie detection accuracy. One reason for not detecting expert deception may be that the types of lies police are asked to judge in scientific experiments often do not represent the types of lies they see in their profession. Across 23 studies, involving 31 different police groups in eight countries, police officers tested with lie detection scenarios using high-stakes lies (i.e., the lie was personally involving and/or resulted in substantial rewards or punishments for the liar) and were significantly more accurate than law enforcement officials tested with low-stakes lies.

Vrij and colleagues (2008) argue that observers could improve their deceit detection performance by taking a more active approach to the task, specifically by asking interviewees to report their stories in reverse order. Vrij and co authors suggest that this is particularly debilitating for liars because their cognitive resources have already been partially depleted by the cognitively demanding task of lying. The authors hypothesized and found that increased cognitive load would lead to the emergence of more nonverbal and verbal differences between liars and truth tellers in reverse-order interviews than in chronological interviews, and that this facilitates the observer's task of discriminating between them!

Another issue concerns when expert evidence is admissible in court. Quality science provides the foundation for applications of social psychological science to the law. To be admissible in court, expert testimony must be legally relevant to the case at hand and scientifically valid (Kovera & Borgida, 2010). In this respect, it is important that contemporary social psychologists generally base (or should base) their understanding of phenomena not on single studies but on large groups of studies that have been submitted to rigorous statistical analysis to examine the magnitude and consistency of their findings across samples and methods. Quality science thus obtained can provide meaningful input, such as the role of expert knowledge on social cognition in employment discrimination cases (Fiske & Borgida, 2008).

Legal psychology has been concentrating on decision making of judges, in part to find out whether the truth is ascertained by means of judicial decision making. Guthrie, Rachlinski, and Wistrich (2001) note that the quality of the judicial system depends on the quality of decisions that judges make. Even the most talented and dedicated judges surely commit occasional mistakes, but the public understandably expects judges to avoid

systematic errors. This expectation, however, might be unrealistic. Psychologists who study human judgment and choice have learned that people frequently fall prey to cognitive illusions that produce systematic errors in judgment. Even though judges are experienced, well-trained, and highly motivated decision makers, they might be vulnerable to cognitive illusions. Guthrie and colleagues reported that five common cognitive illusions (anchoring, framing, hindsight bias, the representativeness heuristic, and egocentric biases) influence the decision-making processes of a sample of 167 federal magistrate judges. Although the judges were somewhat less susceptible to two of these illusions (framing effects and the representativeness heuristic) than lay decision makers, the findings suggest that judges are human, and that their judgment is affected by cognitive illusions that can produce systematic errors in judgment.

Related to this, Danziger, Levav, and Avnaim-Pesso (2011) studied extraneous factors in judicial decisions. Their research focused on whether judicial rulings are based solely on laws and facts. This is an important issue, as legal formalism holds that judges apply legal reasons to the facts of a case in a rational, mechanical, and deliberative manner. In contrast, legal realists argue that the rational application of legal reasons does not sufficiently explain the decisions of judges, and that psychological, political, and social factors influence judicial rulings. Legal realism is sometimes referred to as depicting justice as "what the judge ate for breakfast." To test this metaphor empirically, Danziger and colleagues recorded sequential parole decisions made by experienced judges before or after daily food breaks.

The Danziger and associates (2011) results indicate that the likelihood of a favorable ruling is greater at the beginning of the workday or after a food break than later in the sequence of cases. The likelihood of a ruling in favor of a prisoner spikes at the beginning of each session. The probability of a favorable ruling steadily declines from (approximately) .65 to nearly zero and jumps back up to .65 after a break for a meal. The authors interpret these findings by arguing that when judges make repeated rulings, they show an increased tendency to rule in favor of the status quo. This tendency can be overcome by taking a break to eat a meal, consistent with previous research demonstrating the effects of a short rest, positive mood, and glucose on mental resource replenishment. These findings add to the literature that documents how experts are not immune to the influence of extraneous irrelevant information. Indeed, the metaphor that justice is "what the judge ate for breakfast" might be an appropriate depiction of human decision making in general.

A research project by Cho, Barnes, and Gnanapavan (2017) fits with this line of reasoning. These authors argue that sleep deprivation in judges increases the severity of their sentences. Taking advantage of the natural quasi-manipulation of sleep deprivation during the shift to daylight saving time in the spring and analyzing archival data from judicial punishment handed out in the U.S. federal courts, Guthrie, Rachlinski, and Wistrich (2007) propose a new model of judging. This model accounts for the tendency of the human brain to make automatic, snap judgments, which are surprisingly

accurate, but which can also lead to erroneous decisions. The authors argue that their model provides a more accurate explanation of judicial behavior. In line with this proposition, Ham. Van den Bos. and Van Doorn (2009) found that when forming justice judgments, unconscious thought can indeed lead to more accurate justice judgments than do both conscious thought and immediate judgment.

In legal contexts, not only individuals but also groups make important decisions, hence. Group processes and group decision making plays an important role in the ascertainment of truth (Kovera&Borgida, 2010).For example, in jury decision making, jury size, jury unanimity, jury competence, and processes of jury deliberation all matter (Ellsworth & Mauro, 1998).

Following-up on this, Salerno and Peter- Hagene (2013) investigated whether expressing anger increases social influence for men, but diminishes social influence for women, during group deliberation. In a deception paradigm, participants believed they were engaged in a computer-mediated mock jury deliberation about a murder case. In actuality, the interaction was scripted. The script included five other mock jurors who provided verdicts and comments in support of the verdicts. Four of these jurors agreed with the participant, and one was a “holdout” dissenter. Holdouts expressed their opinions with no emotion, anger, or fear and had either male or female names. Holdouts exerted no influence on participants' opinions *when they* expressed no emotion or fear. Participants' confidence in their *own* verdict dropped Significantly, however, after male holdouts expressed anger. However, participants became significantly more confident in their original verdicts after female holdouts expressed anger, even though they were expressing the exact same opinion and emotion as the male holdouts. This study has implications for group decisions in general, and jury deliberations in particular, by suggesting that expressing anger might lead men to gain influence, but women to lose influence on societally important decisions, such as jury verdicts.

Recent advances in DNA, blood type, and fingerprint testing have increased the likelihood that average citizens will confront complex scientific evidence when serving as jurors in civil and criminal cases. McAuliff, Kovera, and Nunez (2009) examined the ability of jury- eligible community members to detect internal validity threats in psychological science presented during a trial. Participants read a case summary in which an expert testified about a study that varied in internal validity (valid, missing control group, confound, and experimenter bias) and ecological validity (high, low). Variations in internal validity did not influence verdict or ratings of plaintiff credibility, and no differences emerged as a function of ecological validity. The authors argue that their findings suggest that training programs on statistics and research methodology for the judiciary and bar become increasingly important. Future research aimed at developing new programs or evaluating those already in place is greatly needed if we genuinely desire to help the legal system better accommodate jurors' reasoning skills in trials containing psychological science.

Group processes such as tunnel vision during police interrogations can also play an important role in the functioning of the legal system. Directive police interrogation tactics can even lead to false convictions and false confessions (Ellsworth & Gross, 2013; Kovera & Borgida, 2010). Kassin and colleagues (2010) summarize what is known about police-induced confessions. Interrogation tactics such as excessive interrogation time, presentation of false evidence, and as an interrogator trying to minimize the crime can lead suspects to see confession as an expedient means to escape the interrogation interview. The mandatory electronic recording of interrogations and the reform of interrogation practices can protect vulnerable suspect populations.

Research shows that justice judgments are important, for one thing because discrepancies may cause citizens to feel alienated from authority, and reduce their voluntary compliance with legal codes (Darley, 2001). Justice judgments are also important because they can create a link to legitimacy of the law in society (Tyler & Jost, 2007). And justice judgments are important as a goal of the legal system for their own sake or because of moral concerns. After all, the goal of law is to create justice in society (Ellsworth & Mauro, 1998). Furthermore, justice judgments are important because they can have real consequences (Van den Bos, 2018).

Justice judgments are also important because they can create a link to legitimacy of the law in society (Tyler & Jost, 2007). And justice judgments are important as a goal of the legal system for their own sake or because of moral concerns. After all, the goal of law is to create justice in society (Ellsworth & Mauro, 1998). Furthermore, justice judgments are important because they can have real consequences (Van den Bos, 2018). After all, although justice judgments are important for several reasons, they can also be susceptible to various subjective factors, which is an issue with which many lawyers may be uncomfortable. This is understandable, but it is good to know that social psychological science indicates how to understand this subjective quality

Not only in law but also in all scientific fields that have examined the justice concept there exists an ongoing controversy between "rationalist" and "intuitionist" accounts of justice. Rationalist theories emphasize that reasoning causes justice judgments to be constructed primarily in a deliberate, objective, and cognitive way, whereas intuitionist notions suggest that justice judgments are mainly the result of automatic or spontaneous evaluations and are strongly influenced by subjective and affective factors (for an overview, see Beauchamp, 2001). As a result of this controversy, the social psychology of law is confronted with scholars and practitioners who explicitly or implicitly adhere to the notion (attributed to Aristotle) that "the law is reason, free from passion" versus those who work from the assumption that justice judgments are derived from feelings, not from reasoning (e.g., Hume, 1739–1740/1951) and that subjectivity and affectivity hence play an inescapable role in the forming of justice judgments and the working of the law. Social psychology suggests that it makes more sense to adopt an integrative approach that studies social conditions which affect the relative importance of rationalist and intuitionist accounts (Van den Bos, 2003).

People may construct justice judgments by relying on how they feel about the events they have encountered, and justice judgments may hence be strongly influenced by affected information. Findings indeed show that in information-uncertain conditions, people's prior affective states that are unrelated to the justice event in fact strongly influenced justice judgments. This suggests that in situations of information uncertainty, people's judgments of justice can be very subjective, susceptible to affective states that have no logical relationship with the justice judgments they are constructing. This insight may have important implications for the social psychology of law and the rationalist and intuitionist conceptions of justice in that literature (see also Bandes & Blumenthal, 2012). People may also adopt rationalistic or intuitionist mindsets, and this may have an impact on their justice judgments without people being aware of this effect (Maas & Van den Bos, 2009).

