
PSY 2110 FINAL EXAM STUDY NOTES

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WEEK 7: STEREOTYPES, PREJUDICE, AND DISCRIMINATION

Stereotypes (Cognitive) - The generalized perceptions, beliefs, and expectations a person has about members of some group
Schemas about entire groups of people
Effects of stereotypes on behavior can be automatic and unconscious

Prejudice (Affective) - A negative attitude toward an individual based solely on the person's membership in some group
Includes an irrational hostility toward a particular group
In one word...prejudgment

Discrimination (Behavioural) - Differential treatment of individuals who belong to different groups

STEREOTYPES:

Stereotypes are a type of schemas - Generalized beliefs about members of a group (based on race, gender, religion, etc.)
May or may not be accurate
May be positive or negative
Most researchers believe it is even possible to have a schema that you don't personally believe (i.e., OTHER PEOPLE think that Group X has qualities ... but I don't)...

Stereotypes are formed through **social categorization**: The classification of persons into groups on the basis of common attributes.
Helps us form impressions quickly and use past experiences to guide new interactions.

Devine (1989) - Suggests that our parents and media may have started an early process that has now become automatic

Serious drawback: By categorizing people, we often:
Overestimate the differences between groups
Underestimate the differences within groups
This may bias our perceptions

We have a strong tendency to divide people into in-groups and out-groups
Such group identifications can promote an in-group bias...

Often it becomes an "Us vs. Them" attitude

Consequences

Exaggerate differences between in-groups and other out-groups.
Creates an out-group homogeneity effect

⇒ A **Perceived Out-group Homogeneity effect** is a phenomenon of overestimating the extent to which members within other groups are similar to each other (e.g., they all look the same to me)

STEREOTYPES AND PREJUDICE IN ACTION

Who has the razor??? (Allport and Postman, 1947)

Subjects were shown a picture depicting two men, one black and one white, confronting each other on a subway car
The white man has a straight razor in his hand
After viewing the picture, the first subject describes it to a second subject, who in turn describes it to another, and so on
After a few retellings, the straight razor ends up (is inferred to be) in the hand of the black man

Boon & Davies (1987)

Subjects see a cartoon story of 2 men interacting on the subway. At the end of the interaction, one man pulls a knife.

Different subjects see one of three different versions:

Both men are white: Man A has the knife (wearing a suit)

Both men are white: Man B has the knife (wearing work clothes)

One is black, one is white: White man has the knife

Retrieval phase

Both recall and recognition tests

Recall test: No stimuli, just "describe the man who pulled the knife"

Recognition test: See two versions of the critical picture (correct knife-holder, or knife in the OTHER man's hand): instructions are "pick the one you saw before"

There is a correct and an incorrect version for the participants who saw the original story with two white men, AND also for those participants who saw the original story with one white man and one black man

CONSEQUENCES OF STEREOTYPES AND PREJUDICE

Self-perpetuating stereotypes

Subtyping - Accommodating groups of individuals who deviate from one's stereotype by thinking of them as a special category of people with different properties

The role of attribution in maintaining or changing a stereotype

Subgrouping - Accommodating groups of individuals who deviate from one's stereotype by forming a new stereotype about this subset of the group

Can stereotypes actually create self-fulfilling prophecies?

(Wood et al., 1974)

White male University students interviewed white and black male high school students seeking employment

White interviewers of black applicants (relative to white interviewers of white applicants):

- ⇒ Sat further away
- ⇒ Conducted shorter interviews
- ⇒ Made more speech errors
- ⇒ Appeared to cause black applicants to become uncomfortable

Follow-up Experiment

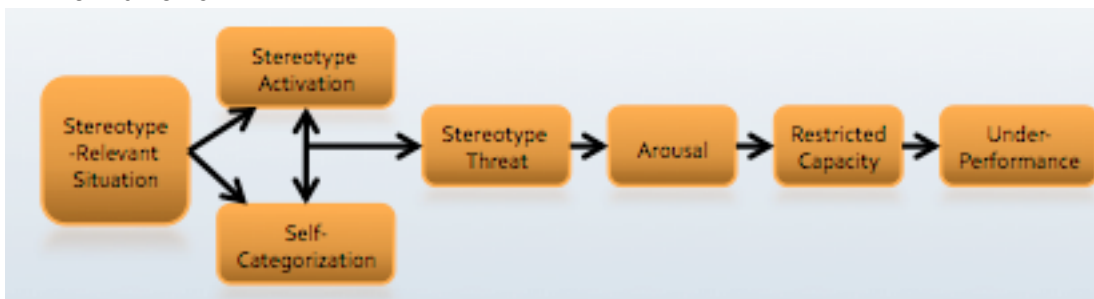
White males were applicants

Treated like black applicants were treated in the first experiment

They performed similarly (to black applicants in exp. 1) during the interview

Stereotype threat: A self-confirming apprehension that one will be evaluated based on a negative stereotype (Steele, 1997)

How it works:



THREE LEVELS OF STEREOTYPES:

Public: What we say to others about a group

Private: What we consciously think about a group, but don't say to others

Implicit: Unconscious mental associations guiding our judgments and actions without our conscious awareness

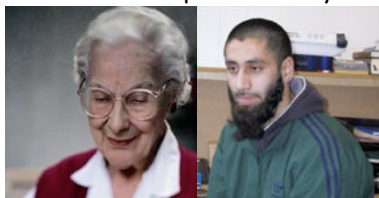
Public expression of stereotypes and prejudice has decreased in North America recently ("political correctness")

DISCRIMINATION

Behaviors directed toward people on the basis of their group membership

Unfair treatment

Who is more likely to get harassed at an airport security check?



Do you know anyone who has, because of his or her membership in a group, been:

Denied a job or promotion?
Insulted or harassed?
Ignored or poorly served in a restaurant or other business?
Denied an apartment or house?
Prejudice and Discrimination based on race

Racism vs Modern Racism - Subtle forms of prejudice
Discrimination without awareness

Sexual Harassment as Gender Discrimination (Fitzgerald, 1993)

As many as 50% of women surveyed reported having been sexually harassed during their academic or working lives
Research shows that men are more likely to harass than are women

But does whether men harass or not depends on the man, and on the situation?

In one study, male students were asked to train a young woman on a complex word-processing task (Pryor, LaVite, & Stoller, 1993)

Results did not depend on the IV but rather depended on the participant's chronic disposition to harass
So the situational factor here was relatively unimportant

COSTS OF PREJUDICE, DISCRIMINATION, AND STEREOTYPING

Schulman et al. (1999)

Physicians were only 60% as likely to suggest a top-rated diagnostic test for black "heart patients" as for whites
Even when blacks presented same symptoms, and gave identical information about themselves

Ayres & Siegelman (1995)

This study found that white men were offered better deals on cars:
\$109 less than White women
\$318 less than Black women
\$935 less than Black men

REDUCING PREJUDICE

Contact Hypothesis: Stereotypes, prejudice and discrimination toward a group will diminish as contact with the group increases

Getting to know and hopefully to understand a group
Get two groups to work towards a common goal
Cooperation helps; competition hurts

Group contact is considered effective when...

