SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

CORE COURSE

For

B.Sc. COUNSELLING PSYCHOLOGY

V Semester

(2011 ADMISSION ONWARDS)

UNIVERSITY OF CALICUT

SCHOOL OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

Calicut University, P.O. Malappuram, Kerala, India-673 635

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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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MODULE 1

INTRODUCTION

Within the context of psychology, **social psychology** is the scientific study of how people's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others. By this definition, *scientific* refers to the empirical method of investigation. The terms *thoughts*, *feelings*, and *behaviors* include all psychological variables that are measurable in a human being. The statement that others' presence may be *imagined* or *implied* suggests that we are prone to social influence even when no other people are present, such as when watching television, or following internalized cultural norms. Social psychologists typically explain human behavior as a result of the interaction of mental states and immediate social situations. In general, social psychologists have a preference for laboratory-based, empirical findings. Social psychology theories tend to be specific and focused, rather than global and general.

Social psychologists therefore deal with the factors that lead us to behave in a given way in the presence of others, and look at the conditions under which certain behavior/actions and feelings occur. Social psychology is concerned with the way these feelings, thoughts, beliefs, intentions and goals are constructed and how such psychological factors, in turn, influence our interactions with others

Definitions of Social Psychology

The study of Social psychology is found to have been carried out from the very beginning of the scientific study of psychology was born. The history of the subject matter of social psychology seems to be continuously undergoing change adapting to the changing needs of the society. The present day science and technology, specifically, the information arena is getting new shapes and heights, which in turn, brings enormous change in the behavior patterns of every individual. Hence, coming out with a formal definition of social psychology is really a complex task. Every person gets chance to play various types of activities. Due to this every one has to mix with or has to live among the midst of different types of people. In this context, so many physical, social and environmental factors necessarily influence human behavior. Reflecting on the above facts, social psychology can be comprehensively defined as, the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and causes of individual's behavior and thought in social situations.

There are almost as many definitions of social psychology as there are social psychologists" . To the outsider, the field of social psychology may seem to be little more than people with competing perspectives applying fancy words to truths that have been known throughout history.

A classical definition of social psychology proposed by field pioneer Gordon W. **Allpor**t (1954) is that "social psychology is the scientific attempt to explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of other human beings" (Allport, 1954a, p. 5). By "implied presence", Allport was referring to behavior people exhibit because of their roles in society and their membership in cultural groups. Fiske (2010) summarizes this classical definition as a formula that depicts others influencing the individual, as follows:

Actual, imagined, or implied presence of Others --> Individual thoughts, feeling, and behavior

The foundation of this definition is the influence of others on the individual, implying that the "others" influence "individual" to do something he or she would not have done alone. Influence from the actual presence of others is "enormously powerful" (Fiske, 2010), but even the imagined or implied presence of others can influence individuals. Differentiating between thoughts, feelings, and behaviors helps to identify three key variables that explain social psychology phenomena: cognition, affect, and action. Cognition represents thought; affect means feelings; action is behavior.

1990, Feldman defines Psychology as the scientific study of human behavior and mental processes. Scientific because it uses the steps in a scientific method in its quest to understand why a person behaves in a certain manner. It is systematic and empirical and it is dependent upon measurements. A scientific method generally follows the ff. steps:

1.) Identification of the Problem

2.) Formulation of Hypothesis

3.) Gathering of Data

4.) Interpretation and Analysis of Data

5: Generalization of Conclusion

Myers and Spencer (2006) define social psychology as the"scientific study of how people think about, influence, and relate to one another".

Barron and Byrne (2007) defined social psychology as "the scientific field that seeks to understand the nature and cause of individual behaviour and thought in social situations".

GOALS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

1. Social Psychology Seeks to Understand the Causes of Social Behaviour and Thought

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

2. The Actions and Characteristics of Others

One person's behavior and their characteristics expressed in the behavior directly

influence other person's feeling and action. For example, suppose you are standing on the railway reservation line. If a stranger goes to the counter straightly without standing on the line, it will defiantly create different types of feelings and as well action from the people who are already waiting in the line. It is clear that the actions of others affect everyone. The behaviors of other persons often exert powerful effects on the behaviors and social thoughts of every individual. For example, When many people are attending a concert in a theatre when a person seated nearby receives a call on his cell mobile phone and begins a loud conversation about very private topics

what happens to the people around him? The next idea in this line is that, the behavior of a person often affected by others appearance. For example, People normally feel uneasy in the presence of a person with a physical disability. People differently behave towards highly attractive person than toward less attractive person.

3. The Cognitive Processes

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

4. The Environmental Factors

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

5. The Cultural Context

People live in different cultural settings. Each culture comes out with its own rules and norms to be systematically followed in different facets of human life cycle. The practices followed in one culture will be different than the other cultures. If a person is hailing from a particular culture he/she has to adapt appropriately the behavior patterns accepted by his/her culture. In all these process an individual is continuously influenced by the culture from which he/she is hailing. Social behavior and social thoughts are often strongly affected by the cultural norms and factors. For example, there are cultural specific behavior patterns exist for the birth of a newborn, the age attainment ceremony, the marriage ceremony, and finally, the funeral ceremony. These are some of

the specific cultural behaviours expressed by every culture. The cultural ideas also get changed by the passage of times. For example, previously love marriages were viewed in negative terms as drastic action but now the cultural beliefs and values about it have changed greatly. But, whatever the changes takes place in a culture, person living in anyone of the cultures is expected to follow the practices of that culture.

6. The Biological/Evolutionary Factors

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

Social Psychology: It's Scientific Nature

Science is not simply based on common sense. Rather, there are five primary characteristics of science.

1. Any science must include the observation of facts.
2. All sciences have formal methodologies, which are systematic procedures used to collect data.
3. Science involves the accumulation of facts and generalizations.
4. Theories, which are sets of related propositions that explain phenomena, are used in science to organize observations.
5. Science should have the ability to predict and control phenomena based on formerly gathered observations.

Social psychology meets most of the requirements for science. As for the observation of facts, there are many thousands of empirical articles. As for methodology, many are used, including experiments and surveys. Social psychologists accumulate facts through these methods. There are also many theories of social psychology, which are outlined above. However, social psychology is only sometimes effective at predicting and controlling certain phenomena.

History of Social Psychology

Early Influences

Aristotle believed that humans were naturally sociable, a necessity which allows us to live together (an individual centered approach), whilst Plato felt that the state controlled the individual and encouraged social responsibility through social context (a socio-centered approach).

Hegel (1770–1831) introduced the concept that society has inevitable links with the development of the social mind. This led to the idea of a group mind, important in the study of social psychology.

Lazarus & Steinthal wrote about Anglo-European influences in 1860. "Volkerpsychologie" emerged, which focused on the idea of a collective mind. It emphasized the notion that personality develops because of cultural and community influences, especially through language, which is both a social product of the community as well as a means of encouraging particular social thought in the individual. Therefore Wundt (1900–1920) encouraged the methodological study of language and its influence on the social being.

Early Experiments

There is some disagreement about the first true experiment, but the following are certainly among some of the most important. Triplett (1898) applied the experimental method to investigate the performance of cyclists and schoolchildren on how the presence of others influences overall performance – thus how individual's are affected and behave in the social context.

By 1935 the study of social norms had developed, looking at how individuals behave according to the rules of society. This was conducted by Sherif (1935).

Lewin et al. then began experimental research into leadership and group processes by 1939, looking at effective work ethics under different styles of leadership

Later Developments

Much of the key research in social psychology developed following World War II, when people became interested in the behavior of individuals when grouped together and in social situations. Key studies were carried out in several areas.

Some studies focused on how attitudes are formed, changed by the social context and measured to ascertain whether change has occurred. Amongst some of the most famous work in social psychology is that on obedience conducted by Milgram in his "electric shock" study, which looked at the role an authority figure plays in shaping behavior. Similarly, Zimbardo's prison simulation notably demonstrated conformity to given roles in the social world.

Wider topics then began to emerge, such as social perception, aggression, relationships, decision making, prosocial behavior and attribution. Thus the growth years for social psychology occurred during the decades following the 1940s

Social Psychology Key Figures

Allport (1920) – Social Facilitation

Allport introduced the notion that the presence of others (the social group) can facilitate certain behavior. It was found that an audience would improve an actors' performance in well learned/easy tasks, but lead to a decrease in performance on newly learned/difficult tasks due to social inhibition.

Bandura (1963) – Social Learning Theory

Bandura introduced the notion that behavior in the social world could be modeled. Three groups of children watched a video where an adult was aggressive towards a 'bobo doll', and the adult was either just seen to be doing this, was rewarded by another adult for their behavior or were punished for it. Children who had seen the adult rewarded were found to be more likely to copy such behavior.

Festinger (1950) – Cognitive Dissonance

Festinger, Schacter and Black brought the idea that when we hold beliefs, attitudes or cognitions which are different, then we experience dissonance – this is an inconsistency that causes discomfort. We are motivated to reduce this by either changing one of our thoughts, beliefs or attitudes or selectively attending to information which supports one of our beliefs and ignores the other (selective exposure hypothesis).

Dissonance occurs when there are difficult choices or decisions, or when people participate in behavior that is contrary to their attitude. Dissonance is thus brought about by effort justification (when aiming to reach a modest goal), induced compliance (when people are forced to comply contrary to their attitude) and free choice (when weighing up decisions).

Weiner (1986) – Attribution theory

Weiner was interested in the attributions made for experiences of success and failure and introduced the idea that we look for explanations of behavior in the social world. He believed that these were made based on three areas: locus, which could be internal or external; stability, which is whether the cause is stable or changes over time: and controllability.

Milgram (1963) –Shock Experiment

Participants were told that they were taking part in a study on learning, but always acted as the teacher when they were then responsible for going over paired associate learning tasks. When the learner (a stooge) got the answer wrong, they were told by a scientist that they had to deliver an electric shock. This did not actually happen, although the participant was unaware of this as they had themselves a sample (real!) shock at the start of the experiment. They were encouraged to increase the voltage given after each incorrect answer up to a maximum voltage, and it was found that all participants gave shocks up to 300v, with 65 per cent reaching the highest level of 450v.

It seems that obedience is most likely to occur in an unfamiliar environment and in the presence of an authority figure, especially when covert pressure is put upon people to obey. It is also possible that it occurs because the participant felt that someone other than themselves was responsible for their actions.

Haney, Banks, Zimbardo (1973) – Prison Study

Volunteers took part in a simulation where they were randomly assigned the role of a prisoner or guard and taken to a converted university basement resembling a prison environment. There was some basic loss of rights for the prisoners, who were unexpectedly arrested, given a uniform and an identification number (they were therefore deindividuated).

The study showed that conformity to social roles occurred as part of the social interaction, as both groups displayed more negative emotions and hostility and dehumanization became apparent. Prisoners became passive, whilst the guards assumed an active, brutal and dominant role. Although normative and informational social influence had a role to play here, deindividuation/the loss of a sense of identity seemed most likely to lead to conformity.

Both this and Milgram's study introduced the notion of social influence, and the ways in which this could be observed/tested.

Social psychology and other social sciences

The disciplines of sociology, social psychology and anthropology are concerned with the study of human beings in relationships with others

Sociology and Psychology are interrelated. Psychology is the study of human behavior and thus psychology depends on sociology for understanding of human nature. Sociological researches have contributed a lot to psychology.

Similarly, the sociologists also take help of psychology. They take the psychological factors into consideration while studying changes in social structure. Social psychology, is a branch of psychology serves as a bridge between psychology and sociology. It studies mental processes of man as a social being. There exists a mutual relationship between sociology and social psychology.

Differences:

1) Sociology studies society as a whole, social psychology studies individual behavior of man as a social being.

2) Sociology deals with social processes whereas social psychology deals with mental process.

3) Sociology studies social forms and social structure where as social psychology concerned with the individual and his behavior

Both sociology and social psychology are concerned with the study of social groups, especially human groups, their organization, development, and behavior. In the broad sense sociology may be defined as the study of human relations, or of the interactions of individuals and of groups. But inasmuch as these relations are the outcome of group life, we may accept as a working definition for sociology that it is the science of the origin, development, structure, and functioning of social groups. Its point of view, its interest, is always in the group, or in collective behavior. On the other hand, the point of view, the interest, of psychology as ordinarily understood is in the individual and his behavior. The problem of psychology is to explain the experience and the behavior of the individual,. while the problem of sociology is to explain the nature and the behavior of the group. As soon as interest shifts front the individual to the group, it shifts from the purely psychological to the sociological

Social Psychology and Anthropology

Psychology studies people in a somewhat isolated context (compared to anthropology, even the observations of social psychologists see people in a fairly individualistic light), looking at the way their minds work and respond to a given stimulus. People from different cultures, backgrounds,

genders, age groups, etc, will be compared, so that it can be noted whether they respond differently and if so why, or whether all respond in the same way, in which case it could be assumed that their response is "natural" or innate.

Anthropology considers societies, and when looking at individuals they are seen as a part or component or product of their society. The aim is still to look at nature v nurture, but in the sense of how societies respond to problems or other stimuli, rather than individuals. Different societies will be compared with one another, in order that we can challenge the assumptions our own society has made. For example, we live in a patriarchal society. An anthropologist would search the globe to see if there is a society that is not patriarchal. If there is, then this proves that patriarchy is not a "natural" state for society to be in, it is simply the way ours developed. If no non-patriarchal society can be found, then the anthropologist will study various societies trying to explain why patriarchy seems to be the default position for human communities.