An insight that follows from the justice judgment literature is that besides issues of relative deprivation, equity of outcomes, and people's belief in a just world, a core aspect of people's justice judgments is the notion of perceived "procedural justice." Whereas in organizational and interpersonal contexts, perceived procedural justice may entail predominantly the fairness of the way people are treated (Van den Bos, 2005, 2015), due to its special and formal qualities, perceived procedural justice in legal contexts also included the fairness and justice of formal procedures and processes that are used, or should be used, by the legal system. (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). Indeed, both formal and informal aspects of procedural justice constitute pivotal aspects of justice judgments. in legal contexts and influence people's behavior and other reactions in these contexts (c.g., Hollander-Blumoff, 2011; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Tyler, 2006).

The importance of perceived procedural justice does not imply that other notions of justice do not affect people's reactions. The importance of judgments of justice and injustice is also seen in the disdain for law in processes of radicalization. Van den Bos (2018) proposes that judgments of injustice are closely associated with the process of delegitimization and the rejection of law and democratic principles that often constitutes a turning point in the radicalization process of many people (Moghaddam, 2005).

Key to understanding the ontogenesis of violent extremism and terrorism may well be people's rejection of constitutional democracy and law. After all, when it is hard or impossible for you to work within principles of constitutional democracy, then you might easily get frustrated that your wishes and opinions are not put into action. Related to this, when you cannot really force yourself to be open minded about different opinions and at least be willing to tolerate them, government, law, and other societal institutions play a crucial role in the radicalization of Muslims, right-wing groups, and left-wing individuals (Van den Bos, 2018). So the psychology of judgments of unfairness and injustice can help us to understand violent extremism and perhaps even ways of countering this by trying to nourish agreement with democratic values (Van den Bos, 2018).

All this is an illustration of the notion that if perceptions are real, they tend to have real consequences (Thomas & Thomas, 1928). Understanding perceptions in general, and perceptions of justice and injustice in particular, can be complex, in part because these perceptions can be biased in important ways. What is just and unjust is really in the eye of the beholder, but because injustice perceptions are deeply felt as real and genuine, they tend to have real consequences and can fuel radical beliefs and extremist and terrorist behaviors in important ways (Van den Bos, 2018).

7.2.3. Making Sense of Law Inside the Courtroom: Interpreting Our Own Court Hearings

This adheres to a trend that can be seen in many modern treatments of psychological science, which is heavily focused on trying to discover general laws of human thinking, feeling, and behavior (Van den Bos, McGregor, & Martin, 2015).

However, part of the reason why the study of law is so exciting and important (also for basic psychological science) is that it makes clear that differences between contexts do matter a lot and influence people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in important ways. Issues at stake differ across legal contexts, for instance, and so do the psychological processes involved in these different contexts. Researchers distinguish between how people (with direct concerns at stake) evaluate how their own cases are being treated inside the courtroom and how people outside the courtroom (with or without direct concerns at stake) evaluate the legal system.

Insights regarding how people interpret what happens both inside and outside the courtroom can profit from the robust social psychological notion that people are sense makers (see, e.g., Kruglanski, 1989; Van den Bos & Lind, 2013); that is, human beings are heavily interested in trying to make sense of what is going on in their environments. This is especially the case when what is happening in these environments has special importance to them. Obviously, when people with legal concerns at stake have to appear at court hearings, it is important to them which decisions will be made about their legal cases.

Obviously, when people with legal concerns at stake have to appear at court hearings, it is important to them which decisions will be made about their legal cases. Thus, because of outcome reasons, and because of how they are treated signals how they are valued by important figures of society (e.g., judges), people interpret what is going on in their court hearings. Therefore, I note that people are heavily interested in interpreting their own court hearings. They try to make sense of the law as enacted within their court hearings and to assess whether the trust is ascertained and justice is done.

Recent research suggests at least one basic psychological process plays an important role in how litigants make sense of their own court hearings. That is, in her PhD research Liesbeth Hulst (2017) argues that when litigants are requested to appear at court hearings, they try to make sense of what is going on at the hearings and the legitimate system in which these

hearings are taking place. One of the issues people are trying to find out is whether they can trust the judges in their legal system, and whether they can assign legitimacy to those powerholders. We know from earlier research that in situations such as court hearings, procedural justice serves an important role in people's evaluation processes. After all, when people perceive that their cases have been treated in a fair manner, this has positive effects on their evaluations of whether judges can be trusted and are legitimate power holders. In contrast, unfair treatment of cases leads to lowered trust and lowered legitimate power of the judges involved in the legal system (Tyler, 2006).

Hulst, Van den Bos, Akkermans, and Lind (2017b) integrated this observation with insights from cognitive psychology and basic social psychology that when people are trying to interpret what is going on, they are inclined to pause momentarily ongoing action to allow for the processing of potentially useful information and cues about what is going on and how to behave (Van den Bos, 2015). In cognitive psychology, these pause-and-check reactions are termed "inhibition effects." since ongoing patterns of behavior are inhibited as information is checked and attitudes and behaviors are processed and relinked (Van den Bos & Lind, 2013). Indeed, there is now a body of psychological research and theory that suggests the behavioral inhibition system (Carver & White 1994; Gray & McNaughton, 2000) is a fundamental psychological system that facilitates sense-making processes (see, eg., Gable, Reis, & Elhot, 2000; Van den Bos & Lind, 2013). Work on regulatory modes of assessment (i.e., looking and checking) and locomotion (i.e., acting) is also relevant here (e.g., Higgins, 2012; Pierro, Giacomantonio, Pica, Kruglanski, & Higgins, 2011), with the implication that assessment interrupts locomotion.

Based on this line of reasoning, Hulst and colleagues (2017b) proposed that litigants who appear at bankruptcy or criminal court hearings try to make sense of what is going on in the courtroom and whether they can trust and find legitimacy in the system's judges. Furthermore, the behavioral inhibition system is conducive for sense-making processes and is activated when people engage in novel or potentially unsettling or otherwise confusing situations (Van den Bos & Lind, 2013). Hulst and coauthors argued that being summoned to court to have your financial or criminal history discussed is an experience that for most litigants is novel or at least potentially unsettling. Hulst and colleagues (2017b) assumed that procedural justice serves an important role in these sense-making processes. Thus, in this presumed state of behavioral inhibition, experiences of procedural justice encountered in the courtroom are assumed to be salient and to impact litigants' impressions of how much trust and legitimate power they can assign to judges in their country. Combining all this, Hulst and co authors proposed that the behavioral inhibition system is likely to be activated when litigants are associating their experiences of procedural justice with their evaluations of trust and evaluations of judges.

Importantly, Hulst and associates (2017b) argued that if this line of reasoning has merit, then it should be the case that weakening the state of behavioral inhibition should attenuate the association between procedural justice and litigants evaluations of judges. Thus, when an experimental manipulation would deactivate people's behavioral inhibition system (e.g., as can be done by experimentally reminding people about having acted without behavioral inhibitions), then litigants should be less likely to engage in sense-making processes and hence less likely to rely on salient situational cues such as their perceptions of procedural justice when forming trust and legitimacy evaluations of judges. Thus, when an experimental manipulation would deactivate people's behavioral inhibition system (e.g., as can be done by experimentally reminding people about having acted without behavioral inhibitions), then litigants should be less likely to engage in sense-making processes and hence less likely to rely on salient situational cues such as their perceptions of procedural justice when forming trust and legitimacy evaluations of judges. Arguably, then, such an experimental manipulation that has been shown to deactivate people's behavioral inhibition system (Vanen Bos, Müller, & Van Bussel, 2009) should attenuate the positive association between perceived procedural justice and evaluations whether judges in the system can be trusted and should be assigned legitimate power.

The behavioral inhibition system may also work in other legal contexts. For example, Fishbein and colleagues (2009) observed that many inmates do not respond favorably to standard treatments routinely offered in prison. Executive cognitive functioning and emotional regulation may play a key role in treatment responsivity. Findings indicate that inmates exhibiting a relative lack of behavioral inhibition were less likely to progress favorably in a standard correctional treatment program, more likely to drop out early, and less likely to report improvement in aggressive reactions to provocation. Thus, relative deficits in behavioral inhibition significantly predicted treatment outcomes. How people attribute causes and responsibilities also plays an important role in court hearings (Borgida & Fiske, 2008).

7.2.4. Making Sense of Law Outside the Courtroom: Perceiving the Legal System

In the domain of law, often a distinction is made between those who have direct interests at stake in a certain law case versus those who do not have direct interests at stake. From a judicial perspective, only those people with direct interests at stake are considered to be legally relevant, such that they can be involved in the handling of legal cases. This may be so, but even when people are not actively involved in legal cases themselves, they perceive the legal system and try to assess whether the system reveals the truth and serves justice. Furthermore, most people are never in their lives involved in a court case as a legal party with direct interests at stake in the case at hand. Nevertheless, even when not involved in legal cases directly, people scrutinize how the legal system is functioning.

After all, there are important material concerns associated with the working of the legal system. Furthermore, law is a crucial societal institution, and what officials affiliated with the law do has important symbolic value. And a well-functioning legal system conveys that one is living in a fair and just society where good outcomes will be delivered to good people who behave decently, and that those who do not behave in appropriate manners will be given their deserved outcomes. A primary function of law is the creation of legitimacy in society. As such, smooth and just functioning of the law increases objective (legal) and subjective (experienced or psychological) legitimacy of the societal system. In short, there are several reasons why people outside the courtroom (parties with and without direct legal concerns at stake) perceive the legal system and interpret the functioning of legal institutions (e.g., courts), officials constructing laws (e.g., politicians), those enacting the law (e.g., police officers), and people deciding about the law (e.g., judges) in their abilities to deliver justice.

The social psychology of the legal system examines the links between courts and their constituents. Understanding how people perceive the legal system is important, in part because the interconnections of courts/judges and public opinion seems to work in two ways: Some research posits that public preferences influence the behavior of judges and courts, while other studies test the hypothesis that courts and decisions by judges shape public opinion (Gibson, 2010). The social psychology of the legal system is also important because it is related to trust in the law and legitimacy of the law (Tyler, 2006).

The literature on courts and the public is diverse and too vast to cover in detail. Social psychology teaches us, however, that people are often much better and much more oriented toward determining the level of trust they can put in other people, such as judges who are actively handling real cases (Van den Bos, 2011). Thus, studying issues of personal trust is important in understanding trust in law and legitimacy of the law. At least two social psychological concepts are relevant for understanding personalized trust in the law: people's social psychological distance from individuals working for the law and people's political and cultural values.