- ⇒ Out-group members have traits and abilities challenging negative stereotypes
- ⇒ Contact is supported by local authorities and norms

- ⇒ Groups are of equal status, at least in contact setting
- ⇒ Contact is at individual level
- ⇒ Contact is rewarding
- ⇒ Groups work toward common goals

WEEK 8: SOCIAL INFLUENCE

Social Influence: A change in behaviour in response to the intentional or unintentional influence of others.

It may or may not be accompanied by a change in attitude

The three main types of Social Influence:

1. Conformity - A change in response to social norms (no pressure is required)
2. Compliance - A change in response to a direct request
3. Obedience - A change in response to a command/order

CONFORMITY

Social norms: Rules indicating how people are expected to behave in a specific situation

They can be ...

Descriptive: How do people typically behave?

Injunctive: How should people behave?

Why norms?

To regulate social interaction (i.e. make behaviour consistent and predictable)

To prevent social chaos

To provide automatic guides for behaviour

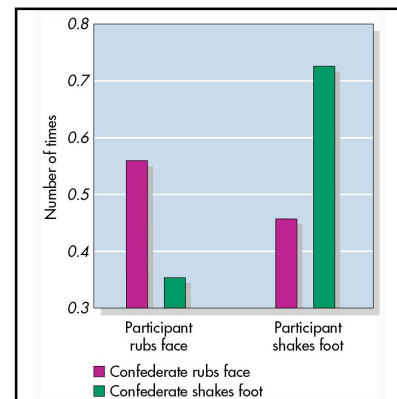
The Chameleon Effect (Chartrand & Bargh, 1999)

Sometimes we conform automatically and unintentionally

Participant and confederate worked on a task together

IV – Confederate rubbed eye, shook foot, or did nothing

DV – How did participant behave?



THE EFFECT OF AMBIGUITY

In ambiguous situations, people tend to rely on information provided by others

Sherif (1937) asked students to judge the apparent movement of a stationary light on a wall

Autokinetic Effect - A stationary spot of light in a dark room appears to move

(Sherif, 1937) Put yourself in the role of the participant...

Day 1

Participant stares at a pinpoint of light about 15 feet away

The light seems to be moving but you can't be sure...after a few seconds it disappears

Sherif: How far did it move?

Participant: I'm not really sure, but maybe about 8 inches

Day 2

Three confederates now join the participant

This time all four stare at the pinpoint of light about 15 feet away

Again, you think it moved about 8 inches

Sherif: How far did it move?

Confederate 1: 2 inches

Confederate 2: an inch or two

Confederate 3: oh, no it can't be more than one inch

Participant: oh, I guess about 6 inches

Day 3

The same situation as Day 2 except this time you reply "about 4 inches"

Day 4

The same situation as Day 2 except this time you reply "its probably like 2 inches"

What happened?

Diverse individual judgments quickly converged on group norm

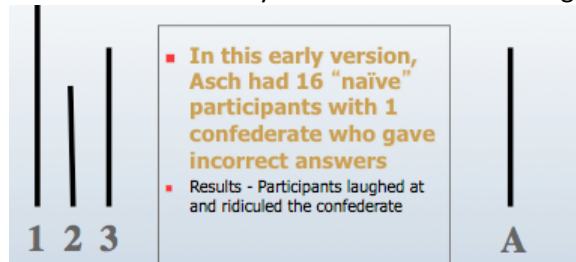
Each developed own norm

Norm persisted after individuals left the group

Norm persisted when new members replaced original members

Asch original study on conformity (1951)

Which of the lines on the left most closely matches line A on the right?

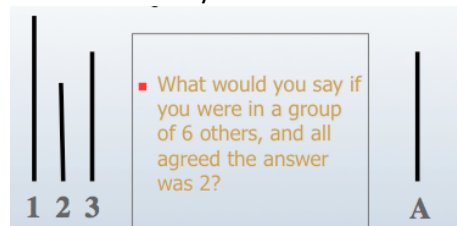


After his initial study, Asch conducted a series of experiments; most done with 1 participant and 5-8 confederates (Asch, 1955)

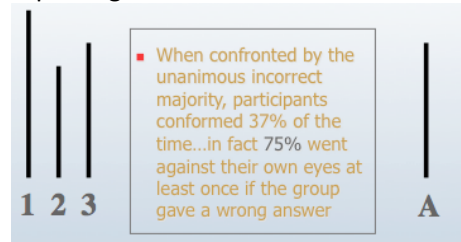
Real participant would give their judgment after several confederates had already given theirs

Research question: Would participant conform to obvious incorrect answer?

Which of the lines on the left most closely matches line A on the right?



When alone, 95% of participants got all the answers correct...



Why did participants conform?

Some participants said they didn't want to look silly or be rejected by the rest of the group

This is referred to as normative social influence

They wanted to "fit in" with the others

Some participants said it was because they thought the others must have had better eyesight or be better informed in some way

This is referred to as informational social influence

They were basically utilizing others as a source of information

WHEN ARE WE MORE OR LESS LIKELY TO CONFORM?

The following were influential insofar as conformity was concerned...

Group size: As the number of people increases so does conformity...

Asch varied the size of his groups using 1 to 15 confederates in his many studies
Once there was 3 or 4 confederates, the amount of additional influence was negligible

Incompetent and insecure individuals: When one is made to feel incompetent or insecure conformity is likely

Group's status and attractiveness: Kind of goes without saying...if its a group you want to be a part of, you will likely conform to its opinions

Presence of an ally: The presence of a true partner, who agreed with the participant, reduced conformity by 80%

When we have an ally, we can diffuse the pressure because we are not the only one breaking the norm

Substantially more difficult to stand alone for one's convictions than when one is part of even a tiny minority

Any dissent can reduce the normative pressures to conform

Independence: Some people care more about standing up for their rights than being disliked

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ASCH & SHERIF STUDIES

Sherif: Because of ambiguity, participants turned to each other for guidance

Participant didn't know it wasn't the correct answer

Reasonable to consider other's views

Participants later adopted social norms
 Conformity leads to internalization

Asch: Participants often found themselves in an awkward position
 It was obvious that the group was wrong
 Participants knew there was a correct answer
 Conformity does not lead to internalization

TYPES OF CONFORMITY:

Private Conformity: Changes in both overt behavior and beliefs

Public Conformity: Superficial change in overt behavior only

Experimental Task	Primary Effect of Group	Depth of Conformity Produced
Sherif's ambiguous autokinetic effect	Informational influence	Private acceptance
Asch's simple line judgments	Normative influence	Public conformity