Anthropology involves the holistic study of human social construct, including all aspects of living life as a defined social group. Anthropologists develop understandings of previously unknown societies, or unobserved and unique aspects of known societies. The methods used in anthropology are different from those used in the other social sciences. Anthropologists traditionally live with and become fully immersed in the societies that they study in order to get a comprehensive and holistic understanding of all facets of social life. This is a mortal sin, according to practitioners of the more "hard" scientific methods, where the observer is not allowed to interact with, and therefore affect the subject, and where strict controls are placed on quantifying, objectivity, and the ability to replicate conditions of cause and effect. As a result, anthropology is the most valuable of the social sciences for gaining understanding of the new, the unknown, or the society that has not been closely enough observed in it's normal setting and ways of conduct. Much of the core knowledge that is used in the other social sciences is founded in the anthropological method of study and field research.

METHODS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Experimental Method

Experimental research is the key to uncovering causal relationships between variables. In experimental research, the experimenter randomly assigns participants to one of two groups: the control group and the experimental group. The control group receives no treatment and serves as a baseline. Researchers manipulate the levels of some independent variable in the experimental group and then measure the effects. Because researchers are able to control the independent variables, experimental research can be used to find causal relationships between variable

A experimental method is used to establish cause and effect, so this type of study is often used to determine the effect of a treatment. In a simple experiment, study participants are randomly assigned to one of two groups. Generally, one group is the control group and receives no treatment, while the other group is the experimental group and receives the treatment.

Parts of an Experiment

The simple experiment is composed of a few key elements:

The experimental hypothesis: A statement that predicts that the treatment will cause an effect. The experimental hypothesis will always be phrased as a cause-and-effect statement.

The null hypothesis: A hypothesis that the experimental treatment will have no effect on the participants or dependent variables. It is important to note that failing to find an effect of the treatment does not mean that there is no effect. The treatment might impact another variable that the researchers are not measuring in the current experiment.

The independent variable: The treatment variable that is manipulated by the experimenter.

The dependent variable: The response that the experimenter is measuring.

The control group: made up of individuals who are randomly assigned to a group but do not receive the treatment. The measures takes from the control group are then compared to those in the experimental group to determine if the treatment had an effect.

The experimental group: made up of individuals who are randomly assigned to the group and then receive the treatment. The scores of these participants are compared to those in the control group to determine if the treatment had an effect.

Determining the Results of a Simple Experiment

Once the data from the simple experiment has been gathered, researchers then compare the results of the experimental group to those of the control group to determine if the treatment had an effect. How do researchers determine this effect? Due to the always present possibility of errors, we can never be 100% sure of the relationship between two variables. However, there are ways to determine if there most likely is a meaningful relationship.

Experimenters use inferential statistics to determine if the results of an experiment are meaningful. Inferential statistics is a branch of science that deals with drawing inferences about a population based upon measures taken from a representative sample of that population.

The key to determining if a treatment had an effect is to measure the **statistical significance.** Statistical significance shows that the relationship between the variables is probably not due to mere chance and that a real relationship most likely exists between the two variables.

Statistical significance is often represented like this: *p < 0.05*

A p-value of less than .05 indicates if the particular results are due merely to chance, the probability of obtaining these results would be less than 5%. Occasionally, smaller p-values are seen such as $p < 0.01$. There are a number of different means of measuring statistical significance. The type of statistical test used depends largely upon the type of research design that was used.

Psychologists use a number of different scientific methods to conduct research on social psychology topics. These methods allow researchers to test hypotheses and theories and look for relationships between different variables. Which type of research is best? This depends largely on the subject the researcher is exploring, the resources available, and the theory or hypothesis being investigated

Non -Experimental Method

1.The Survey Method

Survey and questionnaires are one of the most common methods used in psychological research. In this method, a random sample of participants completes a survey, test, or questionnaire that relates to the variables of interest. Random sampling is a vital part of ensuring the generalizability of the survey results. Surveys

A survey is a way of getting information about a specific type of behavior, experience, or event. When using this method, researchers give people questionnaires or interview them to obtain information. A survey is a data collection tool used to gather information about individuals. Surveys are commonly used in psychology research to collect self-report data from study participants. A survey may focus on factual information about individuals, or it might aim to collect the opinions of the survey takers.

A survey can be administered in a couple of different ways. In one method known as a structured interview, the researcher asks each participant the questions. In the other method known as a questionnaire, the participant fills out the survey on his or her own.

Surveys are generally standardized to ensure that they have reliability and validity. Standardization is also important so that the results can be generalized to the larger population.

When subjects fill out surveys about themselves, the data is called **self-report data**. Self-report data can be misleading because subjects may do any of the following:

- Lie intentionally
- Give answers based on wishful thinking rather than the truth
- Fail to understand the questions the survey asks
- Forget parts of the experience they need to describe

Advantages of Using Surveys

- Surveys allow researchers to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short period of time.
- Surveys are less expensive than many other data collection techniques.
- Surveys can be created quickly and administered easily.
- Surveys can be used to collect information on a wide range of things, including personal facts, attitudes, past behaviors and opinions.

Disadvantages of Using Surveys

- Poor survey construction and administration can undermine otherwise well-designed studies.

- The answer choices provided on a survey may not be an accurate reflection of how the participants truly feels.

- While random sampling is generally used to select participants, response rates can bias the results a survey.

Types of Survey Data Collection

Surveys can be implemented in a number of different ways. Chances are good that you have participated in a number of different market research surveys in the past.

Some of the most common ways to administer survey include:

- Mail - An example might include an alumni survey distributed via direct mail by your alma mater.
- Telephone - An example of a telephone survey would be a market research call about your experiences with a certain consumer product.
- Online - Online surveys might focus on your experience with a particular retailer, product or website.
- At home interviews - The U.S. Census is a good example of an at-home interview survey administration.

2. The interview method

The interview is used widely to supplement and extend our knowledge about individual(s) thoughts, feelings

and behaviours, meanings, interpretations, etc. One of the best ways to achieve this. The interviewer collects detailed personal information from individuals usually in one to one situations using oral questions.

The interview method of research is a conversation with a purpose and is non-experimental in design. The interviewer in one-to-one conversation collects detailed personal information from individuals using oral questions. The interview is used widely to supplement and extend our knowledge about individual(s) thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Or how *they* think they feel and behave. Interviews can give us both quantitative and qualitative data about participants' thoughts, feelings and behaviours. This is due to the standardisation and/or free ranging nature of questions asked. The more structured or standardised interview questions are, the more able you are to get quantitative data. Quantitative data is reliable and easy to analyse. The less structured and freer ranging the interview questions the more qualitative your data becomes. Qualitative data is difficult to analyse and is not as reliable. There are two categories of interview, **Structured interview and Unstructured interview**.

The key feature of the structured interview is in the pre-planning of all the questions asked. Structured interviews also allow for replication of the interview with others. You can then generalise what you find out to the population from which your interview sample came. Structured interviews are conducted in various modes: face-to-face, by telephone, videophone and the Internet. There are three types of structured interview. The structured interview itself, the semi-structured interview and the clinical interview. A major feature, and difference, is the degree to which each use standardised and unplanned questions. Standardisation helps the reliability of your results and conclusions. The more use of unplanned questions, the less structured the interview becomes. Unplanned spontaneous questions are a key feature of the unstructured interview. Spontaneous questioning is more responsive to the participant. However spontaneous questioning does not allow for generalisation. Spontaneous questions can also be accused of generating invalid results and conclusions. Thus standardisation v. the free ranging nature of questions is both the main advantage and disadvantage of the interview method of research, in general and in particular. Sampling bias.

3. Observational method

The observational method is a non-experimental design. The absence of an independent variable does not allow any cause-effect conclusions to be drawn from observational research. Sound evidence is however important to the observational method. Indeed, the observational method's key feature is *a standardised, planned, and systematic approach to objectively observe and record behaviour*. This is of course to generate all-important data upon which to base any conclusions. Observations, which can be overt or covert, are of five main types. We have participant observation, non-participant observation, structured observation, unstructured observation and naturalistic observation. Each involves the planned gathering, analysis, and interpretation of mostly empirical data on observed behaviour. Each observation has its own features, advantages and disadvantages. Participant observation, for example, sees the researcher *set up, and take part* in the observation of behaviour under investigation. Non-participant observation sees *no involvement* on the part of the researcher, with recordings of observed behaviours being taken from afar. The observational method has both advantages and disadvantages as a research design in psychology. Covert observations can be problematic regards ethics and disclosure. Confounding variables also plague observations. These are infinite, and include observer bias and the observer effect. If the researcher plans, structures, and conducts their observation appropriately, the observational method can be seen as a most valid and reliable form of non-experimental research in psychology mainly due to the observational method's high ecological validity.

<u>Advantages of Observational Methods:</u>

Observation forms the basis of any scientific enquiry. It is the primary mode of acquiring knowledge about the environment. Through systematic observation, and a process of induction, the investigator forms hypotheses, which are tested later by using experimental methods.

The results obtained through any other scientific methods need to be in conformity with the outcomes of skilled observation. In case of any departure, the processes adopted in the 'other' methods have to be carefully scrutinized and evaluated.

The experimental and other laboratory-based methods study behaviours under artificially controlled conditions. But through observational method, the investigator gets a real picture of the behaviours and the events as they manifest in natural settings. Systematic and unbiased observation can yield a true picture of individual's natural set of behaviours.

Certain phenomena can be accessed and properly understood only through observation. Crowd behavior, social behaviours of the animals, and mother-child interaction at home are some exemplary situations, which can be meaningfully assessed, and understood only through observation.

<u>Disadvantages of Observational Method:</u>

The major problem with observational methods is that the investigator has little control over the situation he is interested to observe. In the natural setting, too many extraneous factors influence the phenomenon. As a result, it is difficult to assess what causes or determines the behaviors of researcher's interest. It is extremely difficult, and sometimes impossible to establish

cause-and-effect relationships in our understanding of the behaviors. The observational report in most cases turns out to be descriptions of events rather than explanations for the event that can be used for prediction and control.

In many cases the observer has to wait until the appropriate event takes place. To study crowd behavior, the investigator would have to wait until a crowd is formed in a natural setting. Therefore, some types of observations are time-consuming, and labor-intensive.

Observer-bias is one of the important problems in observational research. The personal philosophy, attitudes, beliefs, convictions, and sometimes the personal interests of the observer are most likely to color his perceptions of the event. His observational report may in part reflect his biases in describing and interpreting the event. Thus, the description may not reflect the true features of an event.

The observer himself, during the course of observation, may be affected by the process itself. His initial neutral disposition may be affected and distorted. The outcome would be a description of the event as personally experienced by the observer. These descriptions would be subjective, and cannot be generalized to other similar situations.

Finally, the presence of the observer may influence the phenomenon itself. In other words, those subjects who are observed may change their activities in the presence of the observer. As a result, the observer would fail to obtain a true picture of subject's behaviors, i.e., those behaviors that would have taken place, if the observer would not have been present. It is always better to supplement the observational record with the findings obtained through other methods.

4.Case Studies

In a **case study**, a researcher studies a subject in depth. The researcher collects data about the subject through interviews, direct observation, psychological testing, or examination of documents and records about the subject.

Co relational Research

Social psychologists use co relational research to look for relationships between variables. For example, a social psychology might carry out a co relational study looking at the relationship between media violence and aggression.

Conducting surveys, directly observing behaviors, or compiling research from earlier studies are some of the methods used to gather data for co relational research. While this type of study can help determine if two variables have a relationship, it does not allow researchers to determine if one variable causes changes in another variable.
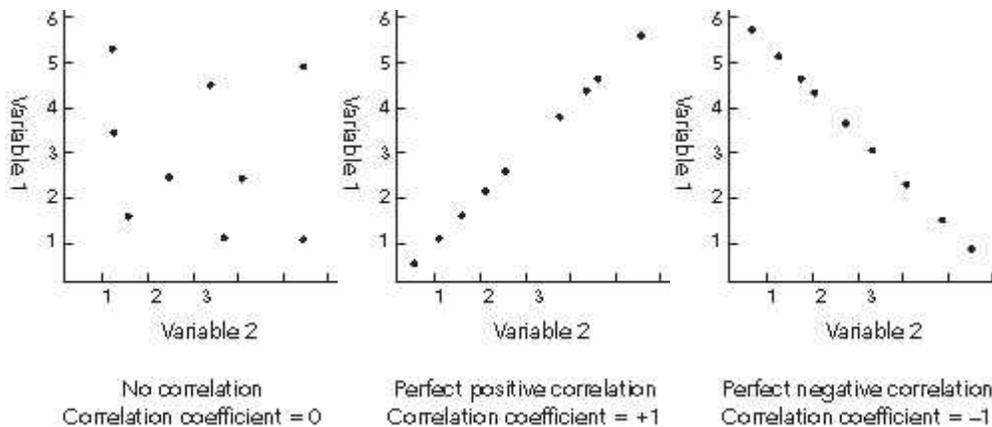
The Purpose of Co relational Studies:

Correlational studies are used to look for relationships between variables. There are three possible results of a correlational study: a positive correlation, a negative correlation, and no correlation. The correlation coefficient is a measure of correlation strength and can range from −1.00 to +1.00.

- **Positive Correlations:** Both variables increase or decrease at the same time. A correlation coefficient close to +1.00 indicates a strong positive correlation.

- **Negative Correlations:** Indicates that as the amount of one variable increases, the other decreases (and vice versa). A correlation coefficient close to -1.00 indicates a strong negative correlation.
- **No Correlation:** Indicates no relationship between the two variables. A correlation coefficient of 0 indicates no correlation.