Social psychological distance from officials working for the law is important for how people perceive the legal system, in part because this is related to the amount of information people have about these officials. In particular, when forming judgments of trust in law, citizens who have no legal education tend to rely on their judgments of trust in persons working for the law, such as judges. Social psychological distance plays an important role in forming these trust judgments. Field experiments designed specifically to test this assumption show persons working for the law, such as judges.

Social psychological distance between the person observing the legal system and being interviewed about this system versus the perceived (legal authorities and others working for the legal system) and researchers studying trust in the system (e.g., university researchers) plays a crucial role in trust in law and society. This is an important observation at a time of

polarization within societies and discontent among groups of lower-educated citizens against the establishment. Lower-educated people perceive social psychological distance to judges and hold low trust in the system's judges, at least under some conditions. In a time when social psychological distance is a growing concern in many societies, this insight into ingroup-outgroup identities and law and social psychology merits future investigation, focusing on under investigated participants such as those with lower education.

Perceptions of procedural justice may lead people to accept the law as a system (see also Tyler, 2006). Symbols of judicial authority and legitimacy, such as the robe, the gavel, and the cathedral-like court building, may also help with that. Why would researchers, scholars, and practitioners care about how ordinary people think about the law? First, people are citizens, and their opinions about the legal system need to be considered when laws are passed. Second, when societies create legal codes that deviate from citizens' moral intuitions, citizens can move toward disrespect for the credibility of the legal codes, as they no longer feel that the laws are a good guide to right and wrong (Darley & Gromet, 2010). The current wave of protests in Poland and other countries concerning the role of the constitutional court are an example of citizens' discontent with what the authorities are doing with the law. These and other examples indicate the importance of the study of how people perceive the legal system.

The literature on moral psychology is also important in this respect. For example, the typical response to learning about a significant moral transgression is one of moral outrage, based on information about what offenders justly deserve for the wrongs committed. In other words, by default, people tend to focus on punishing the offender when responding to crime. Empirical studies also show, however, that people are willing to make reductions in punishment inflicted on the transgressor if this is conducive to restorative goals that are designed to restore harmony within a community or society. Related to this, the target on which respondents focus—the offender, victim, or community—influences which sanctions they select to achieve justice. Thus, there seems to be reliable evidence for the hypothesis that people's need for punishment does not preclude a desire for restorative sanctions that address repairing the harm to victims and communities caused by wrongdoing. These findings suggest that people view the satisfaction of multiple justice goals as an appropriate and just response to wrongdoing (Gromet & Darley, 2009).

People's political and cultural values influence how they perceive the law as a legal system. Experimental research also shows that opinions of judicial leniency can be changed by providing respondents with an example of the typical case that comes before the court (Stalans & Diamond, 1990). This indicates that providing relevant information may have some impact on public dissatisfaction with perceived leniency of the criminal justice system (but St. Amand & Zamble, 2001).

7.3. IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY FOR HEALTH BEHAVIOUR

Today we notice huge changes that have occurred in people's lives. The way we eat, exercise, the food we consume, the lifestyles we adopt has tremendously changed. There are high numbers with regards to malnutrition, smoking, alcohol consumption and an overall unhealthy lifestyle. As much as technology and the internet are a boon to our generations, it is also proving to be a challenge in our physical activities and consumption behaviours in general. This, in turn, threatens our physical and mental health in ways we most often cannot see. Here we will highlight the role of social psychology and its application in health and mental health areas.

7.3.1 Social Influence and Health Behaviors

Social influence processes are important for instilling and modifying health behaviors. Families, friends, and workplace companions may motivate either good or poor health behaviors depending on social opinion. For example, peer pressure often leads to smoking in adolescence, but may influence people to stop smoking in adulthood. Social networks are critical to habits such as smoking and obesity (Cristakis & Fowler, ,). In addition, health habits are strongly affected by early socialization, especially the influence of parents as role models and those who control children's environments. A number of teachable moments may be identified during which health behavior interventions are particularly likely to succeed.

There are also predictable windows of vulnerability for health habits, many of which occur in junior high school, when students are first exposed to smoking, drugs, alcohol, and dietary choices outside of the control of their parents. Social psychologists have devised interventions implemented through the schools that can help students avoid the temptations that lead to these health compromising behaviors (Evans, Powers, Hersey, & Renaud,).

7.3.2. Attitude Change and Health Behaviors

Applications to health have been undertaken since the beginning of social psychological research on attitude formation and attitude change. From these many studies, a number of generalizations can be drawn: . Communications should be colorful and vivid rather than steeped in statistics and jargon. If possible, they should also use case histories (Taylor & Thompson, 1982). For example, a vivid account of the health benefits of regular exercise, coupled with a case history of someone who took up bicycling after a heart attack, may be persuasive to someone at risk for heart disease. . The communicator should be expert, prestigious, trustworthy, likable, and similar to the audience (McGuire, 1964). For example, a health message will be more persuasive if it comes from a respected, credible physician rather than from the proponent of the latest health fad. . Strong arguments should be presented at the beginning and end of a message, not buried in the middle (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1969).

Messages should be short, clear, and direct (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1969). . Messages should state conclusions explicitly (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1969). Extreme messages produce more attitude change, but only up to a point. Very extreme messages are discounted (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1969). For example, a message that urges people to exercise for at least half an hour 3 days a week will be more effective than one that recommends several hours of exercise a day. . For illness detection behaviors (such as HIV testing or obtaining a mammogram), emphasizing the problems that may occur if the behavior is not undertaken will be most effective (for example, Banks et al., 1995; Kalichman & Coley, 1996). For health promotion behaviors (such as sunscreen use), emphasizing the benefits to be gained may be more effective (Rothman & Salovey, 1997). .

If the recipient of the message has an approach orientation, then messages phrased in terms of benefits are more successful (e.g., calcium will keep your bones healthy). People who have an avoidance orientation will be more influenced by messages that stress the risks of not performing a health behavior (e.g., a low calcium intake will **increase** bone loss) (Mann, Sherman, & Updegraff, 2004). . If the audience is receptive to changing a health habit, then the communication should include only favorable points, but if the audience is not inclined to accept the message, the communication should discuss both sides of the issue (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1969).

This approach assumes that if people are fearful that a particular habit is hurting their health, they will change their behavior to reduce their fear. Common sense suggests that the relationship between fear and behavior change should be direct: The more fearful an individual is, the more likely he or she should be to change the relevant behavior. However, research has found that this relationship does not always hold (Leventhal,). Persuasive messages that elicit too much fear may actually undermine health behavior change (Becker & Janz,). Moreover, research suggests that fear alone may not be sufficient to change behavior. Sometimes fear can affect intentions to change health habits (for example, Sutton & Eiser,), but it may not produce long lasting changes in health habits unless it is coupled with recommendations for action or information about the efficacy of the health behavior (Self & Rogers,). Providing information does not ensure that people will perceive that information accurately, however. When people receive negative information about risks to their health, they may process that information defensively (Millar & Millar,). Instead of making appropriate health behavior changes, the person may reinterpret the problem as less serious or more common than he or she had previously believed (for example, Croyle, Sun, & Louie,), particularly if the person intends to continue the behavior (Gerrard, Gibbons, Benthin, & Hessling,). Smokers, for example, know that they are at a greater risk for lung cancer than nonsmokers, but they see lung cancer as less likely or problematic and smoking as more common than do nonsmokers.

7.3.3 The Health Belief Model

The most influential attitude theory of why people practice health behaviors is the health belief model (Rosenstock,). This model states that whether a person practices a particular health behavior can be understood by knowing two factors: whether the person perceives a personal health threat and whether the person believes that a particular health practice will be effective in reducing that threat. The perception of a personal health threat is influenced by at least three factors: general health values, which include interest and concern about health; specific beliefs about personal vulnerability to a particular disorder; and beliefs about the consequences of the disorder, such as whether or not they are serious.

Whether a person believes a health measure will reduce the threat has two subcomponents: whether the individual thinks a health practice will be effective and whether the cost of undertaking that measure exceeds the benefits of the measure (Rosenstock,). For example, the man who feels vulnerable to a heart attack and is considering changing his diet may believe that dietary change alone would not reduce the risk of a heart attack and that changing his diet would interfere with his enjoyment of life too much to justify taking the action. Thus, although his belief in his personal vulnerability to heart disease may be great, if he lacks the belief that a change of diet would reduce his risk, he would probably not make any changes. The health belief model explains people's practice of health habits quite well. The health belief model also predicts some of the circumstances under which people's health behaviors will change. Interventions that draw on the health belief model have generally supported its predictions.

7.3.4 Self-Efficacy

An important determinant of the practice of health behaviors is a sense of self efficacy: the belief that we are able to control particular behaviors (Bandura, ; Murphy, Stein, Schlenger, Maibach, & NIMH Multisite HIV Prevention Trial Group,). Typically, research finds a strong relationship between perceptions of self-efficacy and both initial health behavior change and long-term maintenance of change.

7.3.5. The theory of Planned Behavior

Although health beliefs help clarify when people will change their health habits, increasingly health psychologists are turning their attention to the analysis of action. A theory that links health attitudes directly to behavior is Ajzen's theory of planned behavior (Ajzen & Madden, ; Fishbein & Ajzen,). According to this theory, a health behavior is the direct result of a behavioral intention. Behavioral intentions are themselves made up of three components: attitudes toward the specific action, subjective norms regarding the action, and perceived behavioral control. Attitudes toward the action are based on beliefs about the likely outcomes of the action and evaluations of those outcomes. Subjective norms are what a person believes others think that person should do (normative beliefs) and the motivation to comply with those normative references. Perceived behavioral control occurs when a person is able to perform the contemplated action and

believes that the action undertaken will have the intended effect; this component of the model is very similar to self efficacy. These factors combine to produce a behavioral intention and, ultimately, behavior change. The theory of planned behavior is a useful addition to understanding health behavior change processes for two reasons. First, it provides a model that links beliefs directly to behavior. Second, it provides a fine-grained picture of people's intentions with respect to a particular health habit. It predicts a broad array of health behaviors, such as condom use among students (Sutton, McVey, & Glanz,), sunbathing and sunscreen use (Hillhouse, Stair, & Adler,), use of oral contraceptives (Doll & Orth,), and consumption of soft drinks among adolescents (Kassem & Lee,).