ACTIVE AND PUBLIC COMMITMENTS

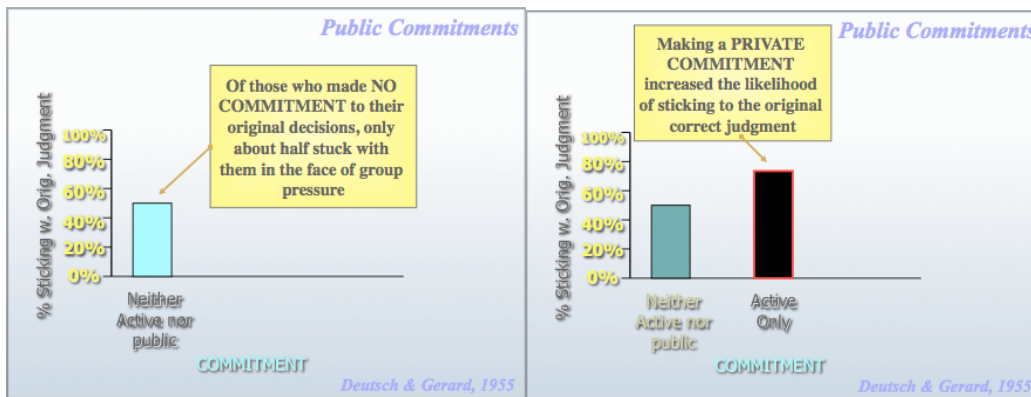
Students in one experiment were asked to judge lines in an Asch-type experiment (Deutsch & Gerard, 1956)

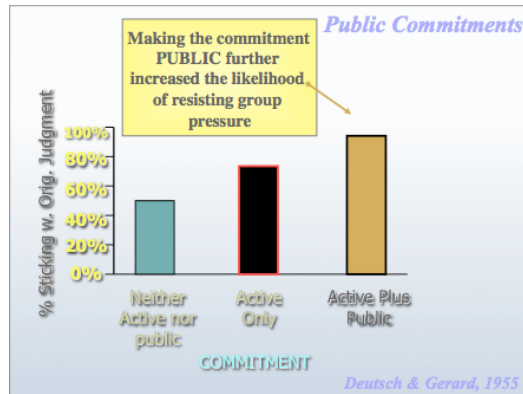
Before hearing group members make erroneous judgments:

Some privately wrote down their judgments (Active Commitment Only)

Others wrote their judgments and gave them to the experimenter (Active plus Public Commitment)

Control group





CONFORMITY (CONTINUED)

MINORITY INFLUENCE

Minority influence exemplified in TV play & film “Twelve Angry Men”

12 jurors have to decide over the guilt or innocence of a young man charged with the murder of his father.

At outset of the play a single juror in the murder trial favours acquittal, other 11 jurors favour conviction

By end of play unanimously ‘not guilty’

The minority (of 1) has influenced a majority jury

In fact, dissent from a minority can reduce conformity from the majority

How do minorities influence others?

Minorities influence others through their own **behavioral style**:

- Make their proposition clear at the outset

- Stick to their original proposition – consistency in its position is key

- Withstand the majority influence

- Don’t appear to be driven by self-interest

THE LANGUAGE OF REQUEST:

Talking fast and catching people off guard can improve compliance rates

People can be disarmed by the simple phrasing of the request

- How you ask for something can be more important than what you ask for

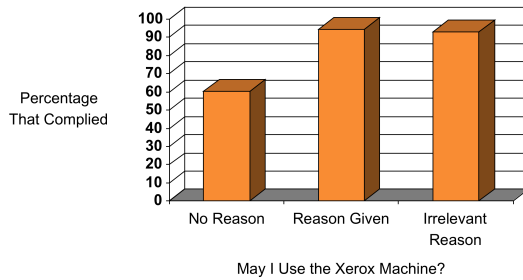
Mindless conformity (Langer & al, 1978)

- People often engage in mindless conformity by obeying internalized social norms without deliberating about their actions

- The advantage to mindless conformity is that it facilitated our getting through the day. In most cases, it leads to appropriate behaviour.

- However, there is a cost to acting on automatic pilot: sometimes, we end up following the wrong social normal and behaving inappropriately

THE COPY MACHINE STUDY



COMPLIANCE

Cialdini (1995) proposed that common influence tactics utilize 6 basic principles:

1 - Social Validation

One should be more willing to comply with a request for behaviour if it is consistent with what similar others are thinking

Based on the Social Comparison Theory

Reingen (1982) – List technique

He asked participants to donate money to a worthy cause

Participants who were first shown a list of others who had donated agreed to give more money

“Salting” the tip jar

2 - Consistency

The Foot-in-the-door technique: The tendency for people who first agreed to a small request to comply later with a larger request

Freedman & Fraser (1966)

Called housewives and asked them if they would answer a few questions about soap (all agreed)

Later, made a second request of those housewives and an additional group

Would they allow a 5-6 man team to come out and inventory their household products, with the freedom to go through all closets and drawers (requiring two hours)?

Agreement – 22% (2nd request only) and 53% (1st and 2nd requests)

The Foot-in-the-door technique: Compliance with the initial request changes one’s self-image to be consistent with that first favor

It would be inconsistent with this image to refuse the second request

The Low-ball technique: People who agree to an initial request will often still comply when the requester “modifies” the conditions

People who receive only the costly request are less likely to comply

Cialdini & al (1978) – The 7 am experiment

Mentionned up front – 24% agreed

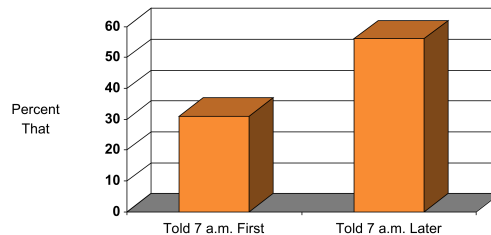
Mentionned later – 56% agreed initially

After mentionned, none changed their mind

95% actually showed up

After making an active choice for something, people take “mental possession” of it and it becomes part of their self-concept

It is often easier to continue with the commitment than to change the self-concept



3 - Authority

We are more likely to comply with someone who is (or resembles) a legitimate authority

Bickman (1974): Experimenter dressed in street clothes vs. security guard uniform
“You’ve seen the guy over there by the meter? He’s over parked but doesn’t have any change. Give him a dime”
Walked out of sight
Compliance: 42% (street clothes) vs. 92% (uniform)

Hofling & al. (1966): Experimenter called hospital nurses and identified himself as a doctor at the hospital
Asked nurse to give a dangerous dose of an unauthorized drug to a specific patient
95% of nurses got medication and stated toward patient’s room to administer it

4 - Reciprocity

Norm of reciprocity – Obligates individuals to return the form of behaviour they have received from another

More willing to comply with a request from someone who has previously provided a favor or concession

Berry & Kanouse (1987)

Sent a survey to doctors with either a \$20 cheque or the promise of a \$20 cheque, if the survey was returned

Survey returned – 78% (cheque first) vs. 66% (cheque later)

Cheques cashed – 95% (respondants) vs. 26% (non-respondents)

Cialdini & al. (1975)

The Door-in-the-face technique: After someone turns down a large request, the requester follows up with a smaller request (a concession)
Asked college students if they would serve as unpaid juvenile delinquency counselors for 2 hours a week, for 2 years.