The higher the correlation coefficient, the stronger the correlation. A +0.9 or a –0.9 indicates a very strong correlation; a +0.1 or a –0.1 indicates a very weak correlation. A correlation of 0 means that no relationship exists between two variables.

No correlation
Correlation coefficient = 0

Perfect positive correlation
Correlation coefficient = +1

Perfect negative correlation
Correlation coefficient = –1

Common co relational research methods include case studies, surveys, naturalistic observation, and laboratory observation

Limitations of Co relational Studies:

While co relational studies can suggest that there is a relationship between two variables, they cannot prove that one variable causes a change in another variable. In other words, correlation does not equal causation. For example, a co relational study might suggest that there is a relationship between academic success and self-esteem, but it cannot show if academic success increases or decreases self-esteem. Other variables might play a role, including social relationships, cognitive abilities, personality, socio-economic status, and a myriad of other factors.

Cross-Cultural Research

Cross-Cultural Research help to determine universal psychological processes unique to humans and the cultural influences on basic social psychological behaviour. The scientists must not impose their own viewpoints and definitions from their own culture onto the unfamiliar culture, but the two variables are to be understood in the same way in the different culture (Bond 1988, Lonner & Berry 1986). One result of cross-cultural research in Aronson et al (2002) shows western cultures focus on individualism and independence, while eastern cultures on collectivism and interdependence (Kitayama & Markis 1994, Markus & Kitayama 1991, Triandis 1989). To achieve a generalisation from cross-cultural studies, meta analysis is used to get an average result from two or more studies.

<u>Bias in Research</u>

Bias is the distortion of results by a variable. Common types of bias include sampling bias, subject bias, and experimenter bias.

Sampling Bias

Sampling bias occurs when the sample studied in an experiment does not correctly represent the population the researcher wants to draw conclusions about.

Example: A psychologist wants to study the eating habits of a population of New Yorkers who have freckles and are between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. She can't possibly study all people with freckles in that age group, so she must study a sample of people with freckles. However, she can generalize her results to the whole population of people with freckles only if her sample is representative of the population. If her sample includes only white, dark-haired males who are college juniors, her results won't generalize well to the entire population she's studying. Her sample will reflect sampling bias.

Subject Bias

Research subjects' expectations can affect and change the subjects' behavior, resulting in **subject bias**. Such a bias can manifest itself in two ways:

- A **placebo effect** is the effect on a subject receiving a fake drug or treatment. Placebo effects occur when subjects believe they are getting a real drug or treatment even though they are not. A **single-blind** experiment is an experiment in which the subjects don't know whether they are receiving a real or fake drug or treatment. Single-blind experiments help to reduce placebo effects.

- The **social desirability bias** is the tendency of some research subjects to describe themselves in socially approved ways. It can affect self-report data or information people give about themselves in surveys.

Experimenter Bias

Experimenter bias occurs when researchers' preferences or expectations influence the outcome of their research. In these cases, researchers see what they want to see rather than what is actually there.

A method called the **double-blind** procedure can help experimenters prevent this bias from occurring. In a double-blind procedure, neither the experimenter nor the subject knows which subjects come from the experimental group and which come from the control group.

MODULE 2

SOCIAL PERCEPTION AND COGNITION

Social perception and cognition are mental processes that help us to collect and remember information about others, and to make inferences and judgments based on that information **Social perception** is defined as the study of how we form impressions of and make inferences about other people. In order to know about other people, we depend on information gained from their physical appearance, and verbal and nonverbal communication. Missing information are filled in by using an implicit personality theory: If a person is observed to have one particular trait, we assume that he or she has other traits related to this observed one. These assumptions help us to categorize people and then infer additional facts and predict behaviour are influenced by self-motives. Society has the desire to achieve beneficial outcomes for the self and to maintain a positive self-image. Just as you prejudge the people you come across in society, you are being judged by them. As it is natural for humans to want to make a good impression on people, your self perceptions almost mirror other's social perceptions.

Social perception is one important component of social competence and successful social life. Being competent in social perception includes three domains of competence: (1) knowing that other people have thoughts, beliefs, emotions, intentions, desires, and the like, (2) being able to "read" other people's inner states based on their words, behavior, facial expression and the like, and (3) adjusting one's actions based on those "readings". That is, a socially competent person can make note of other people's facial expressions, tone of voice, posture, gestures, words, and the like, and on the basis of these clues, make reasonably accurate judgments about that person's state of mind, emotions, and intentions. Socially competent people then use these inferences about other people's inner states to make good decisions about how to behave socially.

The Self: Components of one's identity

The self is the center of each person's social universe. Self – identity, or self – concept is acquired primarily through social interactions that begin with immediate family and continue with the other people to meet throughout life. The self- concept is an organized collection of beliefs and feelings about oneself – in other words, it is a schema that functions like other schemas. Self – concept is a special framework that influences how to process information about ourselves – such as our motives, emotional states, self – evaluations, abilities, and much else besides

The elements of your self-concept, the specific beliefs by which you define yourself, are your self-schemas (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Schemas are mental templates by which we organize our worlds. Our self-schemas—our perceiving ourselves as athletic, overweight, smart, or whatever— powerfully affect how we process social information. They influence how we perceive, remember, and evaluate both other people and ourselves. The self-schemas that make up our self-concepts help us catalogue and retrieve our experiences.

The construction of the self-concept

The *self-concept* is constructed in much the same way that impressions from others are formed. The self-concept is the set of all an individual's beliefs about his or her personal qualities. These beliefs are based on different kinds of information.

Self-perception theory

Daryl Bem's (1967) *self-perception theory* says that we learn things about ourselves from our own behaviors, but only if we lack strong inner thoughts or feelings about this part of ourselves.

Motivation

Behavior driven by intrinsic motivation leads to inferences about the self; behavior driven by extrinsic motivation reveals less about inner qualities.

External rewards lead to less intrinsic motivation (Lepper et al., 1973; SP p. 97), because self-perceptional processes lead to the conclusion that the behavior was engaged in because of the reward.

Accessibility

Thinking about actual or imagined behavior increases the accessibility of related personal characteristics, which leads to self-inferences.

Thoughts and feelings

From the thoughts and feelings of a person, more accurate inferences about the self are drawn. This is true for the person as well as for others who have to form an impression of a person.

Effects of other people's reactions

Charles H. Cooley's ?Looking-glass self? means that people use other people's reactions as a source of self-knowledge (Cooley, 1902; SP p. 98). These reactions serve as a kind of a mirror, reflecting our image so that we can see it. In a study by Miller et al. (1975; SP p. 99), it was shown that children became to behave in a way that others described them. However, this should especially be the case for people who are insecure about their self-concept, such as children.

The self-concept has become a major social psychological focus because it helps organize our thinking and guide out social behavior. But what determines our self-concepts? Studies of twins point to genetic influences in personality and self-concept, but social experience also plays a part. Among these influences are:

- The roles we play,
- The social identifies we form,
- The comparisons we make with others,
- Our successes and failures,
- How other people judge us, and
- The surrounding culture.

The roles we play

As we enact a new role—college student, parent, salesperson—we initially feel self-conscious. Gradually, however, what begins as play-acting in the theatre of life gets absorbed into our sense of self. For example, while playing our roles we may support something we haven't really thought much about. Having made a pitch on behalf of our organization, we then justify our words by believing more strongly in it. Moreover, observing ourselves can be self-revealing; we may now perceive ourselves as holding the views we expressed. Role playing becomes reality.

Social identity

Your self-concept—your sense of who your are—contains not just your personal identity (your sense of your personal attributes) but your social identity. The social definition of who you

are—your race, religion, gender, academic major, and so forth—implies a definition of who you are not. The circle that includes "us" excludes "them."

When we're part of a small group surrounded by a larger group, we are often conscious of our social identity; when our social group is the majority, we think less about it.

Social comparisons

How do we decide if we are rich, mart, or short? One way is through **social comparisons** (Festinger, 1954). Others around us help to define the standard by which we define ourselves as rich or poor, smart or dumb, tall or short: We compare ourselves with them and consider how we differ. Social comparison explains why students tend to have a higher academic self-concept if they attend a school with few exceptionally capable students (Marsh & others, 2000). After finishing secondary school near the top of the class, many academically confident students find their academic self-esteem threatened upon entering big, selective universities where many students graduated near the top of their classes. Given a little pond, a fish feels bigger.

Much of life revolves around social comparisons. We feel handsome when others seem homely, smart when other seem dull, caring when others seem callous. When we witness a peer's performance, we cannot resist comparing ourselves (Gilbert & others, 1995). We may, therefore privately take some pleasure in a peer's failure, especially when it is the failure or misfortune of an envied person and when we don't feel vulnerable to such misfortune (Lockwood, 2002; Smith & others, 1996).

Success and failure

Self-concept is not only fed by our roles, our social identity, and our comparisons but also by our daily experiences. To undertake challenging yet realistic tasks and to succeed is to feel more competent. After mastering the physical skills needed to repel a sexual assault, women feel less vulnerable, less anxious, and more in control (Ozer & Bandura, 1990). After experiencing academic success, students develop higher appraisals of their academic ability, which often stimulate them to work harder and achieve more (Felson, 1984; Marsh & Yound, 1997). To do one's best and achieve is to feel more confident and empowered.

Other people's judgments

Recognized achievements boost self-concept because we see ourselves in others' positive appraisals. When people think well of us, it helps us think well of ourselves. Children whom others label as gifted, hard working, or helpful tend to incorporate such ideas into their self-concepts and behavior. If minority students feel threatened by negative stereotypes for their match and science performance, they may "disidentify" with these realms. Rather than fight such prejudgments, they may identify their interests elsewhere.

The looking-glass self is how sociologist Charles H. Cooley (1902) described our habit of using how we imagine another perceives us a mirror for perceiving ourselves. We perceive our reflections in how we think we appear to others, said Cooley. Fellow sociologist George Herbert Mead (1934) refined this concept, noting that what matter for our self-concepts in not what others actually think of us, but what we perceive them as thinking. We generally feel freer to praise than to criticize others.

Self – Esteem

Perhaps the most important attitude each person holds is his or her attitude about self, an evaluation that can label Self – Esteem (James, 1890). A person with high self – esteem perceives he or herself as better, more capable, and of greater worth than does someone with low self – esteem. Self – evaluations based in part on the opinions of others and in part on how to perceive specific experiences. Interestingly, negative self – perceptions lead to more predictable behavior than positive self – perceptions. Presumably, this happens because negative self – views involve more tightly organized schemas than positive ones (Malle & Horowitz, 1995); as a result, someone with low self – esteem can interpret a success in a variety of ways, but someone with low self – esteem tends to over generalize the implications of a failure (Brown & Dutton, 1995). Though most of the research on self – esteem is focused on a global indication of self – evaluation, it is also clear that people subdivide aspects of their self. A slightly different approach to assessing self – esteem is to compare a person's self – concept with his or her conception of an ideal self. The greater the discrepancy, the lower the self – esteem.

<u>Self – Esteem and Social Comparison</u>

These social comparison are a major determinant of how to evaluate us. (Brown et al., 1992). This fact explains some research findings that might otherwise seem surprising. For example, given the very real problems of racism and sexism, to might expect women and minority group members to be low in self- esteem. Instead, women and minorities tend to express higher self – esteem than white males (Crocker & Major, 1989). Clearly, social comparisons must differ for these different groups of people. Several lines of research help clarify some of the ways in which these complex social comparisons operate. To compare oneself to others, his esteem goes up when he perceive some inadequacy in them. – a contrast effect. This kind of comparison with someone who is worse off (a downward comparison) arouses positive feelings and raises his self – esteem (Reis,Gerrard, & Gibbons, 1993). When, however, the comparison with someone to whom he feel close, he perceive something very good about feel close

Self-presentation

Self-presentation is the processes individuals use to control the impressions of others social interaction.While impression management and self-presentation or giving Face are often used interchangeably, some authors have argued that they are not the same. In particular, Schlenker (1980) believed that self-presentation should be used to describe attempts to control 'self-relevant' images projected in "real or imagined social interactions'. This is because people may manage impressions of entities other than themselves such as businesses, cities and other individuals (Leary & Kowalski 1990

Self-presentation is expressive. We construct an image of ourselves to claim personal identity, and present ourselves in a manner that is consistent with that image. If we feel like this is restricted, we exhibit reactance/be defiant. We try to assert our freedom against those who would seek to curtail our self-presentation expressiveness. A classic example is the idea of the "preacher's daughter", whose suppressed personal identity and emotions cause an eventual backlash at her family and community.

People adopt many different impression management strategies. One of them is ingratiation, where we use flattery or praise to increase our social attractiveness by highlighting our better characteristics so that others will like us (Schlenker 1980).

Another strategy is intimidation, which is aggressively showing anger to get others to hear and obey us. A strategy that has garnered a great amount of research attention is self-handicapping. In this case people create 'obstacles' and 'excuses' (Aronson et al. 2009) for themselves so that they can avoid self-blame when they do poorly. People who self-handicap choose to blame their failures on obstacles such as drugs and alcohol rather than their own lack of ability. Other individuals devise excuses such as shyness, anxiety, negative mood or physical symptoms as reasons for their failure. Concerning the strategies followed to establish a certain impression, the main distinction is between defensive and assertive strategies. Whereas defensive strategies include behaviors like avoidance of threatening situations or means of self-handicapping, assertive strategies refer to more active behavior like the verbal idealisation of the self, the use of status symbols or similar practices. These strategies play important roles in one's maintenance of self-esteem. One's self-esteem is affected by his evaluation of his own performance and his perception of how others react to his performance. As a result, people actively portray impressions that will elicit self-esteem enhancing reactions from others.