7.3.6. Limitations of Attitude Change Approaches

Despite the success of theories that link beliefs to the modification of health habits, attitudinal approaches are not very successful in explaining spontaneous behavior change, nor do they predict long-term behavior change very well. An additional complication is that communications designed to change people's attitudes about their health behaviors sometimes evoke defensive or irrational processes: People may perceive a health threat to be less relevant than it really is (Lieberman & Chaiken,), they may falsely see themselves as less vulnerable than others (Clarke, Lovegrove, Williams, & Macpherson,), and they may see themselves as dissimilar to those who have succumbed to a particular health risk (Thornton, Gibbons, & Gerrard,). Continued practice of a risky behavior may itself lead to changes in perception of a person's degree of risk, inducing a false sense of complacency (Halpern-Felsher et al.,). Moreover, thinking about disease can produce a negative mood (Millar & Millar,), which may, in turn, lead people to ignore or defensively interpret their risk.

Cultural sensitivity is essential to modifying risky sexual behavior. Another issue that arises when using social psychological theories to design interventions is whether there are cofactors or environmental factors that influence the behavior that need to be simultaneously addressed. An example is alcohol consumption during risky sexual activity.

Adherence to Treatment

Changes in the structure of the healthcare delivery system have brought this issue increasingly to the fore, as patients express dissatisfaction with their often-fragmented managed care. Because patients typically do not have the medical expertise to judge whether their care is technically competent, they often judge the quality of their care based on how much they like the practitioner, including how friendly, apparently caring, and polite he or she was (Bogart,). Accordingly, social psychologists have been heavily involved in interventions to attempt to eliminate the common complaints that patients report. These include inattentiveness, use of jargon, baby talk, depersonalization, and brusque, rushed visits. In addition, communication patterns appear to be especially eroded when physicians encounter patients whom they would prefer not to treat. These may include the elderly and members of minority groups. Women may be stereotyped as seeking treatment for psychological distress, such as depression or anxiety.

Communication interventions may help to reduce problems such as these. Communication interventions are most successful if the recommendations can be learned easily, incorporated into medical routines easily, and implemented almost automatically. Nonetheless, actions such as these are seen as signs of warmth and supportiveness by patients (DiMatteo,). Simple communication interventions can also improve adherence to treatment. Asking the patient to repeat what needs to be done, keeping recommendations as simple as possible, writing them down as well as communicating them orally, emphasizing the importance of adherence, acknowledging the patient's efforts to adhere, involving family members when possible, using short words and short sentences that include concrete, specific language, and finding out what the patient's worries are or what potential barriers to treatment might be also help to improve nonadherence (Taylor, a). By making messages simple and tailoring them to personal needs, the practitioner can help the patient decide to adhere and figure out how to implement recommendations in his or her life. The private face-to-face nature of the interaction between the healthcare practitioner and the patient provides an effective setting for holding attention, repeating and clarifying instructions, extracting commitments for adherence from the patient, and assessing potential sources of resistance. The importance of communication during medical visits has not been fully recognized. But with research, much of which was conducted by social psychologists, training institutions have become more receptive to the importance of training programs such as these. The payoffs for the often minimal amount of time invested in communication training can be very high. Good communication has been tied directly to patient satisfaction with care, a disinclination to sue in discretionary medical malpractice cases, and adherence to treatment.

7.3.7 Stress

Everyone has an intuitive appreciation of stress. It is being late for an important appointment, realizing you ran a stoplight and a hidden camera just took a picture of your license plate, or finding out that your parents need your help at home during examination time. Stress is formally defined as a negative emotional experience accompanied by predictable biochemical, physiological, cognitive, and behavioral changes directed either toward altering the stressful event or accommodating to its effects (Baum,). Although researchers initially focused on stressful events themselves, called stressors, increasingly researchers have recognized that stress is the consequence of a person's appraisal processes.

Primary appraisal determines the meaning of the event (Lazarus & Folkman,). Events may be perceived as positive, neutral, or negative in their consequences and are further appraised for their possible harm, threat, or challenge. Secondary appraisal involves the assessment of our coping abilities and resources, namely whether they will be sufficient to meet the harm, threat or challenge of the event. Ultimately, the subjective experience of stress is a balance between primary and secondary appraisal. When people feel able to deal with difficult situations, they experience a sense of challenge, but when resources are perceived to be insufficient to address

the event, they experience threat (cf. Tomaka, Blascovich, Kelsey, & Leitten,). Stress, then, results from the process of appraising events as harmful, threatening, or challenging, of assessing potential responses, and of responding to those events

7.3.8 Social Support

Social support is perhaps the most significant coping resource that people possess. It is the perception or experience that you are loved and cared for by others, esteemed and valued, and part of a social network of mutual assistance and obligations (Wills,). Social support may assume any of several forms. Tangible assistance involves the provision of material support, such as services, financial assistance, or goods. Informational support from others helps people to understand a stressful event better and determine what resources and coping strategies must be mustered to deal with it. Emotional support is provided when a person is reassured by close others that he or she is a valuable individual who is cared for by others (Wills,).

Although the types of support just described involve the actual provision of help or solace by one person to another, in fact, many of the benefits of social support come from the perception that social support is available; that is, people carry their support networks around in their heads. Indeed, when we receive help from another and are aware of it, self-esteem may be threatened because the act of social support suggests a dependence on others or potentially a need to reciprocate (Bolger, Zuckerman, & Kessler,). When we receive help from another but are unaware of it, that help is most likely to benefit the recipient, a type of support called invisible support (Bolger & Amarel,).

Without question, social support is the most health-promoting resource uncovered by health psychologists. It has health-protective effects on par with or exceeding such well-established predictors of health as cholesterol and smoking. And, correspondingly, people who are socially isolated (Hawkey, Burleson, Berntson, & Cacioppo,), who are chronically shy (Naliboff et al.,), or who anticipate rejection by others (Cole, Kemeny, Fahey, Zack, & Naliboff,) experience elevated mental and physical health risks. Social isolation is also a risk factor for early death for both humans and animals (House, Landis, & Umberson,).

Social support probably exerts its health-protective effects by some of the same routes as other psychosocial resources, that is, by reducing physiological and neuroendocrine responses to stress. Even undergoing stressful events in the presence of a pet can keep our heart rate and blood pressure lower and lead to faster physiological recovery following stress. Dogs appear to be more adept at providing social support than other pets (Allen, Blascovich, & Mendes,). Social support can lower the likelihood of illness, speed recovery from illness or treatment when it occurs, and reduce the risk of prolonged illness or risk of mortality due to serious disease (House, Landis, & Umberson, ; Rutledge, Matthews, Lui, Stone, & Cauley,). A substantial literature attests to the mental and physical health benefits

of perceived and actual social support. Social support appears to have genetic bases in either the ability to construe social support as available or to establish supportive social networks (Kessler, Kendler, Heath, Neale, & Eaves,). During stressful times these genetic predispositions may be activated, leading people to experience social support as available to them. On the whole, the evidence for the beneficial effects of social support is overwhelming. It is beneficial during nonstressful as well as stressful times (direct effects hypothesis), but may be especially beneficial during periods of high stress (the buffering hypothesis). It is more effective when it matches the needs that a person has (the matching hypothesis; Cohen & McKay,) than if the wrong person provides the wrong kind of social support (Dakof& Taylor,). When would-be support providers fail to provide the kind of support that is needed or react in an unsupportive manner, they actually aggravate the negative event. Negative interactions can have a more adverse effect on wellbeing than positive interactions can have on improving it (Rook,).

There are significant gender and cultural variations in how social support is experienced or used. Women are somewhat more likely to draw on their social networks for coping with stress than are men (Taylor, , for a review). East Asians and Asian-Americans appear to profit more from social support that is implicit, that is, achieved through the awareness of knowing that one is part of a network consisting of mutual obligations; European Americans, by contrast, appear to benefit from explicit social support, that is, actually making use of their network to ask for help or comfort (Taylor, Welch, Kim, & Sherman,). These qualifications notwithstanding, social support is a profoundly important resource that merits research attention and cultivation.

7.3.9 Coping Style

In addition to individual differences in resources, people have general ways of responding across situations that reflect coping styles, that is, general propensities to deal with stressful events in a particular way. Many frameworks for characterizing coping processes have been advanced (Skinner, Edge, Altman, & Sherwood,). For example, coping strategies are often organized according to their intended function, such as resolving the stress (i.e., problem focused coping) or palliating event-related distress (i.e., emotion-focused coping). An important framework is approach-avoidance. Reflecting a core motivational construct in psychology (e.g., Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin,), the approach-avoidance continuum characterizes coping efforts and maps easily onto broader theories of biobehavioral functioning. Examples of approach oriented coping are problem solving, seeking social support, and creating outlets for emotional expression. Coping through avoidance includes both cognitive and behavioral strategies, such as the use of alcohol, drugs, or television to withdraw from stress. Consistently, researchers find that the use of avoidance-oriented coping typically predicts elevated distress and less effective coping. Avoidance-oriented coping may preempt more effective active coping efforts, involve damaging behaviors, such as substance use, or induce intrusion of stress-related thoughts and emotions. Approach-

based coping, however, is typically associated with more beneficial health and mental health outcomes, and has been advanced as an explanation for the generally beneficial effects of psychosocial resources on health and mental health (Taylor & Stanton,).

One widely used measure of connections to related fields developed by Carver and colleagues (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub,) is the COPE. It assesses the specific coping strategies of active coping, planning, positive reframing, acceptance, humor, religion, using emotional support from others, using instrumental support from others, self-distraction, denial, venting, substance use, behavioral disengagement, and self-blame. For example, a person might name a specific stressor and answer questions such as “I’ve been taking action to try to make the situation better,” an item that assesses active coping. Perusal of these scales reveals that they map well onto the approach avoidance continuum just described and also distinguish between social coping strategies and individual ones.

Many people are unable to develop effective coping strategies on their own, and so a variety of interventions have been developed to enable them to do so, including mindfulness training (e.g., Brown & Ryan,), cognitive-behavioral stress management interventions (e.g., Antoni et al.,), and writing interventions that encourage emotional expression (e.g., Pennebaker, ; Lepore & Smyth,).

7.4. SUMMARY

Social Psychology and Law are connected and have a really important role in the study. Social psychology has its influence on health too. Many good health habits can be followed with some techniques. Attitude change can be done with some kind of messages and even social support can help in this aspect. Here we discussed health models and even we go through stress ,self efficacy and coping styles. With the help of this chapter we focused on many aspects of society which have an influence on social psychology.

7.5.QUESTIONS

Write down short Notes.