No one agreed

2nd request → Would they be willing to take a group of juvenile delinquents on a 2-hour trip to the zoo?

Agreement – 15% (2nd request only) and 48% (1st and 2nd requests)

5 - Friendship/Liking (similarities)

We are more willing to comply with friends or other likeable individuals

How do salespeople get others to like them?

Physical attractiveness

Similarity

Compliments (ingratiation)

Attractive fund raisers for American Heart Association obtained 42% compliance compared to 23% for unattractive fund raisers (Reingen & Kernan, 1993)

Emswiller & al. (1971)

Experimenter in “hippie” vs. “straight” clothes asked students for a dime

Compliance → 66% (matching clothes) vs. 33% (mismatched clothes)

6 - Scarcity

Heuristic: If it is scarce, it must be valuable

Reactance: We react against loss of freedom by wanting item even more

Worchel, Lee & Adewole (1975)

Showed participants a jar of cookies

There was either 2 or 10 cookies in the jar

When 2 cookies, rated as more desirable, attractive and expensive

Study 2 – jar with 2 cookies (always scarce) vs. jar with 10 cookies, which was replaced with jar or 2 cookies (newly scarce)

Cookies more in demand recently were now rated as more desirable, attractive and expensive

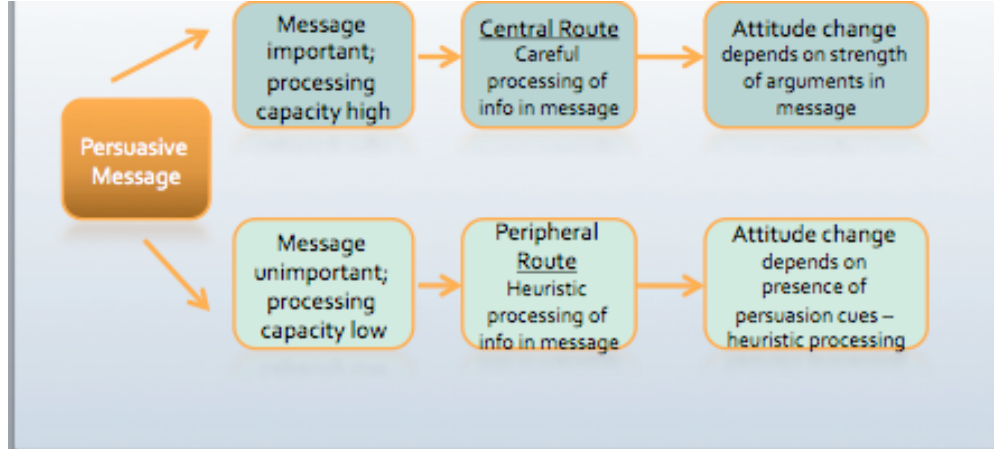
PERSUASION: HOW ATTITUDES ARE CHANGED

Persuasion: Effort to change others' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours through the use of various types of messages

There are several factors involved in attitude change

- ⇒ The source of the message (the Communicator)
- ⇒ The message
- ⇒ The target audience
- ⇒ How the message is communicated (the Channel)

The Elaboration-Likelihood Model: A cognitive theory of persuasion (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986)



OBEDIENCE

Most authority figures have been given their authority by society

We are just told to follow what they tell you to do

Every person at some time in their life has followed a superior without questioning why they are doing what they are doing

Milgram's questionnaire (1963)

Everyone answering Milgram's questionnaire said they would refuse to punish the learner

They also believed that other people would disobey

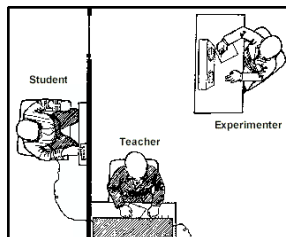
Most people reject unnecessary pain and therefore would not follow brutal orders

The responses of college students, psychiatrists, and middle-class adults all

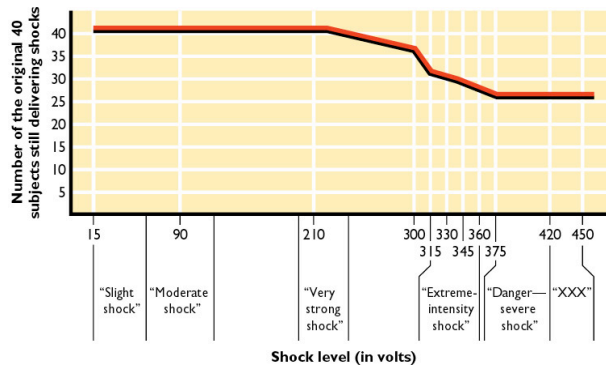
predicted that only 1% or 2% of the general population would obey such orders fully, administering the highest shock available

Psychiatrists guessed that 1 in 1000 would go clear to 450 volts (only "true psychopaths")

But, in the original study, 26/40 went all the way



Results:



FACTORS AFFECTING OBEDIENCE IN ORIGINAL STUDY

Prestige and status of authority figure - Supported by prestigious institution

Person giving orders was close at hand - Milgram was right there

Victims were depersonalized - Out of sight

Presence of others who disobey - Here, no role models who disobeyed

IN REPLICATIONS:

Legitimacy of Authority - When a "clerk" gave the orders, compliance was 20%

Proximity of Authority Figure - When Milgram gave commands by telephone, compliance dropped to 21%

Emotional Distance - When learner was in the same room, full compliance dropped to 40%.
When teacher applied learner's hand to shock plate, compliance fell to 30%

Group Influence - When two confederates "refused" to keep going, only 10% of real subjects fully complied with the orders

EXPLANATIONS FOR OBEDIENCE:

Cognitive Dissonance - Behavior (shocking learner) conflicted with belief (learner is a decent person)

So solution is to alter belief: "He's such an idiot he deserves to get shocked"

The experimental procedure itself - Participants were led to feel relieved of personal responsibility for the victim's welfare

Gradual escalation of shocks was used

Which technique already discussed did Milgram utilize?

WEEK 9: GROUP BEHAVIOUR

WHAT IS A GROUP?

According to Social Psychologists, a **group** can be defined as a collection of people who are perceived to be bonded together in a coherent unit to some degree.

Characteristics of “true groups” (Lickel, 2000)

- Members interact with one another often
- The group is important to its members
- Members share common goals and outcomes
- Members are similar to one another in important ways

THE PRESENCE OF OTHERS

Social Facilitation - If performance can be individually evaluated, the presence of others will be arousing

This will improve performance on simple tasks but interfere with performance on complex tasks

Triplet (1897) - Was one of the first scientists to ask the question "What happens when individuals join together with other individuals?"