Types of Self-presentation

▪ Authentic - Goal is to create an image consistent with the way we view ourselves.
▪ Ideal - Goal is to establish an image consistent with what we wish we were.
▪ Tactical self-presentation - Goal is to establish a public image consistent with what others want or expect us to be.

FORMING IMPRESSION

Impression formation deals with the processes involved in the formation of impression about others. Impression Formation is the process through which we develop our beliefs and evaluations of other people. It refers to the process through which we combine diverse information about other persons into a united impression of them. Forming impressions about others is an elaborate cognitive process. The initial or first impressions about others are very important. It is rightly said that the "First impression is the last impression". The initial impressions we make on others will generally shape the course of our future relations with them in important ways. Once an impression is formed, it is generally resistant to change.

The role of schemas in impression formation

We have a general tendency to quickly form first impressions about others. These first impressions, about others, are formed quickly and without any mental effort. Recent research on impression formation has revealed that we not only form first impressions of others quickly, but also that these impressions play a strong role in our overt actions, including the important behaviour of choosing between candidates for political office. Research studies by Willis and Todorov (2006) have revealed that when shown faces of strangers (male and female) individuals form first impressions of these people rapidly. In fact even exposure times of one-tenth of a second are sufficient, and

increasing exposure times do not change the first impressions significantly. Thus, we form impressions of others very quickly and often on the basis of limited

amounts of information (e.g. their facial appearance). This has considerable practical significance in our interpersonal relationships, business meeting and other professional relationships.

Implicit Personality Theories: Schemas that Shape First

Impressions: Implicit personality theories are beliefs about what traits or characteristics are assumed to go together. For example, if someone describes a person as "helpful" and "kind" we would also assume him/her to be sincere. Similarly, if our friend describes a stranger as "practical" and "intelligent" person, we would also assume him/her to be ambitious. This is largely due to the schema we hold about people and or events. For e.g., in many societies, it is assumed that "what is beautiful is good" – that people who are attractive also possess other positive traits, such as good social skills and interest in enjoying good times and good things in life. Large number of research studies, especially those related to birth order and personality reveal that our impressions of others are often strongly shaped by our beliefs about what traits or characteristics go together. These beliefs are often so strong that we will sometimes bend our perceptions of other people to be consistent with them. We often form impressions of others that reflect our implicit beliefs more than their actual traits.

Cognitive approach to impression formation

The term cognitive means perception, thinking, reasoning and other related mental processes. Impression formation is a cognitive process in which we combine available information about others into a weighted average in which each piece of information about another person is weighted in terms of its relative

importance. The various factors that influence the relative weight age are as follows.

1. The Sources of Input: The information from sources we trust or admire is weighted more heavily than information from sources we distrust (Rosenbaum and Levin, 1969).

2. Positive and Negative Nature of Information: We tend to weight negative information about others more heavily than positive information.

3. Unusual or Extreme Behaviour: The information that describes behaviour or traits that are unusual or extreme are more valued and weighted.

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

Exemplars: It refers to concrete examples of behaviour other have performed that are consistent with a given traits. According to this view when we make judgements about others, we recall examples of their behaviour and base our judgement (and our impressions) on these. For e.g., we may recall that during our first meeting with person, how he/she was rude, made criticism about

others, and did not co-operate with sick person who was with us. We will recall all these pieces of information and conclude that this person posses the trait of "inconsideration."

• **Abstractions**: It refers to mental summaries that are abstracted from repeated observations of other's behaviour. According to this view when we make judgement about others we simply bring our previously formed abstractions to mind, and then use these as the basis for our impressions and our decisions. If we have previously judged a person to be unfriendly, pessimistic, etc., we will combine these traits into an impression of this individual.

Role of nonverbal cues in impression formation

Our Impressions of Others Are Shaped by Their Nonverbal Behavior

First impressions are often based on nonverbal communication, which is the sending and Receiving of information using gestures, expressions, vocal cues, and body movements rather than words. Two of the more important nonverbal channels of communication are facial expressions and body movements. However, all nonverbal cues including paralinguistic's and unconscious mimicry are vas under:

1. Facial Expressions

More than two thousand years ago, the Roman orator Marcus Cicero wrote that the "face is the image of the soul."Centuries later, Charles Darwin (1872) proposed *that facial expressions* not only play an important role in communication, but that certain emotional expressions are inborn and thus are understood throughout the world. Studies conducted during the past thirty years provide support for Darwin's assertions: there is substantial cross- cultural agreement in both the experience and expression of emotions; although certain emotions are easier to distinguish than others most researchers have concluded that certain emotions are more basic, or *primary,* than others. Most classification lists include the following seven primary emotions: *anger, disgust, fear, happiness, surprise, contempt,* and *sadness* other emotions that are considered basic by some theorists are *shame* and guilt. He believed that this ability to recognize emotion from the observation of facial expressions was genetically programmed into our species and had survival value for us. Research supports the survival value hypothesis. For instance, a number of studies have shown people pictures of crowds of faces to determine what facial expressions were most recognizable in such a clustered setting. As Darwin would have predicted, people spotted threatening faces (anger first, fear second) faster and more accurately than no threatening faces, even when the nonthreatening faces depicted negative emotions such as sadness (Hanscn & Hansen, 1988; Lanzetta & Orr, 1986; Ohman et al., 2001).

2. Body Movements

Besides facial cues, the body as a whole can convey a wealth of information. William Chaplin and his co-workers (2000) have found evidence that in North American culture people with firm handshakes tend to be more extraverted, adventurous, and less neurotic and shy than those with weak handshakes. Recognizing the importance of this nonverbal behavior in forming favorable first impressions, many professional training seminars now teach attendees how to properly shake hands. There are different forms of physical touches, like mother's touch to a child is very comforting (Maurer & Maurer, 1988). Similarly several forms of therapies, physical as well as psychological, use physician's touch in the process of healing (Borelli & Heidt, 1988. Studies have also reported comparatively less tension in those who touch and get touched (Anderson et al., 1987), which shows the power and importance of touch. A series of studies by Joel Aronoff and his

colleagues (1992) also suggest that people often infer underlying emotional states by reading the geometric patterns of bodies during social interaction; For example, in a creative analysis of dance characters in classical ballet, the researchers' found that the body and arm displays of the threatening characters were more *diagonal* or *angular,* while those of the warm characters were more rounded. These findings suggest that people analyze the *shape* of large-scale body movements to better determine another person's behavioral intentions. Yet although there are commonly shared meanings of many physical gestures, it is also true that people from different cultures often assign different meanings to the same physical movements.

3. Nonconscious Mimicry

Beyond interpreting the meaning of specific nonverbal gestures, our impressions of others are also shaped by nonconscious mimicry, which is the tendency to adopt the behaviors, postures, or mannerisms of interaction partners without conscious awareness or intention. Mimicking others' facial expressions appears to be so inborn that 1 -month-old infants have been shown to smile, stick out their tongues, and open their mouths when they see someone else doing the same (Metzlaff & Moore, 1989). Evidence that mimicry is often nonconscious and unintentional comes from number of studies.

Insight into the biological basis for nonconscious mimicry comes from PET scans and EEG recordings of people's brains while they observe another person performing an action. These studies found that similar neural circuits are firing in the observers' brains as are firing in the brains of those who are carrying out the action. These specialized neural circuits located in the premotor cortex are called *mirror neurons* How does mimicking affect impression formation? In a follow-up experiment to their face-rubbing/foot-shaking study, Chartrand and Bargh (1999) found evidence that mimicry increases liking for the imitator. The researchers instructed confederates to subtly imitate the mannerisms of people they were interacting with in a "get acquainted" session (for example, rubbing their face or tapping their foot when their partner did so). Their findings indicated that people whose gestures had been mimicked liked the confederates more than those who had not been mimicked. Prosocial behavior these studies suggest that mimicry triggers _ positive reactions in people that lead to benefits to those who are present

Stereotypes and Central Traits

Stereotype

In 1922, Lippmann introduced the term stereotype as "pictures in the head"; that is, simplified mental images of what groups look like, and what they do.Next to physical appearance, interests, goals, activities, occupations, and characteristics, stereotypes also incorporate personality traits, and emotions or feelings.Jackman and Senter (1981) demonstrated that gender stereotypes are held more strongly and confidently than ethnic stereotypes.

Stereotypes can be either positive or negative

Stereotypes can include negative, but also positive, characteristics. Even positive stereotypes can have negative consequences: overestimated uniformity (while people like to be thought of as unique), rigid expectations, and reinforcement of the group's weakness and dependence. While the set of beliefs might be positive, "benevolent sexism" reinforces the weakness and dependence of women as a group.

Stereotypes can be accurate or inaccurate

Some stereotypes are accurate in direction and/or degree. This is not surprising because people "sort themselves" into groups, creating real group differences that may be reflected in stereotypes. Stereotypes can also be inaccurate. There are a lot of examples of inaccurate stereotypes (SP p. 148). In one sense, every stereotype is inaccurate when it is viewed as applying to every group member.

Central Traits

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

MODELS OF INFORMATION INTEGRATION

This theory was developed, and extensively tested through a variety of experiments, by **Norman Anderson (1971**). Information Integration theory explores how attitudes are formed and changed through the integration (mixing, combining) of new information with existing cognitions or thoughts.

Information integration theory considers the ideas in a persuasive message to be pieces of information, and each relevant piece of information has two qualities: value and weight. The value of a bit of information is its evaluation (favorable or unfavourable) and the weight is the information's perceived importance. For example, Steve tells Sarah that Joe has a ponytail. The value of this information is whether Sarah thinks a ponytail (for Joe) is good (attractive) or bad (unattractive or inappropriate). The weight is how much that friend's hair style matters to Sarah. If it does matter (has some weight) and if Sarah thinks it is good for Joe to wear a ponytail, then this piece of information inclines Sarah to have a favorable attitude toward this friend.

However, Sarah's new attitude would also depend on what she thought about Joe before she learned about Joe's new hair style. If she previously had a favorable attitude toward Joe, her attitude would remain favorable. It could be come even more favorable, especially if she thought hair style was very important (if this information had a larger weight) and if Sarah really, really liked

pony tails (if the information had a high positive value). On the other hand, if Sarah used to have an unfavourable attitude toward Joe, this new information probably wouldn't change her attitude from unfavourable to favorable. It could mean that her new attitude wasn't as negative as before, especially if this new information had a large weight and a high positive value.

On the other hand, it is possible that Sarah doesn't think men should wear ponytails. This would mean that the new information had a negative value. Again, Sarah's new attitude would depend on three factors: her original attitude, the value of the new information to Sarah, and its weight. If she liked Joe before she learned about his ponytail, she might like him less (have a less favorable attitude). Her attitude is most likely to change if men's hair style is important to her (has weight) and if she has a very unfavourable feeling about ponytails on men (value). If her initial attitude was unfavourable, finding out about Joe's new hair style would have a tendency to make her new attitude even more unfavourable. If the weight of this new information was high and the value was very unfavourable, Sarah's attitude could become noticeably more negative.

This, Information Integration Theory states that when we obtain new information (often from persuasive messages), those new pieces of information will affect our attitudes. They won't replace our existing attitudes: If Sarah began with an unfavourable attitude toward Joe and she likes ponytails on men, she won't all of a sudden have a strong positive attitude toward Joe. However, when we learn new positive information, negative attitudes tend to become less negative and attitudes that are positive are likely to become somewhat more positive.

Furthermore, Information Integration Theory tells us that each bit of information has two important qualities, weight and value. Both factors influence our attitudes. Information that is (1) high in value, highly favorable (or highly unfavourable), and (2) high in weight (is very important to us) will have more influence on our attitudes than information low in value or weight. Information with low value (slightly favorable or slightly unfavourable) and low weight will have the least influence on our attitudes.

Therefore, new information is mixed, combined, or <u>integrated</u> with existing information to create a new attitude. However, information can be combined in more than one way. One important question is whether new information is <u>added</u> to existing knowledge, or whether it is <u>averaged</u> into it. Consider this simple example. Bob has a pretty favorable attitude of +3 (on a scale of -5 to +5) toward a certain automobile. If he learns a new piece of information (say, it has chrome wheels) that is slightly favorable for him, say a +1, what will his new attitude be? If he <u>adds</u> +1 and +3, then Bob's new attitude will be more favorable than his existing attitude, a +4. On the other hand, if Bob <u>averages</u> the new and old information his new attitude should be less favorable, a +2 (1 plus 3 is 4, divided by 2 pieces of information, equals an average of 2).

Some people believe that the adding model is best. But what happens if one has several pieces of new information, all valued at +3 (again, on a scale of -5 to +5). If Bob is told four new pieces of information that he values at +3 each, his attitude would be +3 (his initial attitude) +3 +3 +3 +3, or +15. But if the attitude scale goes from -5 to +5, he can't possibly have an attitude of over +5. And research shows that in situations like this one Bob's final attitude wouldn't even be +5.

If adding doesn't work, does this mean that information is combined by averaging? If he starts with a +3 and learns four new pieces of information, all valued at +3, averaging this information (+3, the initial attitude, added to +3 +3 +3 +3 and then divided by 5) would produce a

final attitude of +3. But surely if Bob learns several new favorable pieces of information about this car his attitude would become somewhat more positive. And, again, the research shows that in these kinds of situations Bob's final attitude would be higher than+3.