1. Self Efficacy
2. Stress
3. Two Basic Principles and Two Contexts
4. The Health Belief Model

7.6. REFERENCE

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APPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY II

Unit Structure

8.0 Objectives

8.1. Influences the Accuracy of Clinical Judgements :Introduction

8.1.1.Hindsight and Overconfidence

8.1.2.Clinical versus Statistical Prediction

8.1.3.Cognitive Process Accompany Behaviour Problems

8.1.4.Reactions To illness

8.2.1.Close Relationships and Health

8.2.2.Confiding And Health

8.2.3.Close Relationships and Happiness

8.3.1.Social Psychology and Politics

8.3.2.Social perception And political behaviour

8.3.3.Perceptual biases

8.3.4.Attribution

8.3.5.Schemas and Heuristics

8.4.Voting behaviour

8.4.1.Social Influence

8.4.2.Interpersonal Attraction

8.5.Media influence on political behaviour

8.6.Summary

8.7.Questions

8.8.Reference

8.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe Influences the Accuracy of Clinical Judgements :Introduction
- Understand Voting behaviour
- Explain Media influence on political behaviour

8.1. INFLUENCES THE ACCURACY OF CLINICAL JUDGEMENTS :INTRODUCTION

In the contest between heart and head, most psychological clinicians vote with their hearts. They listen to the whispers from their experience, a still small voice that clues them. They prefer not to let cold calculations decide the futures of warm human beings. they are far more likely than nonclinical (and more research-oriented) psychologists to welcome nonscientific “ways of knowing.” Feelings trump formulas. Clinical judgments are also social judgments, notes social-clinical psychologist James Maddux (2008). The social construction of mental illness works like this, he says: Someone observes a pattern of atypical or unwanted thinking and acting. A powerful group sees the desirability or profitability of diagnosing and treating this problem, and thus gives it a name. News about this disease spreads, and people begin seeing it in themselves or family members. And thus is born Body Dysmorphic Disorder (for those preoccupied with an appearance defect), Oppositional Defiant Disorder (for toddlers throwing tantrums), Hypoactive Sexual Desire Disorder (for those not wanting sex often enough), or Orgasmic Disorder (for those having orgasms too late or too soon). “The science of medicine is not diminished by acknowledging that the notions of health and illness are socially constructed,” notes Maddux, “nor is the science of economics diminished by acknowledging that the notions of poverty and wealth are socially constructed.”

As social phenomena, clinical judgments are thus vulnerable to illusory correlations, overconfidence bred by hindsight, and self-confirming diagnoses (Garb, 2005; Maddux, 1993). Let’s see why alerting mental health workers to how people form impressions (and misimpressions) might help avert serious misjudgments (McFall, 1991, 2000).

If it is assumed that people with sexual disorders are more likely to respond to Rorschach ink pads, they may think that they have seen such associations when they reflect on their own experiences. To determine when such an observation is an illusory correlation, a psychologist offers a simple method: ask a doctor to perform and interpret the test. Ask another doctor to evaluate the same person's signs or symptoms. Repeat this process with many people. The proof of the pudding is in the eating: some tests are indeed predictive. Others, such as Rorschach inkblots and the

Drawa-Person test, have much weaker correlations than their users expect (Lilienfeld et al., 2000, 2005).

Pioneering experiments by Loren Chapman and Jean Chapman (1969, 1971) helped us understand why. They invited both college students and professional doctors to study some of the test results and diagnoses. When students or doctors expected a certain association, they usually found it regardless of whether the data supported it.

8.1.1.Hindsight and Overconfidence

When someone we know commits suicide, one common reaction is to think that we or our loved ones should have been able to predict the suicide and thereby prevent it: "We should have known!" In hindsight, we can see signs of suicide and calls for help. One experiment presented participants with a description of a depressed person. Some participants were told that the person would later commit suicide; this was not told to the other participants. Compared to those who were not told about suicide, those who were told were more likely to say that they would "expect it" (Goggin and Range, 1985). In addition, suicidal narrators had a more negative view of the victim's family. After a tragedy, "I should have known" family, friends, and therapists may feel guilty.

In a series of intelligence experiments, Mark Snyder (1984) of the University of Minnesota, in collaboration with William Swann and others, provided interviewers with hypotheses about the characteristics of individuals. Snyder and Swann found that people often test a trait in search of confirmatory information. As with the blind date example, when people try to figure out if someone is an extrovert, they often ask for examples of extraversion ("What would you do if you wanted to spice things up at a party?"). When they test an introvert, they are more likely to ask, "What factors make it difficult for you to open up to people?" In response, extraverted subjects appear more sociable and introverted subjects appear more shy. Our assumptions and expectations of another help create the kind of person we see.

In other experiments, Snyder and colleagues (1982) tried to get people to seek out behaviors that would cancel out the trait they were testing. In one experiment, they told interviewers, "It is meaningful and informative to find out how a person . . . may not be stereotyped." In another experiment, Snyder (1981) offered "\$25 to the person who asks a series of questions that are the most telling. . . interviewee." However, confirmation bias remained: people did not choose "introverted" questions when testing extraversion.

8.1.2.Clinical versus Statistical Prediction

It will come as no surprise, given these hindsight- and diagnosis-confirming tendencies, that most clinicians and interviewers express more confidence in their intuitive assessments than in statistical data (such as using past grades and aptitude scores to predict success in graduate or professional school). Yet when researchers pit statistical prediction against

intuitive prediction, the statistics usually win. Statistical predictions are indeed unreliable, but human intuition—even expert intuition—is even more unreliable (Faust & Ziskin, 1988; Meehl, 1954; Swets & others, 2000). Three decades after demonstrating the superiority of statistical over intuitive prediction, Paul Meehl (1986) found the evidence stronger than ever: There is no controversy in social science which shows [so many] studies coming out so uniformly in the same direction as this one When you are pushing 90 investigations, predicting everything from the outcome of football games to the diagnosis of liver disease and when you can hardly come up with a half dozen studies showing even a weak tendency in favor of the clinician, it is time to draw a practical conclusion. One University of Minnesota research team conducted an all-encompassing digest (“meta-analysis”) of 134 studies predicting human behavior or making psychological or medical diagnoses and prognoses (Grove & others, 2000). In only 8 of the studies, which were conducted mostly in medical, mental health, or education settings, did clinical prediction surpass “mechanical” (statistical) prediction. In eight times as many (63 studies), statistical prediction fared better. (The rest were a virtual draw.)

Dawes (1976) explained why statistical prediction is so often superior to an interviewer’s intuition when predicting certain outcomes such as graduate school success: The most reasonable explanation to me lies in our over evaluation of our cognitive capacity. And it is really a cognitive concept. Consider, for example, what goes into a GPA. Because for most graduate applicants it is based on at least 3½ years of undergraduate study, it is a composite measure arising from a minimum of 28 courses and possibly, with the popularity of the quarter system, as many as 50 Yet you and I, looking at a folder or interviewing someone for a half hour, are supposed to be able to form a better impression than one based on 3½ years of the cumulative evaluations of 20–40 different professors. . . . Finally, if we do wish to ignore GPA, it appears that the only reason for doing so is believing that the candidate is particularly brilliant even though his or her record may not show it. The bottom line, contends Dawes (2005) after three decades pressing his point, is that, lacking evidence, using clinical intuition rather than statistical prediction “is simply unethical.” Implications for Better Clinical Practice Professional clinicians are human; they are “vulnerable to insidious errors and biases,” concluded James Maddux (1993). They are, as we have seen,

- frequently the victims of illusory correlation.
- too readily convinced of their own after-the-fact analyses .
- unaware that erroneous diagnoses can be self-confirming.
- likely to overestimate their clinical intuition.

The implications for mental health workers are easily stated: Be mindful that clients’ verbal agreement with what you say does not prove its validity. Beware of the tendency to see relationships that you expect to see or that are supported by striking examples readily available in your

memory. Rely on your notes more than on your memory. Recognize that hindsight is seductive: It can lead you to feel overconfident and sometimes to judge yourself too harshly for not having foreseen outcomes. Guard against the tendency to ask questions that assume your preconceptions are correct; consider opposing ideas and test them, too (Garb, 1994).

8.1.3.Cognitive Process Accompany Behaviour Problems

Depression

People who feel depressed tend to think in negative terms. They view life through dark-colored glasses. With seriously depressed people—those who are feeling worthless, lethargic, uninterested in friends and family, and unable to sleep or eat normally—the negative thinking is self-defeating. Their intensely pessimistic outlook leads them to magnify every bad experience and minimize every good one. They may view advice to “count your blessings” or “look on the bright side” as hopelessly unrealistic. As one depressed young woman reported, “The real me is worthless and inadequate. I can’t move forward with my work because I become frozen with doubt” (Burns, 1980, p. 29).

DEPRESSED MOODS CAUSE NEGATIVE THINKING

Our moods color our thinking. When we feel happy, we think happy. We see and recall a good world. But let our mood turn gloomy, and our thoughts switch to a different track. Off come the rose-colored glasses; on come the dark glasses. Now the bad mood primes our recollections of negative events (Bower, 1987; Johnson & Magaro, 1987). Our relationships seem to sour, our self-images tarnish, our hopes for the future dim, people’s behavior seems more sinister (Brown & Taylor, 1986; Mayer & Salovey, 1987). As depression increases, memories and expectations plummet; when depression lifts, thinking brightens (Barnett & Gotlib, 1988; Kuiper & Higgins, 1985). When things aren’t going our way, it may seem as though they never will. A depressed mood also affects behavior. When depressed, we tend to be withdrawn, glum, and quick to complain. Stephen Strack and James Coyne (1983) found that depressed people were realistic in thinking that others didn’t appreciate their behavior; their pessimism and bad moods can even trigger social rejection (Carver & others, 1994). Depressed behavior can also trigger reciprocal depression in others. College students who have depressed roommates tend to become a little depressed themselves (Burchill & Stiles, 1988; Joiner, 1994; Sanislow & others, 1989).