Triplet, who was a bicycling enthusiast, noticed that cyclists performed better in races than when they were timed riding the course alone

MERE PRESENCE OF OTHERS AND SOCIAL FACILITATION

Same result when he asked children to wind fishing reels as quickly as possible

Triplet (1897) thought that the mere presence of others would improve performance

Participants: 40 children ages 8 to 17

Procedures: A trial consisted in turning the reel at the highest rate of speed until a small flag sewed to the silk band had made four circuits of the four-meter course

The time of the trial was taken by means of a stop-watch

Results: All children performed faster when in competition compared to when alone

For a long time, the social facilitation phenomenon was viewed as a universal principle...

Some may have even called it a “proven fact”

So, no one did much research on it for decades

Zajonc (1965) went back and analyzed the research

He noticed that nearly all of the many studies that documented social facilitation studied well-learned responses

Bicycling, Lifting weights, Eating rapidly

But he found that there were some exceptions...

People had some trouble when being watched if the tasks were novel...

Difficult math problems

Writing poetry

Learning nonsense syllables

Triplet was only partially right...

The type of task was an important determinant to success as well

Was it a well-learned task or was it relatively new?

ZAJONC (1969)

Cockroach study

Cockroach placed in a tube with a bright light at one end of the tube...

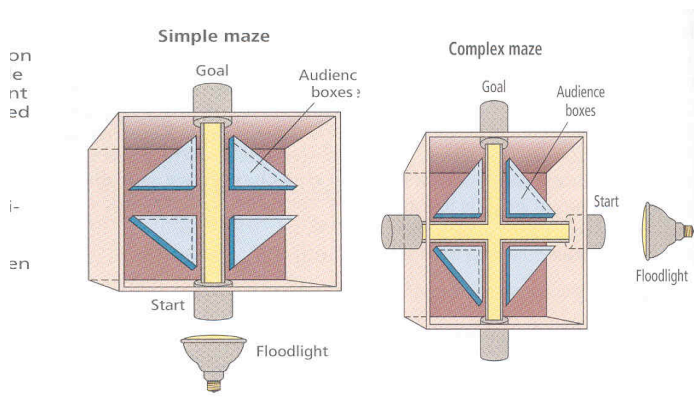
To escape the light, the cockroach had to run down the tube and into a darkened box at the other end of the tube...

IV: Presence or absence of other cockroaches

DV: Speed of escape

Results: Cockroaches were faster to escape when other cockroaches were present

Audience increased cockroaches' performance on the easy straight-ahead task, but not on the more complex turning task



Results:

Simple Maze:

Alone: 41 seconds

Audience: 33 seconds

Complex Maze:

Alone: 110 seconds

Audience: 130 seconds

Another study (**Michaels & al., 1982**)

Secretly rated pool players in a hall as above average or below average ability...

Then a group of confederates came and stood by their table as they played

The above average players' shot accuracy improved from 71 to 80% accurate, while the below average players slipped from 36 to 25% accurate

WHY DOES SOCIAL FACILITATION OCCUR?

Distraction Conflict Theory (Sanders, 1981)

Attentional conflict between focusing on task and inspecting the distracting stimulus creates arousal

Can hurt performance sometimes and help sometimes

Presence of others can create a distraction leading to poorer performance

But sometimes will stimulate greater effort to overcome the attentional conflict

“Tunnel vision” can help on some tasks

GROUP BEHAVIOUR

Social Loafing: A group-produced reduction in individual output on easy tasks in which contributions are pooled

Individuals in a group who are working below their potential

Ringleman's experiments (1880)

Individual output declines on pooled tasks in all his experiments

For example in a rope-tugging task

Units pulled in rope-tugging task:

1 person 100

2 people 186

3 people 255

8 people 392

Ingham & al (1974)

Blind folded rope pulling

DV: Effort

IV: Thought people were behind them or not

Subjects pulled 18% harder when they thought they were alone

LATANE, WILLIAMS, AND HARKINS (1979)

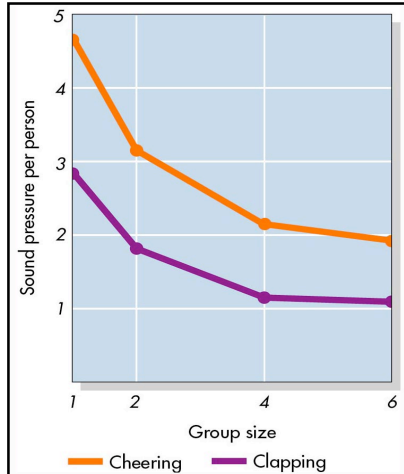
Sat participant in a group of 6 people...

Blindfolded participant and had them put on headphones

Played clapping or shouting over headphones

I.V. thought they were making noise alone or with 5 others

Results: 1/3 less noise when they thought others were also making noise



WHY DOES LOAFING HAPPEN?

Diffusion of responsibility: In a group we feel able to share responsibility and this may lead to a reduction of effort

Free-rider effect: If we feel like our contribution is not essential...still benefit from the group and *give little in return* (low input, high output)

Sucker effect: Willing to do your share but *not more* than that (esp. if others are free-riding) Since everyone is benefiting and getting credit, you don't want to be the sucker who does all the work (and no recognition), therefore do the *minimum* requirement

WE LOAF LESS WHEN:

- ⇒ Personal efforts are identifiable
- ⇒ A task is challenging, appealing, or involving
- ⇒ The task is meaningful and important
- ⇒ We think our contribution is essential
- ⇒ We are working with friends vs. strangers
- ⇒ The group expects to be punished for poor performance
- ⇒ The group is small
- ⇒ The group is cohesive

DEINDIVIDUATION THEORY

Deindividuation theory is a social psychological account of the individual in the crowd
Deindividuation is a psychological state of decreased self-evaluation, causing anti-normative and disinhibited behavior

Anonymity has been shown to amplify the effect

E.g., wearing a mask

CROWDS AND DEINDIVIDUATION:

The Halloween Studies

Dierner et al. (1976)

Trick-or-treaters in groups more likely to steal extra candy than individual kids, unless they were individuated by being asked their names

Beaman et al. (1979)

Anonymous children in Halloween costumes stole more from a candy jar than kids asked their first names

Even less likely to steal if a mirror was put behind the candy bowl

GROUP BEHAVIOUR (CONTINUED)

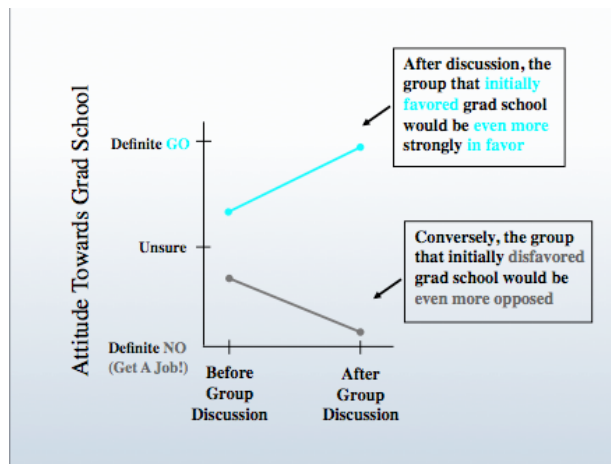
Group polarization: The exaggeration, through group discussion, on initial tendencies in the thinking of group members; often manifests itself as a shift towards the opinion of the majority

Imagine you were considering the pros and cons of going to grad school, and you talked it over with two groups:

Your family: Who was initially **slightly opposed** to the idea

Your fellow students: Who were initially **slightly favorable**

After discussion within each group:



WHY DO GROUPS POLARIZE AFTER DISCUSSION?