Many tests have been tried to decide this question but the evidence does not clearly support either adding or averaging models. In my opinion, this is true is because human beings aren't computers or calculators. I certainly agree that people do combine new information and old to create new attitudes. However, I do not believe that people assign numbers to pieces of information or perform mathematical calculations (adding or averaging) to figure out their new attitudes. I think that formulas should be considered to be <u>approximations</u> of what human beings do without numbers. To make a formula work, we have to put numbers into it and combine those numbers in some way (adding or averaging them). These theories and formulas do come close to predicting our attitudes, so they are useful. But we shouldn't be surprised if these formulas do not predict <u>exact</u> attitudes. I think it is enough that they can come close.

Primacy-Recency Effect

Asch stressed the important influence of an individual's initial impressions of a person's personality traits on the interpretation of all subsequent impressions. Asch argued that these early impressions often shaped or colored an individual's perception of other trait-related details. A considerable body of research exists supporting this hypothesis For example, when individuals were asked to rate their impression of another person after being presented a list of words progressing from either low favorability to high favorability (L - H) or from high favorability to low favorability (H - L), strong primacy effects were found.[1] In other words, impressions formed from initial descriptor adjectives persisted over time and influenced global impressions. In general, primacy can have three main effects: initial trait-information can be integrated into an individual's global impression of a person in a process of *assimilation effects,* it can lead to a durable impression against which other information is compared in a process of *anchoring,* and it can cause people to actively change their perception of others in a process of *correction.*

Primacy Effects on Impression Formation

First impressions are considered very important. It is very common to hear people talk about the importance of giving a good first impression because that very first moment in which we meet someone new, we are showing them the kind of person we are most likely to be. Whether we are meeting our possible love interest or our new boss for the first time, the first impression formed by them will probably dictate our likelihood of getting what we need from them. Then, how are personality impressions formed? Do first impressions have a much greater impact on the judger than subsequent impressions?

How first impressions are formed has been a subject of interest by many researchers in the area of psychology. Past research in this subject suggests that primacy effects exist in impression formation (e.g. Jones & Goethals, 1972; Anderson & Hubert, 1963; Stewart, 1965). Asch's experiments on formations of personality impression suggested that when adjectives describing a person are presented in sequence, the first adjectives have more impact than the later ones. The same words used to describe a person could yield very different ratings of that person depending on the order in which the words were presented. When adjectives with more positive meaning were given first followed by words with less positive meaning, the participants tended to rate that person more positively; but when the order was reversed, participants tended to judge that person less positively (Asch, 1946)

The recency effect is an order of presentation effect that occurs when more recent information is better remembered and receives greater weight in forming a judgment than does earlier-presented information. Recency effects in social psychology have been most thoroughly studied in impression formation research. Typically, researchers investigate how impressions are formed on the basis of sequentially presented information. For example, a recency effect occurs if a person who is described in terms of three positive traits followed by three negative traits is subsequently evaluated more negatively than is a person described by exactly the same traits but presented in a reverse order (negative traits followed by positive traits).

ATTRIBUTION --THEORIES OF ATTRIBUTION

Attribution refers to the process by which we try to understand the cause of others' behavior to internal or external factors. It is the thought processes we employ in explaining the behavior of other people and our own as well. Attribution implies an explanation for the cause of an event or behavior. Attribution theory explains how individuals pinpoint the causes of their own behavior or that of others. We are preoccupied with seeking, constructing and testing explanations of our experiences and to render it orderly, meaningful and predictable for adaptive action. Fritz Heider is considered the father of attribution theory. He believed that people are like amateur scientists, trying to understand other people's behavior by piecing together information until they arrive at a reasonable cause.

.Theories of of attribution

Attribution theory deals with how the social perceiver uses information to arrive at causal explanations for events. It examines what information is gathered and how it is combined to form a causal judgment" (Fiske & Taylor, 1991) Attribution theory is concerned with how and why ordinary people explain events as they do. The major theories are,

1) Heider's Theory

According to **Fritz Heider** (1958), we produce attributions (beliefs about the causes of behaviour) based on two sources of information.

o   *Internal attributions* - based on something within the individual whose behaviour is being observed - their natural character

o   *External attributions* - based on something external to that individual - nothing to do with who they are specifically, it is the situation they are in Internal attributions are often referred to as

dispositional attributions while external attributions are called **situational attributions**.
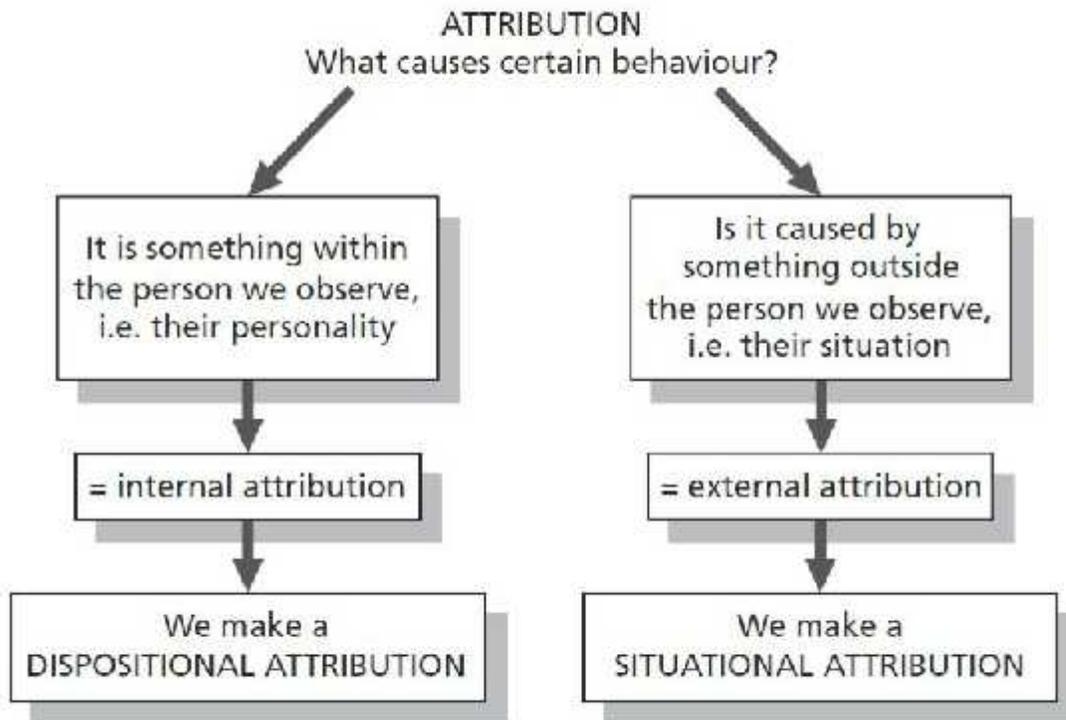
Jones and Davis Correspondent Inference Theory

Jones and Davis (1965) thought that people pay particular attention to intentional behavior (as opposed to accidental or unthinking behavior).

Jones and Davis's theory helps us understand the process of making an internal attribution. They say that we tend to do this when we see a correspondence between motive and behavior. For example when we see a correspondence between someone behaving in a friendly way and being a friendly person.

Dispositional (i.e. internal) attributions provide us with information from which we can make predictions about a person's future behavior.

The correspondent inference theory describes the conditions under which we make dispositional attributes to behavior we perceive as intentional. Davis used the term correspondent inference to refer to an occasion when an observer infers that a person's behavior matches or corresponds with their personality. It is an alternative term to dispositional attribution. So what leads us to make a correspondent inference? Jones and Davis say we draw on 5 sources of information:

1. **Choice**: If a behavior is freely chosen it is believed to be due to internal (dispositional) factors.

2. **Accidental vs. Intentional behavior**: behavior that is intentional is likely to a attributed to the person's personality and behavior which is accidental is likely to be attributed to situation / external causes.

3. **Social Desirability**: behaviors low in sociably desirability (not conforming) lead us to make (internal) dispositional inferences more than socially undesirable behaviors. For example, if

you observe a person getting on a bus and sitting on the floor instead of one of the seats. This behavior has low social desirability (non conforming) and is likely correspond with the personality of the individual.

4. **Non-common effects:** If the other person's behavior has important consequences for ourselves. For example if the person asks us out on a date we assume it was the fact that they like you that was important (not that you were simply available!).

5. **Hedonistic Relevance**: If the other person's behavior appears to be directly intended to benefit or harm us, we assume that it is "personal", and not just a by-product of the situation we are both in.

Kelley Co variation Model

Kelley's (1967) co variation model is the best known attribution theory. He developed a logical model for judging whether a particular action should be attributed to some characteristic (internal) of the person or the environment (external).

The term co variation simply means that a person has information from multiple observations, at different times and situations, and can perceive the co variation of an observed effect and its causes. Kelley believed that there were three types of causal information which influenced our judgments. Low factors = dispositional (internal) attributions.

1) Consensus: the extent to which other people behave in the same way in a similar situation. E.g. Alison smokes a cigarette when she goes out for a meal with her friend. If her friend smokes, her behavior is high in consensus. If only Alison smokes it is low.

2) Distinctiveness: the extent to which the person behaves in the same way in similar situations. If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, her behavior is high in distinctiveness. If she smokes at any time or place, distinctiveness is low.

3) Consistency: the extent to which the person behaves like this every time the situation occurs. If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, consistency is high. If she only smoke on one special occasion, consistency is low.

Let's look at an example to help understand his particular attribution theory. Our subject is called Tom. His behavior is laughter. Tom is laughing at a comedian.

1. Consensus: Everybody in the audience is laughing. Consensus is high. If only Tom is laughing consensus is low.

2. Distinctiveness: Tom only laughs at this comedian. Distinctiveness is high. If Tom laughs at everything distinctiveness is low.

3. Consistency: Tom always laughs at this comedian. Consistency is high. Tom rarely laughs at this comedian consistency is low.

Now, if everybody laughs at this comedian, if they don't laugh at the comedian who follows and if this comedian always raises a laugh then we would make an external attribution, i.e. we assume that Tom is laughing because the comedian is very funny.

On the other hand, if Tom is the only person who laughs at this comedian, if Tom laughs at all comedians and if Tom always laughs at the comedian then we would make an internal attribution, i.e. we assume that Tom is laughing because he is the kind of person who laughs a lot. So what we've got here is people attributing causality on the basis of correlation. That is to say, we see that two things

go together and we therefore assume that one causes the other. One problem however is that we may not have enough information to make that kind of judgment. For example, if we don't know Tom that well we wouldn't necessarily have the information to know if his behavior is consistent over time. So what do we do then?

According to Kelley we fall back on past experience and look for either

1) Multiple necessary causes. For example, we see an athlete win a marathon and we reason that she must be very fit, highly motivated, have trained hard etc. and that she must have all of these to win

2) Multiple sufficient causes. For example, we see an athlete fail a drug test and we reason that she may be trying to cheat, or have taken a banned substance by accident or been tricked into taking it by her coach. Any one reason would be sufficient.

Attribution Biases

In psychology, an **attribution bias** is a cognitive bias that affects the way we determine who or what was responsible for an event or action (attribution). It is natural for us to interpret events and results as the consequences of the purposeful actions of some person or agent. Attribution biases typically take the form of actor/observer differences: people involved in an action (actors) view things differently from people not involved (observers). These discrepancies are often caused by asymmetries in availability (frequently called "salience" in this context). For example, the behavior of an actor is easier to remember (and therefore more available for later consideration) than the setting in which he found himself; and a person's own inner turmoil is more available to himself than it is to someone else. As a result, our judgments of attribution are often distorted along those lines. Major attribution errors are,

1)The fundamental attribution error (also known as correspondence bias)

The **fundamental attribution error** is the tendency to attribute other people's behavior to internal factors such as personality traits, abilities, and feelings. The fundamental attribution error is also called the correspondence bias, because it is assumed that other people's behavior corresponds to their personal attributes. When explaining their own behavior, on the other hand, people tend to attribute it to situational factors.

Example: Alexis falls asleep in class. Sean attributes her behavior to laziness. When he fell asleep in class last week, however, he attributed his own behavior to the all-nighter he pulled finishing a term paper.

There are two explanations for this bias. First, we tend to overlook the effect of social roles on the behaviors. For example, we might see salespeople as extroverted and persistent people because we ignore the fact that their jobs require them to behave in this way to boost sales. Second, we tend to generalize the behaviors we observe when people are in constrained and constant situations to other different situations and conclude that it is due to dispositional cause rather than situational cause. It is most visible when people explain the behaviour of others. It does not explain interpretations of one's own behavior - where situational factors are often taken into consideration. This discrepancy is called the **actor-observer bias**. Fundamental

Attribution Error refers to the tendency to make attributions to internal causes when focusing on someone else's behavior. When looking at the behavior of others, we tend to underestimate the impact of situational forces and overestimate the impact of dispositional forces. Most people ignore the impact of role pressures and other situational constraints on others and see behavior as caused by people's intentions, motives, and attitudes.

2)Self-Serving Attributions :

The **self-serving bias** is the tendency to attribute successes to internal factors and failures to situational factors. This bias tends to increase as time passes after an event. Therefore, the further in the past an event is, the more likely people are to congratulate themselves for successes and to blame the situation for failures.

Example: Chad wins a poetry competition but fails to get the poem published in a magazine he sent it to. He attributes his success in the competition to his talent. He attributes his failure to get it published to bad luck.