NEGATIVE THINKING CAUSES DEPRESSED MOODS

Depression is natural when experiencing severe stress—losing a job, getting divorced or rejected, or suffering any experience that disrupts our sense of who we are and why we are worthy human beings (Hamilton & others, 1993; Kendler & others, 1993). The brooding that comes with this short-term depression can be adaptive. Much as nausea and pain protect the body from toxins, depression protects us, by slowing us down, causing us to reassess, and then redirecting our energy in new ways (Watkins,

2008). Insights gained during times of depressed inactivity may later result in better strategies for interacting with the world. But depression-prone people respond to bad events with intense rumination and self-blame (Mor & Winquist, 2002; Pyszczynski & others, 1991). Their self-esteem fluctuates more rapidly up with boosts and down with threats (Butler & others, 1994). Evidence suggests that when stress-induced rumination is filtered through a negative explanatory style, the frequent outcome is depression (Robinson & Alloy, 2003). Colin Sacks and Daphne Bugental (1987) asked some young women to get acquainted with a stranger who sometimes acted cold and unfriendly, creating an awkward social situation. Unlike optimistic women, those with a pessimistic explanatory style—who characteristically offer stable, global, and internal attributions for bad events—reacted to the social failure by feeling depressed. Moreover, they then behaved more antagonistically toward the next people they met. Their negative thinking led to a negative mood, which then led to negative behavior.

Failed courses, careers, and marriages produce despair when we stand alone, with nothing and no one to fall back on. If, as a macho Fortune ad declared, you can “make it on your own,” on “your own drive, your own guts, your own energy, your own ambition,” then whose fault is it if you don’t make it? In non-Western cultures, where close-knit relationships and cooperation are the norm, major depression is less common and less tied to guilt and self-blame over perceived personal failure. In Japan, for example, depressed people instead tend to report feeling shame over letting down their family or co-workers (Draguns, 1990). These insights into the thinking style linked with depression have prompted social psychologists to study thinking patterns associated with other problems.

Loneliness

If depression is the common cold of psychological disorders, then loneliness is the headache. Loneliness, whether chronic or temporary, is a painful awareness that our social relationships are less numerous or meaningful than we desire. In modern cultures, close social relationships are less numerous. One national survey revealed a one-third drop, over two decades, in the number of people with whom Americans can discuss “important matters.” Reflecting on the finding, Robert Putnam (2006) reported that his data likewise reveal “sharp generational differences—baby boomers are more socially marooned than their parents, and the boomers’ kids are lonelier still. Is it because of two-career families? Ethnic diversity? The Internet? Suburban sprawl? Everyone has a favorite culprit. Mine is TV, but the jury is still out.” Other researchers have offered different explanations. In a study of Dutch adults, Jenny de Jong-Gierveld (1987) documented the loneliness that unmarried and unattached people are likely to experience. She speculated that the modern emphasis on individual fulfillment and the depreciation of marriage and family life may be “loneliness-provoking” (as well as depression-provoking). Job-related mobility also makes for fewer long-term family and social ties and increased loneliness (Dill & Anderson, 1999).

FEELING LONELY AND EXCLUDED

In *Loneliness: Human Nature and the Need for Social Connection*, John Cacioppo and William Patrick (2008) explain other physical and emotional effects of loneliness, which affects stress hormones and immune activity. Loneliness—which may be evoked by an icy stare or a cold shoulder—even feels, quite literally, cold. When recalling an experience of exclusion, people estimate a lower room temperature than when thinking of being included. After being excluded in a little ball game, people show a heightened preference for warm foods and drinks (Zhong & Leonardelli, 2008).

Adolescents more than adults experience loneliness (Heinrich & Gullone, 2006). When beeped by an electronic pager at various times during a week and asked to record what they were doing and how they felt, adolescents more often than adults reported feeling lonely when alone (Larsen & others, 1982). Males and females feel lonely under somewhat different circumstances—males when isolated from group interaction, females when deprived of close one-to-one relationships (Berg & McQuinn, 1988; Stokes & Levin, 1986). Men's relationships, it is said, tend to be side-by-side; women's relationships tend to be face-to-face. One exception: After divorce, men tend to feel lonelier than do women (Dykstra & Fokkema, 2007). But for all people, including those recently widowed, the loss of a person to whom one has been attached can produce unavoidable feelings of loneliness (Stroebe & others, 1996).

Such feelings can be adaptive. The path of loneliness signals people to seek social connections, which facilitate survival. Even when loneliness triggers nostalgia—a longing for the past—it serves to remind people of their social connections (Zhou & others, 2008).

PERCEIVING OTHERS NEGATIVELY

Like depressed people, chronically lonely people seem caught in a vicious circle of self-defeating social thinking and social behaviors. They have some of the negative explanatory style of the depressed; they perceive their interactions as making a poor impression, blame themselves for their poor social relationships, and see most things as beyond their control (Anderson & others, 1994; Christensen & Kashy, 1998; Snodgrass, 1987). Moreover, they perceive others in negative ways. These negative views may both reflect and color the lonely person's experience. Believing in their social unworthiness and feeling pessimistic about others inhibit lonely people from acting to reduce their loneliness. Lonely people often find it hard to introduce themselves, make phone calls, and participate in groups (Nurmi & others, 1996, 1997; Rook, 1984; Spitzberg & Hurt, 1987). Yet, like mildly depressed people, they are attuned to others and skilled at recognizing emotional expression (Gardner & others, 2005). Like depression, loneliness is genetically influenced; identical twins are much more likely than fraternal twins to share moderate to extreme loneliness (Boomsma & others, 2006).

Anxiety and Shyness

Shyness is a form of social anxiety characterized by self-consciousness and worry about what others think (Anderson & Harvey, 1988; Asendorpf, 1987; Carver & Scheier, 1986). Being interviewed for a much-wanted job, dating someone for the first time, stepping into a roomful of strangers, performing before an important audience, or giving a speech (one of the most common phobias) can make almost anyone feel anxious. But some people feel anxious in almost any situation in which they may feel they are being evaluated, such as having a casual lunch with a co-worker. For these people, anxiety is more a personality trait than a temporary state.

DOUBTING OUR ABILITY IN SOCIAL SITUATIONS

self- presentation theory assumes that we are eager to present ourselves in ways that make a good impression. The implications for social anxiety are straightforward: We feel anxious when we are motivated to impress others but have self-doubts. This simple principle helps explain a variety of research findings, each of which may ring true in your own experience. We feel most anxious when we are with powerful, high-status people—people whose impressions of us matter .

- in an evaluative context, such as when making a first impression on the parents of one's fiancé .
- self-conscious (as shy people often are), with our attention focused on ourselves and how we are coming across .
- focused on something central to our self-image, as when a college professor presents ideas before peers at a professional convention.
- in novel or unstructured situations, such as a first school dance or first formal dinner, where we are unsure of the social rules .

For most people, the tendency in all such situations is to be cautiously self- protective: to talk less; to avoid topics that reveal one's ignorance; to be guarded about oneself; to be unassertive, agreeable, and smiling. Ironically, such anxious concern with making a good impression often makes a bad impression (Broome & Wegner, 1994; Meleshko & Alden, 1993). With time, however, shy people often become well liked. Their lack of egotism, their modesty, sensitivity, and discretion wear well (Gough & Thorne, 1986; Paulhus & Morgan, 1997; Shepperd & others, 1995).

OVER PERSONALIZING SITUATIONS

Compared with unshy people, shy, self -conscious people (whose numbers include many adolescents) see incidental events as somehow relevant to themselves (Fenigstein, 1984; Fenigstein&Venable, 1992). Shy, anxious people over personalize situations, a tendency that breeds anxious concern and, in extreme cases, paranoia. They also overestimate the extent to which other people are watching and evaluating them. If their hair won't comb right or they have a facial blemish, they assume everyone else

notices and judges them accordingly. Shy people may even be conscious of their self-consciousness. They wish they could stop worrying about blushing, about what others are thinking, or about what to say next

To reduce social anxiety, some people turn to alcohol. Alcohol lowers anxiety and reduces self-consciousness (Hull & Young, 1983). Thus, chronically self-conscious people are especially likely to drink following a failure. If recovering from alcoholism, they are more likely than those low in self-consciousness to relapse when they again experience stress or failure. Symptoms as diverse as anxiety and alcohol abuse can also serve a self-handicapping function. Labeling oneself as anxious, shy, depressed, or under the influence of alcohol can provide an excuse for failure (Snyder & Smith, 1986).

8.1.4. REACTIONS TO ILLNESS :NOTICING SYMPTOMS

Chances are you have recently experienced at least one of these physical complaints: headache, stomachache, nasal congestion, sore muscles, ringing in the ears, excess perspiration, cold hands, racing heart, dizziness, stiff joints, and diarrhea or constipation (Pennebaker, 1982). Such symptoms require interpretation. Noticing and interpreting our body's signals is like noticing and interpreting how our car is running. Unless the signals are loud and clear, we often miss them. Most of us cannot tell whether a car needs an oil change merely by listening to its engine. Similarly, most of us are not astute judges of our heart rate, blood-sugar level, or blood pressure. People guess their blood pressure based on how they feel, which often is unrelated to their actual blood pressure (Baumann & Leventhal, 1985). Furthermore, the early signs of many illnesses, including cancer and heart disease, are subtle and easy to miss.

EMOTIONS AND ILLNESS

The association between depression and heart disease may result from stress-related inflammation of the arteries (Matthews, 2005; Miller & Blackwell, 2006). Stress hormones enhance protein production that contributes to inflammation, which helps fight infections. But inflammation also can exacerbate asthma, clogged arteries, and depression.

OPTIMISM AND HEALTH

Stories abound of people who take a sudden turn for the worse when something makes them lose hope, or who suddenly improve when hope is renewed. To resolve this chicken-and-egg riddle, researchers have (1) experimentally created hopelessness by subjecting organisms to uncontrollable stresses and (2) correlated the hopeless explanatory style with future illnesses

STRESS AND ILLNESS

Animals that have learned helplessness react more passively, and blood tests reveal a weakened immune response. It's a big leap from rats to

humans. But a growing body of evidence reveals that people who undergo highly stressful experiences become more vulnerable to disease (Segerstrom & Miller, 2004). Stress doesn't make us sick, but it does divert energy from our disease-fighting immune system, leaving us more vulnerable to infections and malignancy (Cohen, 2002, 2004). The death of a spouse, the stress of a space flight landing, even the strain of an exam week have all been associated with depressed immune defenses (Jemmott & Locke, 1984). Consider:

- Stress magnifies the severity of symptoms experienced by volunteers who are knowingly infected with a cold virus (Cohen & others, 2003, 2006; Dixon, 1986).
- Newlywed couples who became angry while discussing problems suffered more immune system suppression the next day (Kiecolt-Glaser & others, 1993). When people are stressed by marital conflict, laboratory puncture wounds take a day or two longer to heal (Kiecolt-Glaser & others, 2005).