Persuasive arguments: With even a slight bias in one direction, you'll hear more favorable arguments on that side

Social comparison: When members realize the group is leaning in one direction, they may seek acceptance by moving further in that direction

GROUPTHINK:

Definition: Tendency of the members of highly cohesive groups to assume that their decisions cannot be wrong, that all members must support the group's decisions, and that information contrary to these decisions must be ignored.

- ⇒ Leads to group decision-making process that is not optimal, sometimes disastrous, because the group's primary goal is consensus instead of accuracy
- ⇒ They seem to have a greater desire to get along and agree with one another than to generate and critically evaluate alternative viewpoints and positions
- ⇒ The deterioration of group judgment produced by striving for consensus
- ⇒ Revised groupthink framework (article 34)

Two moderators: Time pressure and Leadership style

SYMPTOMS OF GROUPTHINK

The group overestimating their might and right...

Illusions of invulnerability - over-optimism, blind to warnings
Unquestioned belief in the group's morality

Members become close-minded

Rationalization discounts challenges by justifying their decisions
Holding a stereotyped view of the opponent (weak, dumb)

Pressures toward uniformity

Conformity pressure- those who raise doubts are rebuffed. (ridiculed)
Self censorship- disagreements are uncomfortable
Illusions of unanimity - everyone keeps quiet, seems like everyone is unanimous
Mind guards - some members keep information (that would lead to question) from the group

HOW CAN WE PREVENT GROUPTHINK?

Be impartial; don't endorse any position
Encourage critical evaluation; devil's advocate
Subdivide the group
Encourage and welcome criticisms from outsiders
Before implementing, call a second-chance meeting (with alcohol !)

WEEK 10: AGGRESSION

WHAT IS AGGRESSION?

Although there are several different definitions of aggression, social psychologists tend to define it as follows:

A physical or verbal behaviour that is intended to cause either physical or psychological pain to someone.

There are three main ideas in that definition:

1. The **presence of behaviour**, hence omission/negligence does not constitute aggression.
2. The **causing of harm or pain to someone intentionally**, hence assertiveness, accidents and play don't constitute aggression, since they lack the intent to hurt another.
3. The **nature of the harm caused to the person can be either physical or psychological**. It has to be noted that many social psychologists consider threat to reputation or social relations, a third type of harm caused to a person. They refer to it as relational aggression, since it is intended to destroy one's relations with others. It is considered to be the type of aggression manifested most often by women.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF AGGRESSION

We distinguish between several different types of aggression depending on the situation, relational aggression being only one of them. However, we will focus on the main different types, which are:

Direct aggression: when we have face to face contact with the person

Indirect aggression: when we are trying to hurt another without contact, as such it often involves an agent (e.g. hiring a hit man, spreading rumors)

Hostile aggression: (or emotional aggression): an act of aggression stemming from feelings of anger and aimed at inflicting pain.

Instrumental aggression: aggression is used as a means to some goal other than causing pain. There is still the intention to hurt the other person, but the hurting takes place as a mean to some other aim such as money, success or defense.

IS THERE A GENDER DIFFERENCE IN AGGRESSION?

Physical aggression seems to be much greater among males than females
Women think more of emotional harm than physical harm
Social desirability and norms play a role
Men are more likely to engage in instrumental aggression and assert control as they get older
When emotions are involved, women get more aggressive and differences between sexes may lessen

EVOLUTIONARY APPROACHES TO AGGRESSION

Emphasis on factors/explanations within the person

Presence of an evolutionary based instinct for aggression (Lorenz)
Person-based, rather than situation-based understanding of aggression

Influenced by Freud's work on *Thanatos*

Adaptive or functional view of aggression:
Aggression instinct has evolved because it had some usefulness in terms of the survival and transfer of genes

Main criticisms of the evolutionary approaches to aggression:
De-emphasize the idea that there can be meaning or purpose to aggression (i.e., instrumental aggression)
Instinct-based rather than situation-based explanations
Is the goal of aggression really survival and/or propagation of genes?

SITUATIONAL APPROACHES TO AGGRESSION

Focus on how factors 'outside' the person – the environment or situations – can play a part in aggressive behaviour

The Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis (Dollard & al., 1939)

How frustrating experiences cause aggressive behaviour
Environment triggers aggression
The occurrence of aggression always presupposes the existence of frustration and, contrariwise, the existence of frustration always leads to some form of aggression
Goal response being blocked

The Revised Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis (Berkowitz, 1962, 1989)

It is not just frustration that can result in aggression
People's perceptions of being deprived of what they want
Any aversive event can result in frustration

Thus, any unpleasant experience could be a contributing factor to subsequent aggression

Main criticisms of the Frustration-Aggression Hypothesis

Berkowitz's aggressive and aversive stimuli and aggression (1989, 1990, 1993)

Any kind of negative affect can potentially produce aggressive inclinations (though not necessarily aggressive behaviour)

Series of influential studies on 'cognitive' neo-associationism

Idea that negative affect is associated with anger-related feelings and aggressive thoughts and intentions

Cues to aggression

Main criticisms of the neo-associationism approach

The Social Learning Theory of Aggression (Bandura)

Aggression not mostly learned through direct reinforcements, but vicariously, through observation and imitation

Aggression is basically under cognitive control

EXCITATION TRANSFER AND AGGRESSION MODEL (ZILLMANN, 1974, 1983)

Both the person and situation need to be considered when attempting to understand aggression

Emphasise who people cognitively appraise their physiological and psychological states of heightened arousal or excitement

Misattribution of arousal

Idea that we might incorrectly make sense of heightened state of arousal, perceiving it as being caused by something other than what actually had caused it

THE EXCITATION TRANSFER MODEL OF AGGRESSION



Does erotica increase or decrease aggression? (Zillman & al, 1977, 1982; Mulac & al, 2002)

Main criticisms of the excitation transfer model

Atypical experimental situations

Do people really engage in a cognitive appraisal of the cause of heightened arousal?

Aggression seen as reactive

GENERAL AGGRESSION MODEL (ANDERSON AND BUSHMAN, 2002)

Incorporates many different approaches to aggression with the idea that aggression involves both the person and the situation

Several potential causes of aggression, such as person factors and internal states

Focuses on the idea of cycle/episodes of aggression

Instances of aggression may not end with the aggressive act, but instead, the aggressive act and response to it may feed into the cognitions and affective response of the person who aggresses (and others) and can result in other aggressive or non-aggressive behaviour

What are the inputs: Person and situation

What are the routes: Internal states

What are the outcomes: Appraisal and decision-making processes

Thoughtful action

Impulsive action

Social encounter

Desensitisation to violence (Carnagey, Anderson, & Bushman, 2007)

Main criticisms of the General aggression model

GOALS PURSUED THROUGH AGGRESSION

Coping with feelings of annoyance

Gaining material and social rewards

Gaining or maintaining status

Protecting oneself or others

HOW IS AGGRESSION MEASURED?