Self-serving attributions are explanations for one's successes that credit internal, dispositional factors and exp3lanations for one's failures that blame external, situational factors. Self-serving bias is a tendency to attribute one's own success to internal causes and one's failures to external causes. This pattern is observed in the attributions that professional athletes make for their performances. It has been found that less experienced athletes, more highly skilled athletes, and athletes in solo sports are more likely to make self-serving attributions. One reason people make self-serving attributions is to maintain their self-esteem. A second reason is self-presentation, to maintain the perceptions others have of one self. A third reason is because people have information about their behavior in other situations, which may lead to positive outcomes being expected and negative outcomes being unexpected (and thus attributed to the situation). People often blame themselves for their own misfortune. Because otherwise, they would have to admit that misfortune was beyond their control, and they would be unable to avoid it in the future.

Defensive attributions are explanations for behavior or outcomes (e.g., tragic events) that avoid feelings of vulnerability and mortality. One way we deal with tragic information about others is to make it seem like it could never happen to us. We do so through the **belief in a just world**, a form of defensive attribution wherein people assume that bad things happen to bad people and that good things happen to good people. Because most of us see ourselves as good, this reassures us that bad things will not happen to us. The belief in a just world can lead to blaming the victim for his or her misfortunes.

The **false-consensus effect** or **false-consensus bias** is a cognitive bias whereby a person tends to overestimate how much other people agree with him or her. There is a tendency for people to assume that their own opinions, beliefs, preferences, values and habits are 'normal' and that others also think the same way that they do This cognitive bias tends to lead to the perception of a consensus that does not exist, a 'false consensus'. This false consensus is significant because it increases self-esteem. The need to be "normal" and fit in with other people is underlined by a desire to conform and be liked by others in a social environment Our attributions may not be always accurate under many circumstances. First impressions, for example, are not very accurate. However, the better we get to know someone, the more accurate we will be about them .

One reason our impressions are wrong is because of the mental shortcuts we use in forming social judgments.. Another reason our impressions can be wrong concerns our use of schemas, such as relying on implicit theories of personality to judge others. Attribution errors are the most pervasive and ultimately the most destructive of the cognitive deficits. Avoiding the attribution bias can be difficult. One strategy is to simply give other people the benefit of the doubt. Another would be to inquire into the background behind the circumstances of a situation, to clarify whether a dispositional explanation is really most plausible. Yet another would be to ask oneself how one would behave in a similar situation. Eliminating the attribution bias completely seems impossible, as it is built into human nature. However, through reflective thinking, it appears possible to minimize its effects. To improve accuracy of your attributions and impressions, remember that the correspondence bias, the actor/observer difference, and defensive attributions exist and try to counteract these biases.

MODULE 3.

COMMUNICATION

Social psychology traditionally has been defined as the study of the ways in which people affect, and are affected by, others. Communication is one of the primary means by which people affect one another, and, in light of this, one might expect the study of communication to be a core topic of social psychology, but historically that has not been the case. **Communication** (from Latin "*communist*", meaning *to share*) is the activity of conveying information through the exchange of thoughts, messages, or information, as by speech, visuals, signals, writing, or behavior. It is the meaningful exchange of information between two or a group of person.

One definition of communication is "any act by which one person gives to or receives from another person information about that person's needs, desires, perceptions, knowledge, or affective states. Communication may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals, may take linguistic or nonlinguistic forms, and may occur through spoken or other modes. Communication requires a sender, a message, and a recipient, although the receiver doesn't have to be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of communication; thus communication can occur across vast distances in time and space. Communication requires that the communicating parties share an area of communicative commonality. The communication process is complete once the receiver has understood the message of the sender

Communication is a complex and multidisciplinary concept, and, across the several disciplines that use the term, there is no consensus on exactly how it should be defined. It is an important theoretical construct in such otherwise dissimilar fields as cell biology, computer science, ethology, linguistics, electrical engineering, sociology, anthropology, genetics, philosophy, semiotics, and literary theory. And although there is a core of meaning common to the way the term is used in these disciplines, the particularities differ enormously. What cell biologists call communication bears little resemblance to what anthropologists study under the same rubric. A concept used in so many different ways runs the risk of becoming an amorphous catch-all term lacking precise meaning, and that already may have happened to communication. As the sociologist ThomasLuckmann has observed, "Communication has come to mean all things toall men" (Luckmann, 1993).

Despite this, for social psychologists communication (or some equivalent notion) remains an indispensable concept. It's difficult to imagine serious discussions of such topics as social influence, small group interaction, social perception, attitude change, or interpersonal relations that ignore the role communication plays. Yet such discussions typically pay little attention to the specific mechanisms by means of which the process works.

The Oxford English Dictionary (1989,), for example, defines communication as "the imparting, conveying, or exchange of ideas, knowledge, information, etc. (whether by speech, writing, or signs)"

. Gergen (1991) argues that the notion that people have ideas, formed in the mind, which are then conveyed to others by a process of communication, is pervasive in all cultures. In 1928 the

English literary critic and author I.A. Richards offered one of the first and in some ways still the best definitions of communication as a discrete aspect of human enterprise: Communication takes place when one mind so acts upon its environment that another mind is influenced, and in that other mind an experience occurs which is like the experience in the first mind, and is caused in part by that experience Richards's definition clearly presents the link between psychology and the study of communication skills.

M. E. Roloff defines interpersonal communication as a symbolic interaction between people rather than between a person and an inanimate object . Mark L. Knapp and John Augustine Daly in their *Handbook of Interpersonal Communication* (2002) state: Interpersonal communication can mean the ability to relate to people in written as well as verbal communication. This type of communication can occur in both a one-on-one and a group setting. This also means being able to handle different people in different situations, and making people feel at ease. Gestures such as eye contact, body movement, and hand gestures are also part of interpersonal communication. The most common functions of interpersonal communication are listening, talking and conflict resolution. Types of interpersonal communication vary from verbal to non-verbal and from situation to situation. Interpersonal communication involves face-to-face communication in a way that accomplishes the purpose and is appropriate .

Stewart & Angelo in their book *Together: Communicating Interpersonally* defines communication in the following manner: Interpersonal communication is a mutual relational, co-constructed process, as opposed to something that one person does "to" someone else

. Foa & Foa's Resource Theory (*Societal Structures of the Mind*, 1974) focuses on the development of cognitive structures in the mind. Behavior is guided by motivational states. People are motivated to engage in certain behaviors whenever quantities of resources fall outside the optimal range. They posit that every interpersonal behavior consists of giving or taking away one or more resources, and that closely allied resources exchanges occur more frequently (i.e. love for love).

Michael Cody defines interpersonal communication as the exchange of symbols used to achieve interpersonal goals . An interpersonal communication focus emphasizes the process of the person interacting rather than the verbal content of the interaction, accentuates behaviours and skills which extend the alternatives available for interpersonal communication. It includes affective as well as cognitive dimensions drawn from the behavioural and other sciences as well as from the humanities. It is concerned about both verbal and nonverbal human messages and responses, and represents an emphasis on the objective investigation of the experience of person-to-person communication.

Models of communication

Models of communication refers to the conceptual model used to explain the human communication process. The first major model for communication came in 1949 by Claude Elwood Shannon and Warren Weaver for Bell Laboratories[1] Following the basic concept, communication is the process of sending and receiving messages or transferring information from one part (sender) to another (receiver).

1. Shannon and Weaver Model of Communication

Shannon was an American mathematician, Electronic engineer and Weaver was an American scientist both of them join together to write an article in "Bell System Technical Journal" called "A Mathematical Theory of Communication" and also called as "Shannon-Weaver model of communication".

This model is specially designed to develop the effective communication between sender and receiver. Also they find factors which affecting the communication process called "Noise". At first the model was developed to improve the Technical communication. Later it's widely applied in the field of Communication.

The model deals with various concepts like Information source, transmitter, Noise, channel, message, receiver, channel, information destination, encode and decode.

SHANNON-WEAVER'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATION
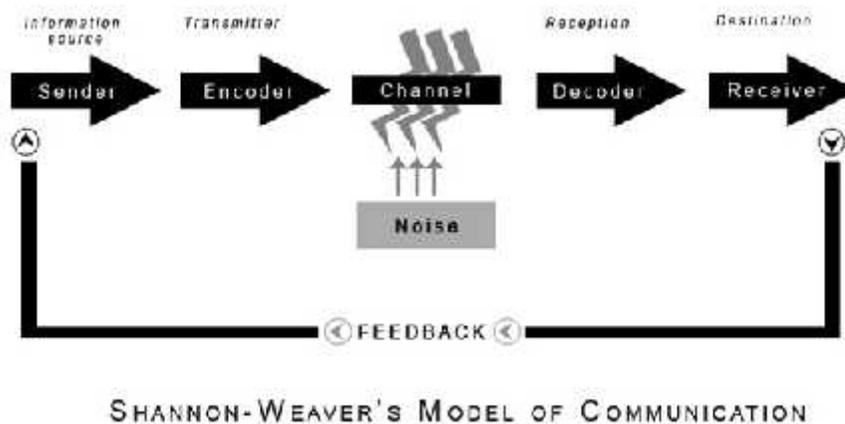
Sender : The originator of message or the information source selects desire message.

Encoder : The transmitter which converts the message into signals.

Note: The sender's messages converted into signals like waves or Binary data which is compactable to transmit the messages through cables or satellites. For example: In telephone the voice is converted into wave signals and it transmits through cables.

Decoder : The reception place of the signal which converts signals into message. A reverse process of encode.

Note : The receiver converts those binary data or waves into message which is comfortable and understandable for receiver. Otherwise receiver can't receive the exact message and it will affect the effective communication between sender and receiver.

Receiver : The destination of the message from sender.

Note : Based on the decoded message the receiver gives their feed back to sender. If the message distracted by noise it will affect the communication flow between sender and receiver.

Noise: The messages are transferred from encoder to decoder through channel. During this process the messages may distracted or affected by physical noise like horn sounds, thunder and crowd

noise or encoded signals may distract in the channel during the transmission process which affect the communication flow or the receiver may not receive the correct message.

Note : The model is clearly deals with external noises only which affect the messages or signals from external sources. For example: If there is any problems occur in network which directly affect the mobile phone communication or distract the messages.

Practical Example of Shannon-Weaver model of communication :

Thomson made call to his assistant "come here I want to see you". During his call, noise appeared (transmission error) and his assistant received "I want" only. Again Assistant asked Thomson (feedback) "what do you want Thomson".

Sender   : Thomson
Encoder   : Telephone (Thomson)
Channel   : Cable
Noise   :   Distraction in voice
Reception : Telephone (Assistant)
Receiver   :   Assistant.
Due to transmission error or noise, Assistant can't able to understand Thomson's messages. The noise which affect the communication flow between them.

Criticism of Shannon-Weaver model of communication :

1. One of the simplest model and its general applied in various communication theories.
2.   The model which attracts both academics of Human communication and Information theorist to leads their further research in communication.
3.   It's more effective in person-to-person communication than group or mass audience.

4. The model based on "Sender and Receiver". Here sender plays the primary role and receiver plays the secondary role (receive the information or passive).

5. Communication is not a one way process. If it's behaved like that, it will lose its strength. For example: Audience or receiver who listening a radio, reading the books or watching television is a one way communication because absence of feedback.
6.   Understanding Noise will helps to solve the various problems in communication.

2.The Newcomb's Model

The New Comb's model of communication was introduced by Theodore M Newcomb of the University of Michigan in 1953. He gives different approach to the communication process. The main purpose of this theory is to introduce the role of communication in a social relationship (society) and to maintain social equilibrium within the social system. He does not include the message as a separate entity in his diagram, implying it only by use of directional arrows. He concentrates on the social purpose of communication, showing all communication as a means of sustaining relationships between people. Sometimes it's called as an "ABX" model of communication.
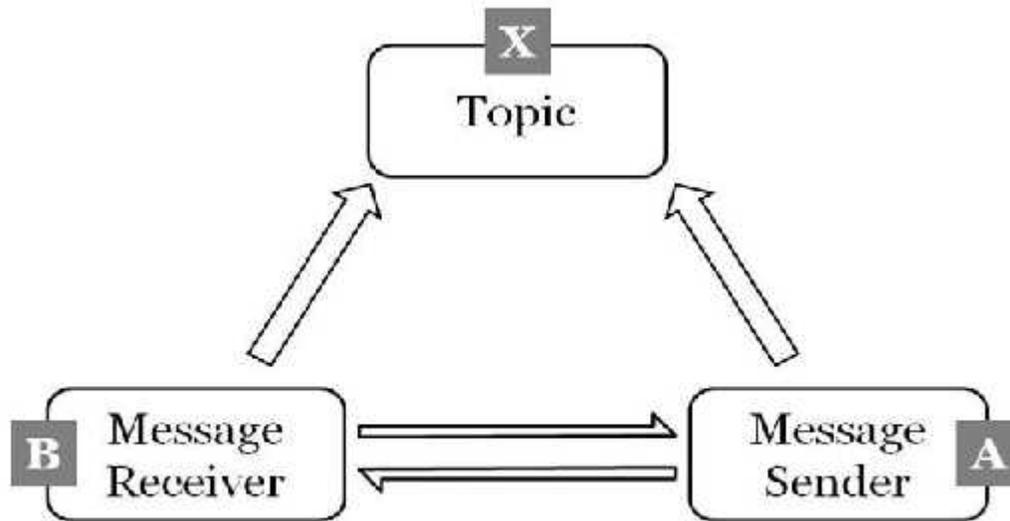
The Newcomb's Model

The Newcomb's model works in a triangular format or A-B-X system

A – Sender

B – Receiver

X – Matter of Concern

The relationship between A and B is like student and teacher, government and public or newspaper and readers. Sender and Receiver may work in a same flow but the same time some factor like "X" may affect their flow of relationship. "X" it may be third persons, issue, topic or policy.

For Example:

Teachers introduce a new policy to increase the college timing from 6 hours to 8 hours.