Tennen and Affleck also remind us that every silver lining has a cloud. Optimists may see themselves as invulnerable and thus fail to take sensible precautions; for example, those who smoke cigarettes optimistically underestimate the risks involved (Segerstrom & others, 1993). And when things go wrong in a big way—when the optimist encounters a devastating illness—adversity can be shattering. Optimism is good for health. But remember: Even optimists have a mortality rate of 100 percent.

Inducing Internal Change through External Behavior

Consistent with the attitudes-follow-behavior principle, several psychotherapy techniques prescribe action.

- Behavior therapists try to shape behavior on the theory that the client's inner disposition will also change after the behavior changes
- In assertiveness training, the individual may first role-play assertiveness in a supportive context, then gradually implement assertive behaviors in everyday life Rational-emotive therapy assumes that we generate our own emotions; clients receive "homework" assignments to talk and act in new ways that will generate new emotions: Challenge that overbearing relative. Stop telling yourself you're an unattractive person and ask someone out.
- Self-help groups subtly induce participants to behave in new ways in front of the group—to express anger, cry, act with high self-esteem, and express positive feelings. All these techniques share a common assumption: If we cannot directly control our feelings by sheer willpower, we can influence them indirectly through our behavior. Experiments confirm that what we say about ourselves can affect how we feel.

SOCIAL SKILLS TRAINING

Depression, loneliness, and shyness are not just problems in someone's mind. To be around a depressed person for any length of time can be irritating and depressing. As lonely and shy people suspect, they may indeed come across poorly in social situations. In these cases, social skills training may help. By observing and then practicing new behaviors in safe situations, the person may develop the confidence to behave more effectively in other situations. As the person begins to enjoy the rewards of behaving more skillfully, a more positive self-perception develops.

EXPLANATORY STYLE THERAPY

The vicious circles that maintain depression, loneliness, and shyness can be broken by social skills training, by positive experiences that alter self-perceptions, and by changing negative thought patterns. Some people have good social skills, but their experiences with hypercritical friends and family have convinced them otherwise. For such people it may be enough to help them reverse their negative beliefs about themselves and their futures. Among the cognitive therapies with this aim is an explanatory style therapy proposed by social psychologists (Abramson, 1988; Gillham & others, 2000; Greenberg & others, 1992).

8.2.1. Close Relationships and Health

Eight extensive investigations, each interviewing thousands of people across several years, have reached a common conclusion: Close relationships predict health (Berkman, 1995; Ryff & Singer, 2000). Health risks are greater among lonely people, who often experience more stress, sleep less well, and commit suicide more often (Cacioppo & Patrick, 2008). Compared with those who have few social ties, those who have close relationships with friends, kin, or other members of close knit religious or community organizations are less likely to die prematurely. Outgoing, affectionate, relationship-oriented people not only have more friends, but also are less susceptible to cold viruses with which an experimenter injects them (Figure 14.6 ; Cohen & others, 1997, 2003). Married people also tend to live healthier, longer lives than their unmarried counterparts. The National Center for Health Statistics (2004) reports that people, regardless of age, sex, race, and income, tend to be healthier if married. Married folks experience less pain from headaches and backaches, suffer less stress, and drink and smoke less.

8.2.2. CONFIDING AND HEALTH

So there is a link between social support and health. Why? Perhaps those who enjoy close relationships eat better, exercise more, and smoke and drink less. Perhaps friends and family help bolster our self-esteem.

POVERTY, INEQUALITY, AND HEALTH

We have seen connections between health and the feelings of control that accompany a positive explanatory style. And we have seen connections

between health and social support. Feelings of control and support together with health care and nutritional factors help explain why economic status correlates with longevity. Poverty and its associated stresses help explain the lower life expectancy of disadvantaged minorities.

8.2.3. Close Relationships and Happiness

Confiding painful feelings is good not only for the body but for the soul as well. That's the conclusion of studies showing that people are happier when supported by a network of friends and family. Individualistic cultures offer independence, privacy, and pride in personal achievements. Collectivist cultures, with their tighter social bonds, offer protection from loneliness, alienation, divorce, and stress-related diseases.

FRIENDSHIPS AND HAPPINESS

Other findings confirm the importance of social networks. Across the life span, friendships foster self-esteem and well-being (Hartup & Stevens, 1997). For example,

- The happiest university students are those who feel satisfied with their love life (Emmons & others, 1983).
- Those who enjoy close relationships cope better with a variety of stresses, including bereavement, rape, job loss, and illness (Abbey & Andrews, 1985; Perlman & Rook, 1987).
- Among 800 alumni of Hobart and William Smith colleges surveyed by Wesley Perkins, those who preferred having very close friends and a close marriage to having a high income and occupational success and prestige were twice as likely as their former classmates to describe themselves as "fairly" or "very" happy (Perkins, 1991). When asked "What is necessary for your happiness?" or "What is it that makes your life meaningful?" most people mention—before anything else—satisfying close relationships with family, friends, or romantic partners (Berscheid, 1985; Berscheid & Peplau, 1983). Happiness hits close to home.

MARITAL ATTACHMENT AND HAPPINESS

A mountain of data reveals that most people are happier attached than unattached. Survey after survey of many tens of thousands of Europeans and Americans has produced a consistent result: Compared with those single or widowed, and especially compared with those divorced or separated, married people report being happier and more satisfied with life (Gove & others, 1990; Inglehart, 1990). First reason is A good marriage gives each partner a dependable companion, a lover, a friend. There is a second, more prosaic, reason why marriage promotes happiness, or at least buffers us from misery. Marriage offers the roles of spouse and parent, which can provide additional sources of self-esteem (Crosby, 1987). It is true that multiple roles can multiply stress. Our circuits can and do overload. Yet each role also provides rewards, status, avenues to

enrichment, and escape from stress faced in other parts of one's life. A self with many identities is like a mansion with many rooms. When fire struck one wing of Windsor Castle, most of the castle still remained for royals and tourists to enjoy. When our personal identity stands on several legs, it, too, holds up under the loss of any one. If I mess up at work, well, I can tell myself I'm still a good husband and father, and, in the final analysis, these parts of me are what matter most.

8.3.1. Social Psychology and Politics

Political behaviour mainly denotes the political attitudes, opinions, values and beliefs. Thus, an individual's political opinions, views, ideology and participation in politics can be studied under political behaviour. In the present unit, we will focus on social perception and political behaviour, voting behaviour and media influence on political behaviour.

8.3.2. SOCIAL PERCEPTION AND POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR

Political behaviour is rooted in social perception. Social perception refers to how people perceive, think about, and remember information about others. And this can play an important role in the way the political leaders are perceived by the general public. There are a number of perceptual biases as well, like, selective perception and halo effect that can have an effect on the way the political leaders are perceived. Individuals often receive a large amount of information which they may not be able to process and as a result, attention is paid only to some information and thus the perception is based on certain features that are unique and these features may not represent the individual and his/ her behaviour. Halo effect denotes generalizations that are carried out about a person based on certain limited information. Social perception can be defined as the process in which the information with regard to how individuals perceive themselves and others, is selected and interpreted. Thus, it mainly deals with how we see or view others. And this perception of others is subjective in nature and thus there could be a number of perceptual biases that may occur when we perceive others.

8.3.3. Perceptual biases:

Perceptual biases can be explained as systematic errors that are made when individuals perceive others. Two main perceptual biases can be discussed in this context. They are as follows: - **Selective perception:** This denotes that individuals are exposed to a large amount of information and thus not all the information is focused on but attention is paid only to certain information thus leading to selective perception. The perception is based on the distinctive features and behaviours that as such may not represent the individual behaviour. Thus, a political candidate will be perceived based on certain distinctive characteristics without paying attention to the overall behaviour of the candidate.

Halo effect: Based on limited information, generalizations are made about an individual. Thus, again a political candidate is perceived as an effective or ineffective candidate based on limited information. Social perception

can be used in political behaviour to determine how the politicians are perceived and how certain perceptual biases could occur when certain politicians are perceived.

8.3.4. Attribution

Attribution is also a significant concept under social perception. It can be explained as the inferences drawn about the causes of behaviours displayed by other individuals, one's own behaviour and events (Shetgovekar, 2018). It can also be described as efforts made by an individual to ascertain the reason or causes of one's own behaviours and that of others (Baron and Byrne, 1995). While making attributions, individuals can also make attribution biases. These are discussed as follows:

Fundamental attribution error: The behaviours displayed by others are attributed to their internal factors.

Actor observer bias: The behaviour of others is attributed to internal factors but one's own behaviour is attributed to external factors.

Self serving bias: This can be explained as where success is attributed to dispositional characteristics of the individual and failure is attributed to the situational factors. Errors based on attribution could also occur when we discuss how the politicians are perceived.

8.3.5. Schemas and Heuristics

In the context of social perception, we can also discuss heuristics and schemas. Schemas can be defined as "the expectations we have about certain situations or certain persons" (Shetgovekar, 2018, page 71). Schemas can be explained as mental representations and they are a set of cognitions about certain concepts. And these cognitions are organized and structured. Schemas aid in the organisation of knowledge and information and also plays a role in guiding information processing. Schemas help us in interpretation of new information regarding social situations, roles, objects and phenomenon. The information that we obtain from others and from our social situations can be quickly processed with the help of schemas. They can also help in enhancing our memory as the information received is remembered, interpreted and inferences are drawn on the basis of information. Further, gaps that are created due to missing information can also be filled based on the information that is consistent with schema. Thus, schemas can play an important role in how we perceive situations, events, people and so on. They operate in an automatic manner and are unintentional and thus could lead to biases and errors. For instance, when assumptions about certain political candidates are based on faulty schemas, the interpretation and inferences that we make would also be faulty and incorrect. Further, stereotypes that are based on schemas can also have detrimental effects. Social psychologists can make use of schemas in order to understand how political related information is organized by the individuals.

Schemas can also help in understanding political belief systems from psychological and social perspectives. In the context of political behaviour, we can also discuss political schemas. And in this context we need to highlight that certain aspects related to political knowledge could be low or high on emotions. Thus, certain political knowledge could evoke strong emotional and cognitive reactions. Further, the focus also needs to be on the variation amongst the individuals with regard to the availability and use of schemas (Conover and Feldman, 1984). Heuristics can be explained as cognitive shortcuts as stated by Tversky and Kahneman (1974, pg 1124) “People rely on a limited number of heuristic principles which reduce the complex tasks of assessing probabilities and predicting values to simpler judgemental operations.