As a DV

Observed actual aggression (physical)

Observed direct verbal aggression

Questionnaire evaluations

As an IV

Aversive situations

Victim empathy

Criticisms of measures of aggression

AGGRESSION AND INTERGROUP CONFLICT

Does the way Social Psychologist defines aggression prevent us from explaining the totality of human aggression?

Process versus content

Dehumanisation of outgroups

Ideologies that justify aggression

WEEK 11: PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

WHAT IS PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR?

“Voluntary actions that are intended to help or benefit another individual or group of individuals” (Eisenburg & Mussen, 1989)

Includes:

- Helping others
- Obeying rules
- Conforming to social norms
- Cooperating with others

A related concept: Altruism (A motive to increase another’s welfare without conscious regard for one’s self-interests)

Some argue that “true altruism” is not possible

WHY DO WE HELP OTHERS?

SOCIAL-EXCHANGE THEORY:

Cost-benefit analysis

Aim of human behaviour is to minimize costs and maximize rewards

Rewards: materialistic goods, social rewards or self-reward (internal and external)

Costs: time, money, discomfort, inconvenience

If rewards outweigh costs, we help.

KIN SELECTION THEORY:

Evolutionary perspective

People favour those who are genetically similar because they want their genes to be “past on”

More likely to help those who are relatives

Increases odds of gene transmission

Reciprocal altruism: The incentive for an individual to help in the present is based on the expectation of being the potential receipt of helping behaviours in the future.

Negative-state relief model: People help others to reduce personal distress

People experience an empathetic reaction when we see someone else in distress; uncomfortable

To reduce our own discomfort, we help the person in distress

Empathy-Altruism hypothesis: When we see someone in distress, it produces an empathetic response

This sympathy for another person creates an internal need to reduce that person's distress
Different than negative-state relief model because the internal need to reduce another person's distress does not stem from personal discomfort, but from general concern for the other person.

This results in altruistic behaviour

WHEN WILL WE HELP?

- ⇒ If you have an altruistic model
- ⇒ If you are not in a rush (Darley & Batson, 1973)
- ⇒ If the victim is similar to ourselves
- ⇒ Small towns and rural areas
- ⇒ Few bystanders
- ⇒ Feeling guilty
- ⇒ In a good/bad mood
- ⇒ Men: Public
- ⇒ Women: Private settings

WHEN WILL WE NOT HELP?

THE BYSTANDER EFFECT:

The more bystanders that are present, the less likely any one of them will act to help (Darley & Latané, 1969).

EVIDENCE FOR THE BYSTANDER EFFECT:

"Lady in distress" experiment (Darley & Latané, 1969)

- female experimenter escorted participant to a room and asks them to wait.
- participant is either in room alone, with a friend, with a passive confederate, or a stranger.
 - hears the experimenter fall and hurt herself.

**** Measures the % who took action and reaction time****

Results:

- 70% of alone participants and participants waiting with a friend reacted
- 40% of participants paired with a stranger reacted
- Only 7% of participants who were with a passive confederate reacted.

WHAT CAUSES THE BYSTANDER EFFECT?

- 1 - **Diffusion of Responsibility** *"Someone else will help"*
2. **Socially Acceptable Behaviour** (Social Comparison/conformity) *"If they're not going to help, then neither should I".*

VIOLENT MEDIA

Comfortably Numb Experiments (Bushman & Anderson, 2009)

STUDY 1

- 320 participants (½ male, ½ female)
- Participants either played a violent or non violent video game
- Later, they overheard a staged fight leading to one person being injured

Hypotheses:

The violent game would:

1. Decrease the likelihood of helping
2. Delay helping
3. Decrease the likelihood of noticing an emergency
4. Decrease the judged severity of the emergency

Results:

21% of people in the violent condition helped while 25% in the non violent condition helped. When people who played a violent game did decide to help, they took significantly longer to help than those who played a nonviolent game
people who played a violent game were less likely to report that they heard the fight than those who played a nonviolent game
people who played a violent game thought the fight was less serious than did those who played a nonviolent game

STUDY 2

- Adults going to see a movie (162)
- Confederate: a woman with crutches and bandaged ankle
- Confederate dropped crutch outside movie theatre
- Researcher measured how long it took people to pick it up for her

Hypothesis:

Those who had just seen a violent movie would take longer to help the confederate than those who had just seen a nonviolent movie, or had not seen a movie yet.

Results:

Helping delay increased as the number of bystanders increased
Women helped less often than men
Participants who had just viewed a violent movie took over 26% longer to help than participants in the other conditions

HOW DOES VIOLENT MEDIA REDUCE HELPING?

Bushman & Anderson

Desensitization hypothesis: media violence decreases helping behaviour, perceptions, and cognitions because:

“People exposed to media violence become comfortably numb to the pain and suffering of others and are consequently less helpful”

WEEK 12: INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION AND CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS

NEED TO AFFILIATE:

It is a basic human motive to seek and maintain interpersonal relationships

Our affiliation with others serves various functions:

- ⇒ Positive stimulation
- ⇒ Social support
- ⇒ Attention
- ⇒ Social comparison

In general, those with a network of close social ties tend to be happier, healthier, and more satisfied with life than those who are more isolated

Sometimes our affiliation needs are not met, because of...

Ostracism: When an individual is ignored by others or excluded from a social group

Shyness: This will lead to a feeling that we don't belong (ostracism) or a feeling of deprivation about social relations (shyness)

May lead to loneliness (dispositional/existential vs situational)

Social exclusion leads to increased sensitivity to interpersonal information, in less effective cognitive functioning, and to low self-esteem over time (Baumeister, Twenge & Nuss, 2002)

INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION

There are two basic and necessary factors in the attraction process:

1. Proximity
2. Exposure

Festinger's study → Chartered friendships in apartment complex determined by physical and functional proximity

Why does proximity lead to liking?

Repeated exposure leads to feeling of familiarity

Evolution – Familiar things, including others, more likely to be “safe”

PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS AND STEREOTYPES

“What is beautiful is good” stereotype: The belief that physically attractive people also have other socially desirable characteristics

Beautiful people are liked more by adults, children and infants

Clifford & Hatfield (1973)

Gave teachers identical information about a boy and a girl, but varied attractiveness

DV – rated intelligence and success

Roszell & al. (1990)

1-5 scale of attractiveness

For each point, people wanted to earn an extra \$2000

Many research on interpersonal attraction have focused on physical attractiveness; however, other factors, like intelligence, have also been studied.