A – Teachers B – Students X – Policy or issue
If both students and teachers are satisfied with this policy then the communication maintains its equilibrium status between them. Otherwise the flow of communication between "A" and "B" becomes trouble in the social system. If "A" or "B" is not ready to accept the policy then it will directly affect the social system and can't maintain the equilibrium status. So Teachers"A" can convince students "B" as much as possible. Otherwise they have to make some adjustments in the Policy "X" and convince them towards the policy.

3.The Johari Window Model

The Johari window model is used to enhance the individual's perception on others. This model is based on two ideas- trust can be acquired by revealing information about you to others and learning yourselves from their feedbacks. Each person is represented by the Johari model through four quadrants or window pane. Each four window panes signifies personal information, feelings, motivation and whether that information is known or unknown to oneself or others in four viewpoints
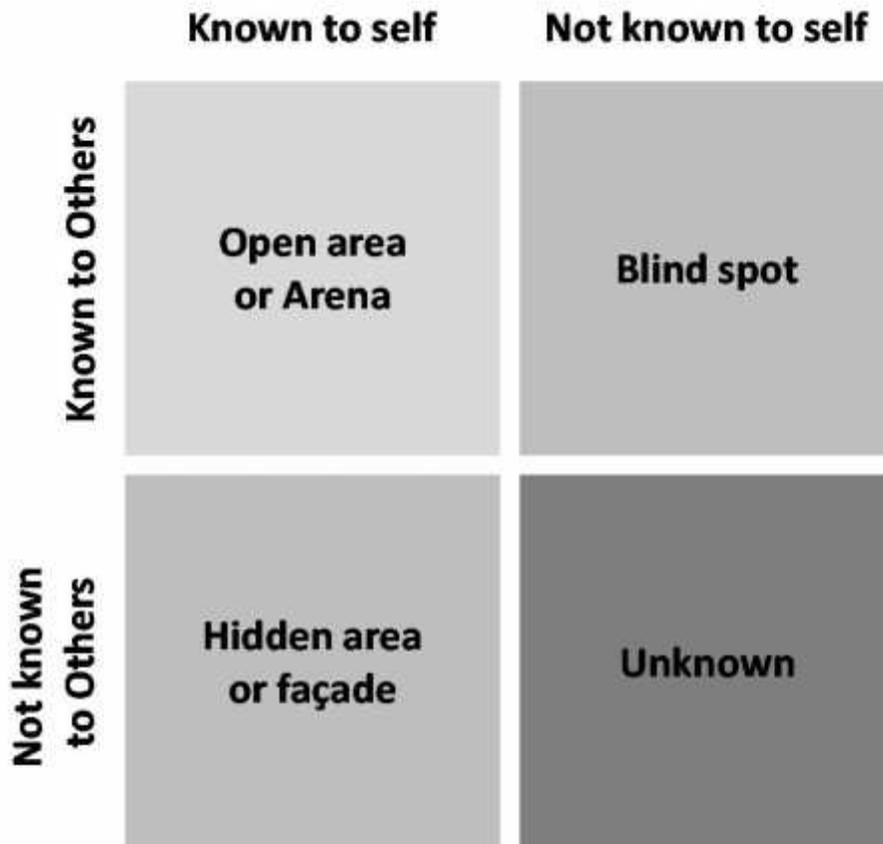
The Johari Window Model

The method of conveying and accepting feedback is interpreted in this model. A Johari is represented as a common window with four panes. Two of these panes represent self and the other two represent the part unknown to self but to others. The information transfers from one pane to the other as the result of mutual trust which can be achieved through socializing and the feedback got from other members of the group.

1. **Open/self-area or arena** - Here the information about the person his attitudes, behaviour, emotions, feelings, skills and views will be known by the person as well as by others. This is mainly the area where all the communications occur and the larger the arena becomes the more effectual and dynamic the relationship will be. 'Feedback solicitation' is a process which occurs by understanding and listening to the feedback from another person. Through this way the open area can be increased horizontally decreasing the blind spot. The size of the arena can also be increased downwards and thus by reducing the hidden and unknown areas through revealing one's feelings to other person.

2. **Blind self or blind spot** – Information about yourselves that others know in a group but you will be unaware of it. Others may interpret yourselves differently than you expect. The blind spot is reduced for an efficient communication through seeking feedback from others.

3. **Hidden area or façade** – Information that is known to you but will be kept unknown from others. This can be any personal information which you feel reluctant to reveal. This includes feelings, past experiences, fears, secrets etc. we keep some of our feelings and information as private as it affects the relationships and thus the hidden area must be reduced by moving the information to the open areas.

4. **Unknown area** - The Information which are unaware to yourselves as well as others. This includes the information, feelings, capabilities, talents etc. This can be due to traumatic past experiences or events which can be unknown for a lifetime. The person will be unaware till he discovers his hidden qualities and capabilities or through observation of others. Open communication is also an effective way to decrease the unknown area and thus to communicate effectively.

Example

Linda got a job in an organization. Her co-workers knew a little about her and in this context the unknown and hidden areas will be larger and the open area will be small. As the others don't know much about her the blind spot also will be smaller and the model will be as shown in Figure 1.
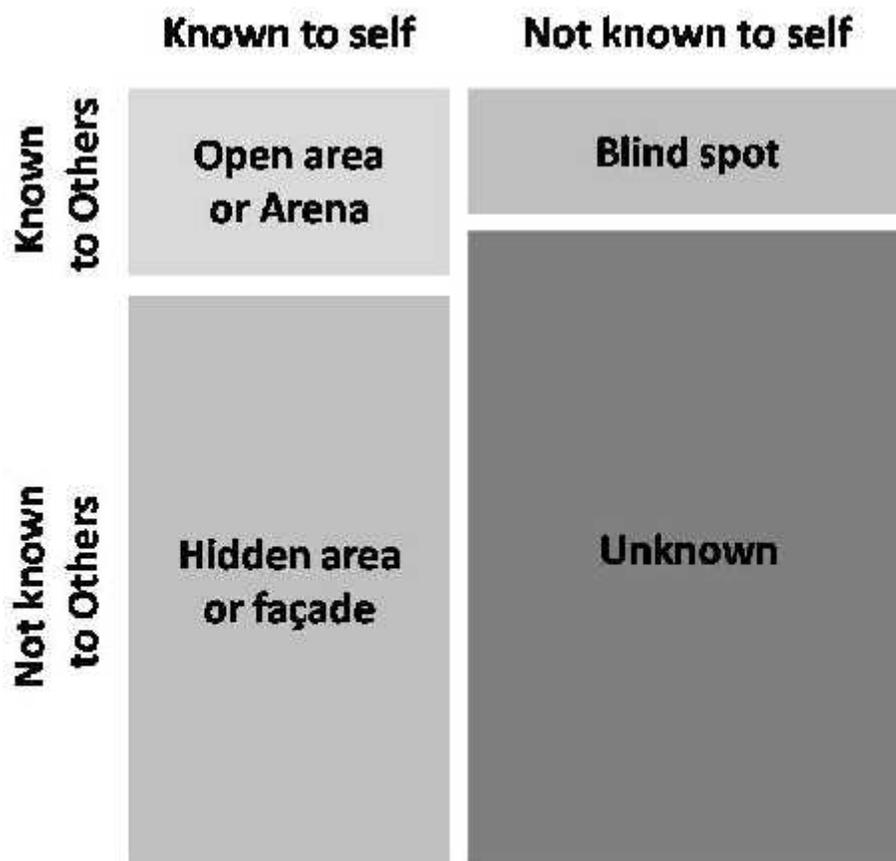

Figure 1

Linda spent most of her free time sketching in the office which was her preferred pastime and her co-workers found her very shy and elusive. With that evaluation she got the idea how she was and tried to be more talkative and interacted more with other co-workers. This helped her to increase her open area and thus making the hidden and unknown areas smaller. (Figure 2)
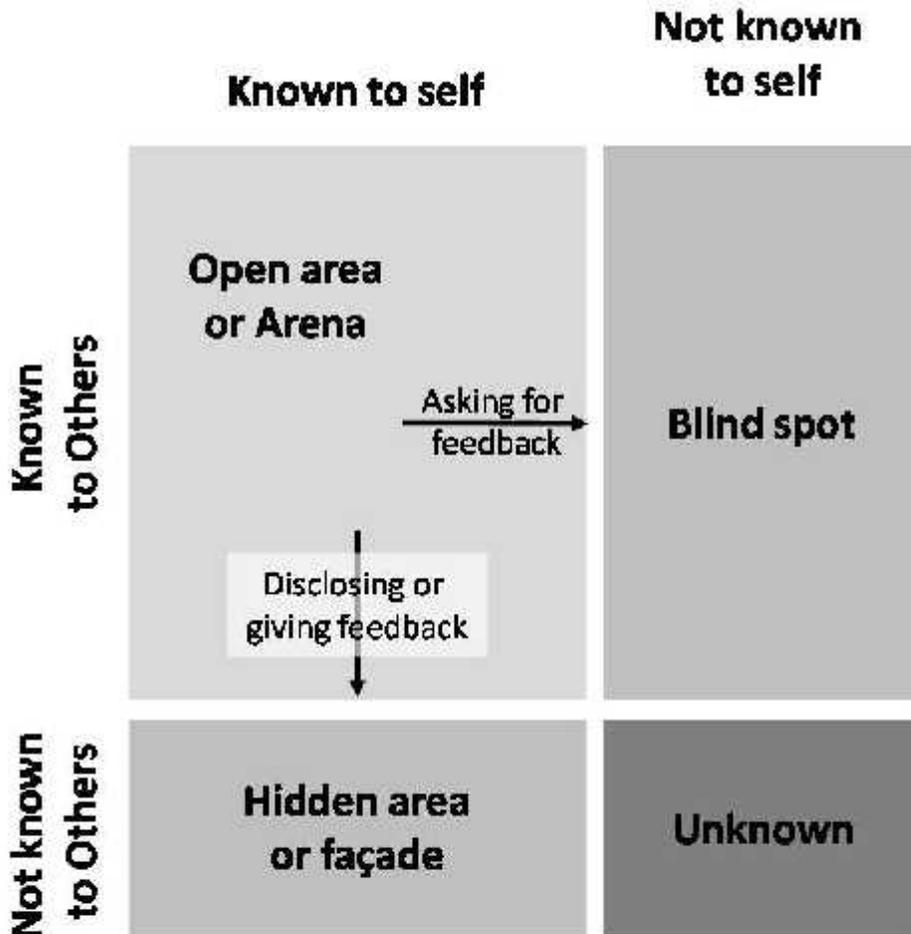

Figure 2

Through the feedback Linda got from her co-workers she could perform well in the office and her real capacity could be obtained as a result of an effective interaction among the colleagues

4. De Fleur Model of Communication

The theory De fleur model of communication is expanded version of Shannon and weaver model of communication. And also based on the "Westley & Maclean model of communication" describes the circular process of communication with feedback from the receiver. Shannon and Weaver model is a one way communication and they explain the role of noise in the communication process. Westley & Maclean model is a two way communication and for first time they introduced the important component called "Linear Feedback" in the communication model. De fleur combine these two models and creates new one called "De Fleur Model of Communication".
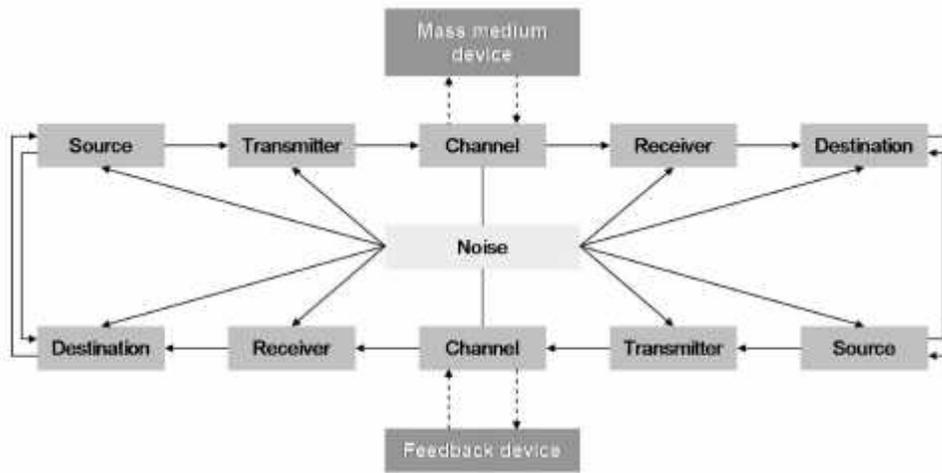
Defleur Model of Mass Communication System

Theory:

De Fleur simply expands the Shannon & weaver model of communication by inserting the Mass Media device and suggested the communication process is circular as well as it gives possible two way feedback. In this whole communication process, noise may occur at any stages. Defleur pictures the source, transmitter, receiver and destination as separate phases of mass communication.

Defleur's another important suggestion in this model is "Feedback Device". This feedback device is helps to analyse the target audience (as separate from the receivers). Here, all these receivers are not considering as a target audience because the target audience will make some kind of feedback which will helps to find the target audience by using feedback device.

One of the important aspect of the communication model is two way communication process which is recommended by Defleur. And also this model is the first one which introduce both two way feedback and targeted audience in the communication process.

Example:

De Fleur's model can be well explained with the help of advertisings. Say let's assume source as the advertising strategy or simply the information about the product which the company intends to tell to its audience. This is then converted into message as ad film and then transmitted by a mass communicating channel. At the other end the receiver (TV set or radio) decodes the information as message and finally it is being transformed to the destination (the target audience). Now comes the feedback aspect. The feedback acts as a message – an information source and the same process continues where the message reaches back the advertising company. (Feedback may happen through emails, social networks).