In general, these heuristics are quite useful, but sometimes they lead to severe and systematic errors”. Some of the commonly used heuristics are as follows:

Representativeness heuristics: In this the information received from the environment and the information received through schemas are matched. These can be explained as mental shortcuts where there is a categorisation of instances on the basis of how similar they are to atypical members in certain categories (Barret, 2017). Thus, a political candidate belonging to a certain political party would be perceived in a certain manner based on how the information about him/ her matches the schema.

The availability heuristics: Availability heuristic is described by Barrett (2017, pg 92) as “mental shortcuts in which people judge the frequency or likelihood of an event based on how easily relevant examples come to mind”. Here the inferences are made based on the information that is easily available. For example, inferences about certain political candidates or a political party may be drawn based on the information as reflected in the media.

Simulation heuristics: The simulation heuristic can be explained as “a tendency of an individual to think the events or situations that can be easily stimulated mentally or imagined, are more likely to occur” (Shetgovekar, 2018, page 77).

Anchoring heuristics: When we try to understand certain vague or unclear information, we use anchors. These anchors can be explained as reference points. It is most commonly used in marketing to influence consumer behaviour. Schemas and heuristics can play a significant role in our social perception and they can have an influence on the political decisions of the individuals.

8.4.VOTING BEHAVIOUR

Social perception and the concepts that we discussed under social perception, like attribution, schemas and heuristics can play a role in determining the voting behaviour of the individuals. In social psychology we also discuss social influence and interpersonal attraction. Electoral voting behaviours involve understanding of the social and political

frameworks of a given area, informed choices by voters along with an ability to make inferences and predictions for community welfare.

8.4.1.Social Influence

Social influence can also play a role in determining voting behaviour. It can be explained as a persuasive effect that the people have on each other. Social influence can be defined as a change that occurs in the behaviour, attitude, opinions and judgements of individuals that is as a result of being exposed to the views and opinions of other individuals. For example, friends can have an impact on our opinion and views. Media as well can have an impact on our judgment. Three important terms in this context are conformity, compliance and obedience.

1) **Conformity**: Conformity can be explained as pressure to behave in the ways that others do. It can be explained as pressure to behave the way others do. An experiment in this regard was carried out by Asch (that you must have discussed in BPCC107), in which it was found that some of the participants gave incorrect answers so that they could go along with the answers that were given by the majority of the people. Conformity can have an impact on the voting behaviour and overall political behaviour of the individuals as individuals may vote or have certain attitude or opinion about a political candidate not because either truly believe but because they want to conform with the viewpoint of the majority. In the context of conformity, we can discuss normative social norms and informational social norms. Normative social influence occurs when conformity is an outcome of desire to be liked and accepted by group members. Whereas, informational social influence is a tendency in which an individual will measure his/ her behaviour with that of others and will accept the facts that he/ she obtained from others as reality. In this context, we also need to discuss about anti-conformist that denotes individuals who do not give in to the pressure from others and maintain their opinion, views and behaviours. Individuals may not conform as they wish to retain control over their lives and not be controlled by others. They also want to maintain their uniqueness in comparison with others (referred to as individuation).

2) **Compliance**: Compliance can be explained as making changes in one's behaviour as a result or suggestion or requests from other individuals. Some of the prominent techniques in this context are as follows:

- **Ingratiation**: In this technique individuals indulge in enhancing their attractiveness in order to make others comply with their demands, opinions etc.
- **Foot in the door technique**: In this compliance is initially obtained from smaller requests and then a larger request is put-forth.
- **Door in the face technique**: In this technique, the individual will make a larger request first and then if this request is denied a smaller request is then put forth.

That's Not All (TNA) technique: Using this technique, a deal is sugar coated in order to make it seem attractive thus leading an individual to conform. These techniques are effectively used in marketing and sales. Political candidates and political parties as well could engage this strategy in order to improve their image and garner votes from the public.

3) Obedience: In this the individual will engage in giving commands and directions so as to change the behaviour and actions of other individuals. Often such individuals have some status or position in society that is considered as important. Obedience can take varied forms from obedience to God, to certain persons, social norms, laws and so on. The experiment carried out by Milgram can be mentioned here which showed that obedience can have an influence on individuals' behaviour. Whether a person will obey or not will depend on factors like his/ her personality, locus of control, social norms and upbringing of the individual. A tendency to be submissive to an authoritarian figure is termed as authoritarian submission (Shetgovekar, 2018).

There are individuals as well who do not obey and they do so because they feel responsible for their actions and they feel that submissive behaviour beyond an optimal level is unnecessary and could be harmful. Individuals could also be made aware about how obeying to certain directions that are harmful or have ill-effects need to be avoided and that such directions and authority needs to be challenged. Social influence plays a major role in our lives. Social psychologists can use the principles of social influence to develop intervention strategies and awareness programmes that help people understand how their behaviours are influenced.

8.4.2. Interpersonal Attraction

Interpersonal attraction can be explained in terms of attitude towards other individuals. Thus, when an individual A likes individual B, then the attitude would be positive and if individual A dislikes individual B, then the attitude towards that individual would be negative. There are various determinants of attraction including physical determinants that are based on the physical characteristics of the person, warmth displayed by the other person and competence displayed by the other person. Thus, when explaining voter behaviour the determinants of attraction can be studied. Further, similarity and proximity can also play a role in determining voting behaviour. The main principles of interpersonal attraction that we can focus on are association and reinforcement. To explain association, when individuals have a positive attitude towards those individuals with whom positive experiences can be associated. And reinforcement denotes that individuals who evaluate us positively or reward us are seen as attractive. Both the principles can be applied to not only understand political behaviour, specifically voting behaviour which to a great extent can be determined on the basis of attraction.

Repeated exposure could also determine voting behaviour besides attraction. This principle is also used in advertising. When individuals are

exposed to a certain political candidate through billboards, hoardings, pamphlets, appliances on television, videos on social media and so on, the face of that political candidate will become familiar and individuals would develop a positive attitude and linking towards that individual. Emotions also play high in this context and politicians who are associated with positive emotions are preferred or liked and politicians who are associated with negative emotions are not preferred or disliked. Keeping this in mind, you will notice that a lot of political campaigning will involve affective manipulations where attempts are made to associate the opposing candidates with negative emotions and to evoke positive emotions, smiling and happy pictures are placed on the hoardings, billboards and pamphlets (Baron and Byrne, 1994). Voting behaviour will also depend on the perceived leadership qualities of the politician. A leader would be expected to display certain characteristics like motivation, intelligence, self confidence, necessary skills and expertise, honesty, knowledge and creativity (Baron and Byrne, 1994) and on the basis of these voters' perceptions of the political candidate as a leader would be determined. The non verbal behaviour of the candidate can also play an important role in this context. Political psychologists can thus make use of the principles as discussed in this section in order to understand the voting behaviour. Suitable interventions can be developed to create awareness about political systems as well.

8.5.MEDIA INFLUENCE ON POLITICAL BEHAVIOUR

In social psychology we mainly focus on what influences our behaviour in social set up. And one of the answers is media. Media can have both positive and negative impacts on human behaviour and thought process. Thus, the media can also influence our political behaviour. In this context, we can explain media settings, that can be described as an idea that media can lead to shaping of thoughts and issues that are perceived as important by the individuals (Ewoldsen and Roskos, 2012). Thus, if a certain murder case is extensively covered by the media, the general public will perceive that case as important. Thus, the media influences what we think is more important than what we think. There are three kinds of agenda that can be discussed here:

Public agenda: This mainly focuses on the issues that are perceived as important by the general public.

Policy agenda: This mainly focused on the issues that are perceived as relevant by the policy makers or government personnel.

Media agenda: This includes issues that are covered extensively by the media. Studies in this regard have indicated that often the public agenda is determined by the media agenda and the policy agenda is determined by the public agenda (Ewoldsen and Roskos, 2012). This can be attributed to the very fact that certain issues are widely covered by the media and that leads to the public thinking that the issue is important and the issue becomes salient. This then can have an effect on how judgements are made by the public as availability heuristics plays a role here.

Thus, the issue is easily recalled and reported and is termed as significant. And if a certain issue is covered by various media or covered by the media for a considerable period of time, then it is all the more perceived as significant. Though, we have to remember that it is not always that the media agenda determines the public agenda and there could be issues seen as relevant by the general public that may not be covered in the media agenda. In the context, we can also discuss political priming that is especially relevant when we discuss political behaviour. Political priming denotes that information used by people to make judgements regarding politicians is determined by the issues covered by the media. Thus, again we need to stress that the media does not influence the thinking process but will include how the information is utilised when such judgements are made. To take an example, if the media focuses on the way a certain issue was managed by a politician, the judgement of the people will depend on how the same was portrayed by the media whether positively or negatively. Similarly if the media focused on how the political candidate played an important role in international negotiations, the judgement of the people would be accordingly determined. It is often felt that the media focuses more on negative aspects when it comes. It is often felt that the media focuses more on negative aspects when it comes to politics and this can have an impact on the trust that the people put in the politicians or the government. Though studies have indicated that exposure to media did lead to increase in the understanding of the people with regard to the political system.

These studies did have some limitations as mainly surveys were used (Ewoldsen and Roskos, 2012). Much also depends on framing how the story is presented. It mainly denotes the angle of the story. This is especially important as depending on the focus of the story, certain elements of the study would be emphasized and others will be deemphasised. Framing can also determine the trust that the people will have in a political candidate or the government. Here a reporter could use an issue frame, that is, the focus will be on relevant issues, its background and various details. For example during campaigning, certain issues like lack of suitable health facilities in certain constituencies can be highlighted by the reporter. There can also be a strategy frame that focuses on the motivations that determine the varied positions taken by the politician. For example, the strategy focus could emphasize on why a certain policy was launched or backed by a politician. Thus, the media plays a role in determining political behaviour of the people, though we cannot deny the contribution of other factors as well.

8.6.SUMMARY

In this chapter we studied how factors and social psychology contribute in Clinical Psychology. then we focus on application of social psychology on political behaviour. In this context we discussed social perception, voting behaviour and media influence on political behaviour. Social perception refers to how people perceive, think about, and remember information about others. In the context of social perception, we discussed attribution,

schemas and heuristics. Voting behaviour was discussed keeping in mind social influence and interpersonal attraction. Lastly, the influence of media on political behaviour was discussed that focused on how media can have an influence on the political behaviour of the individuals.

8.7.QUESTIONS

Write down Short Notes.

1. Media Influence on political behaviour
2. Perceptual biases
3. Clinical versus Statistical Prediction

8.8.REFERENCES

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