Men and women differ in this criterion for sexual partners, but not for long-term partners

Kenrick & al. (1993)

Students in these series of studies were asked:

What is the minimum percentile of intelligence you would accept in considering someone for:

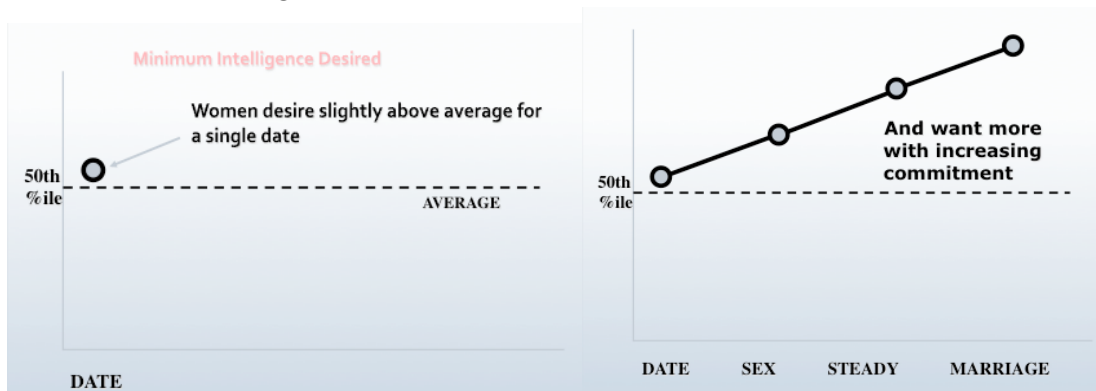
A DATE

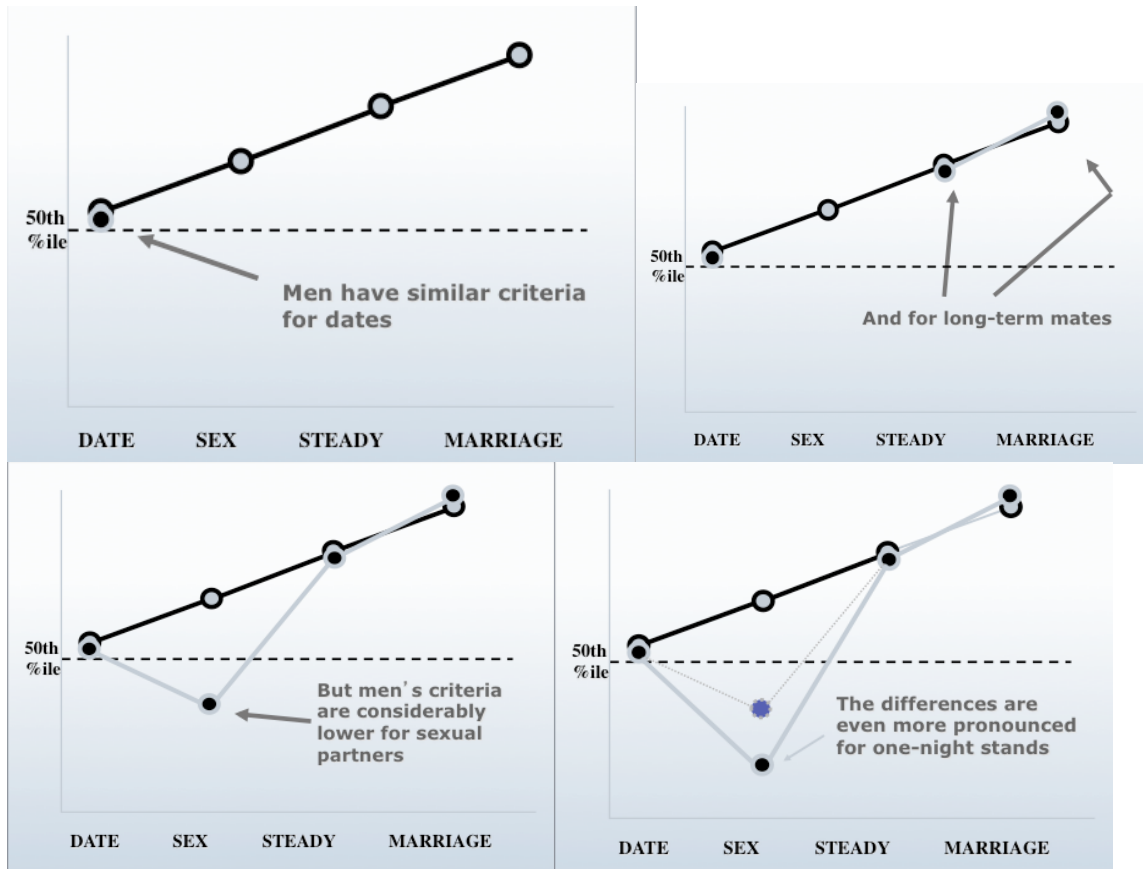
A SEXUAL PARTNER

A ONE-NIGHT STAND

A STEADY DATING PARTNER

A MARRIAGE PARTNER





CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS

Often involve three basic components:

1. Feelings of attachment, affection, and love.
2. The fulfillment of psychological needs.
3. Interdependence between partners, where a change in behaviour of one results in a change in behaviour of partner.

According to **Aron & al. (1991)**, the movement from casual to close relationships had to involve the development of interdependence.

Close relationships are only possible with the inclusion of the other in one's self concept

Closeness = degree to which cognitive representations of the self overlap with the partner

The first close relationships develop in the family: These set the stage for the relationships that we will form throughout our lives

ATTACHMENT STYLES (SHAVER & BRENNAN, 1992)

Our earliest developmental experiences allow us to form two “working models”

Working model of the self: Reflects our basic feelings of self-worth or self-esteem

Working model of others: Reflects our basic beliefs involving interpersonal trust

The two working models define different attachment styles that influence most of our close relationships

Secure attachment style

Fearful-avoidant attachment style

Preoccupied attachment style

Dismissing attachment style

Working model of others – Positive = Interpersonal trust			
Working more of self – Negative = Low self-esteem	Preoccupied attachment style	Secure attachment style	Working more of self – Positive = High self-esteem
	Fearful-avoidant attachment style	Dismissing attachment style	
Working model of others – Negative = Interpersonal mistrust			

Another determinant of the nature and quality of our relationships is whether we have a communal orientation or an exchange orientation

Exchange Relationships: Participants expect and desire strict reciprocity in their interactions (equity concerns)

Communal Relationships: Participants expect and desire mutual responsiveness to each other’s needs

WHAT IS LOVE?

Sternberg’s Triangular Theory of love (1986)

This researcher believes that the numerous ways to define love (i.e., caring, loyalty, attraction, etc.) earlier could be reduced to three essential components:

1. PASSION
2. INTIMACY
3. COMMITMENT

Different combination of these three components helps define eight different types of love

The components of Sternberg’s model tend to change in level over time, which accounts for the changing nature of love in most long-term relationships

Sternburg's Triangular Theory of Love