Through feedback, the company can know whether their intended message has reached the target audience and if not they can modify their message and once again involve in communication process

5. Helical Model of Communication

Frank Dance proposed the communication model called Dance's Helix Model for a better communication process. The name helical comes from "Helix" which means *an object having a three-dimensional shape like that of a wire wound uniformly around a cylinder or cone.* He shows communication as a dynamic and non-linear process.

Theory

Dance's model emphasized the difficulties of communication. Frank Dance uses the form of a Helix to describe communication process. He developed this theory based on a simple helix which gets bigger and bigger as it moves or grows. The main characteristic of helical model of communication is that it is evolutionary.

Helical Model of Communication
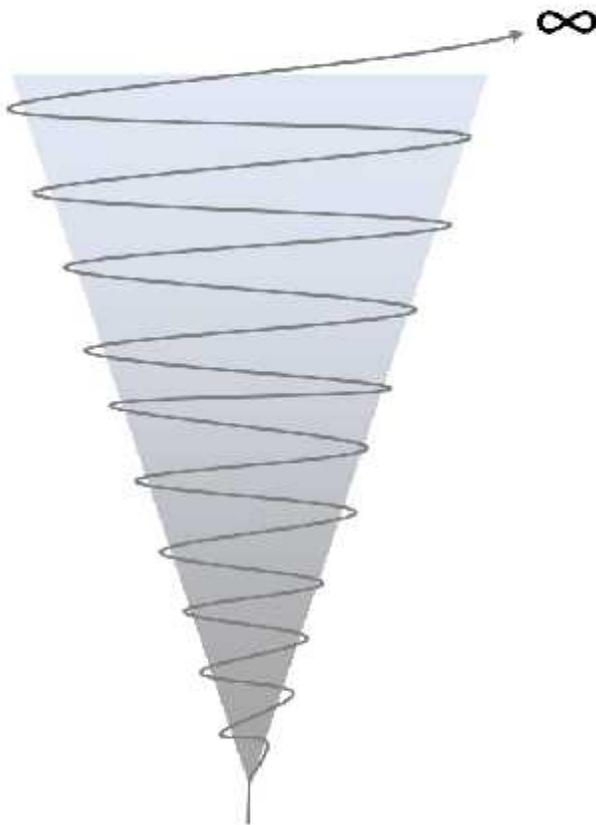
Frank Dance explains the communication process based on this Helix structure and compares it with communication. In the Helix structure, the bottom or starting is very small then it's gradually moves upward in a back and forth circular motion which form the bigger circle in the top and its still moves further. The whole process takes some time to reach. As like helix, the communication process starts very slowly and defined small circle. Communicators share information only with small portion of themselves to their relationships. Its gradually develops into next level but which will take some time to reach and expanding its boundaries to the next level. Later the communicators commit more and share more portions themselves.

Example

When a child is born the only means of communication is crying, he/she cries for everything like hunger, pain, cold etc.. As the child grows the means of communication become wider and broader. He learns to makes noises then he learns language to obtain attention and to fulfil his needs. As a Helix the process of communication in this case started from crying and later it developed into a complex and compound means.

The Helical model of communication is largely dependent on its past. A child learns to pronounce a word in his elementary classes and throughout his life he uses that word in the same way he learnt. Just like that we used to react to certain things in a certain way in our childhood and such reactions and habits lasts with us forever. The communication evolves in the beginning in some simple forms then the same process of communication develops based on the past activities. It develops further with modifications.

Conclusion

Frank Dance included the concept of time in his theory. Something happens over the other will always be based on the first event according to him. This theory of communication was a subject to a number of experimental researches. Even though this model of communication clarifies everything there is a problem of over simplification. According to this theory a communication process is the product of what we learnt.

VERBAL AND NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

Communication occurs when you transmit information to another person. Successful communication occurs when the recipient of the message actually understands what you are trying to tell him and then provides feedback letting you know that he understands the message. We are constantly communicating with each other, both with words and without. Because communication goes beyond the words we say, we often experience problems in our attempts to communicate effectively with others

Verbal Communication

Verbal communication consists of the spoken, as well as the written word. You can effectively express your message by using denotation, the dictionary meaning of a word, and connotation, the feelings associated with a word. Choosing exactly the right word increases the chances of your listener understanding the message you want to send. A common cause of misunderstanding during verbal communication is that our language constantly changes. New words are created and meanings of established words change with the generations and developments in technology Verbal communication encompasses any form of communication involving words, spoken, written or signed. The conversation we have with our coworker at lunch, the morning news or the sports page we read in the morning--even the text message you send to your spouse telling him to pick up some milk is a form of verbal communication. Our ability to communicate with a language that is based on an organized system of words, rather than merely sounds, is what sets us apart from lower species. Not only do we have language, but we also have the technology that enables us to communicate with one another no matter the physical distance

We use verbal communication to inform, whether it is to inform others of our needs or to impart knowledge. Clarification is a key component of verbal communication. Often, we do not articulate ourselves clearly, or our words or actions are misconstrued. Verbal communication helps to clarify misunderstandings and provides missing information.

We can use verbal communication to correct a wrong. The power of the words, "I'm sorry," is often more effective than an action. Verbal communication can also be used as a tool of persuasion. It creates an opportunity for debate, stimulates thought and creativity, and deepens and creates new relationships. Robert M. Krauss in the article, "The Psychology of Verbal Communication," published in the International Encyclopedia of the Social and Behavioral Sciences in 2002, explains, "A species' survival depends critically upon its ability to communicate effectively, and the quality of its social life is determined in large measure by how and what it can communicate." Verbal communication is the use of oral, unwritten words and is an essential part of interacting with others. Communication is what builds relationships, whether those relationships are personal or business. Being able to communicate effectively is what connects individuals to others. When communication fails or breaks down, relationships suffer. For this reason, it's important to be aware of the many advantages verbal communication offers

Non-Verbal Communication

Non-verbal communication can complement or contradict the spoken message. The tone and inflection of the speaker's voice can emphasize the point, show conflict between what is spoken and what is meant, and reinforce the emotion of the message. Body language, such as eye contact and posture, can show interest or disinterest, welcome or warn, and reveal your level of confidence. Your appearance also communicates a message to listeners. If your attire or accessories are loud and distracting, they may take away from the effectiveness of your message. Likewise, dressing appropriately and neatly adds to your credibility as a speaker.

There is no doubt that non-verbal communication is the single most powerful form of communication. It is way more important than the actual content itself which is the words itself. One of the most popular psychology study done by a psychology professor from UCLA - Albert Mehrabian.

His study revealed that verbal communication take into account of only 7% of impact to your overall communication. The rest 93% is coming from non verbal communication with 55% of body language and 38% of tonality. This is also known as 7-38-55 rule.
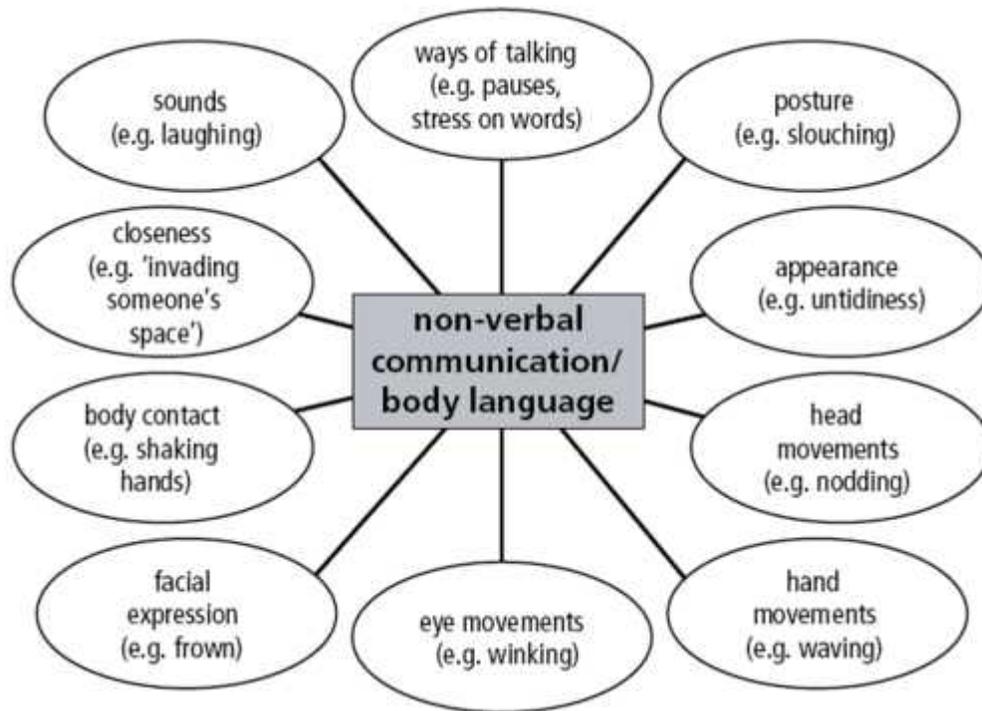
The best communicators are sensitive to the power of emotions and thoughts communicated nonverbally. This is why it is very crucial to be able to read the non-verbal cues given to you from your the person you are interacting with.

For effective and meaningful communication about emotions, these three parts of the message need to support each other - they have to be "congruent". In case of any incongruence, the receiver of the message might be irritated by two messages coming from two different channels, giving cues in two different directions.

In a social interaction, don't just listen to what the other party has to say, instead observe their actions. Understanding non verbal communication improves with practice just like any other skill in life. And the first step in practice is to recognize the power of non-verbal communication.

According to experts, a substantial portion of our communication is nonverbal. Every day, we respond to thousands on nonverbal cues and behaviors including postures, facial expression, eye gaze, gestures, and tone of voice. From our handshakes to our hairstyles, nonverbal details reveal who we are and impact how we relate to other people.

Scientific research on nonverbal communication and behavior began with the 1872 publication of Charles Darwin's *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals*. Since that time, there has been an abundance of research on the types, effects and expressions of unspoken communication and behavior. While these signals are often so subtle that we are not consciously aware of them, research has identified several different types of nonverbal communication.

In many cases, we communicate information in nonverbal ways using groups of behaviors. For example, we might combine a frown with crossed arms and unblinking eye gaze to indicate disapproval.

1. Facial Expression

Facial expressions are responsible for a huge proportion of nonverbal communication. Consider how much information can be conveyed with a smile or a frown. While nonverbal communication and behavior can vary dramatically between cultures, the facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger and fear are similar throughout the world.

2. Gestures

Deliberate movements and signals are an important way to communicate meaning without words. Common gestures include waving, pointing, and using fingers to indicate numeric amounts. Other gestures are arbitrary and related to culture.

3. Para linguistics

Para linguistics refers to vocal communication that is separate from actual language. This includes factors such as tone of voice, loudness, inflection and pitch. Consider the powerful effect that tone of voice can have on the meaning of a sentence. When said in a strong tone of voice, listeners might interpret approval and enthusiasm. The same words said in a hesitant tone of voice might convey disapproval and a lack of interest.

4. Body Language and Posture

Posture and movement can also convey a great deal on information. Research on body language has grown significantly since the 1970's, but popular media have focused on the over-interpretation of defensive postures, arm-crossing, and leg-crossing, especially after the publication of Julius Fast's book *Body Language*. While these nonverbal behaviors can indicate feelings and attitudes, research suggests that body language is far more subtle and less definitive that previously believed.

5. Proxemics

People often refer to their need for "personal space," which is also an important type of nonverbal communication. The amount of distance we need and the amount of space we perceive as belonging to us is influenced by a number of factors including social norms, situational factors, personality characteristics and level of familiarity. For example, the amount of personal space needed when having a casual conversation with another person usually varies between 18 inches to four feet. On the other hand, the personal distance needed when speaking to a crowd of people is around 10 to 12 feet.

6. Eye Gaze

Looking, staring and blinking can also be important nonverbal behaviors. When people encounter people or things that they like, the rate of blinking increases and pupils dilate. Looking at another person can indicate a range of emotions, including hostility, interest and attraction.

7. Hapatics

Communicating through touch is another important nonverbal behavior. There has been a substantial amount of research on the importance of touch in infancy and early childhood. Harry Harlow's classic monkey study demonstrated how the deprivation of touch and contact impedes

development. Baby monkeys raised by wire mothers experienced permanent deficits in behavior and social interaction. Touch can be used to communicate affection, familiarity, sympathy and other emotions.

8. Appearance

Our choice of color, clothing, hairstyles and other factors affecting appearance are also considered a means of nonverbal communication. Research on color psychology has demonstrated that different colors can evoke different moods. Appearance can also alter physiological reactions, judgments and interpretations. Just think of all the subtle judgments you quickly make about someone based on his or her appearance. These first impressions are important, which is why experts suggest that job seekers dress appropriately for interviews with potential employers.

9. Vocal Cues

Nonverbal communication includes some sounds, as long as they are not words. We call them **paralinguistic features**—the nonword sounds and nonword characteristics of language, such as pitch, volume, rate, and quality. The prefix *para* means "alongside" or "parallel to," so *paralinguistic* means "alongside the words or language."

The paralinguistic feature examined here is **vocal cues**—all of the oral aspects of sound except words themselves. Vocal cues include

• **Pitch:** the highness or lowness of your voice.
• **Rate:** how rapidly or slowly you speak.
• **Inflection:** the variety or changes in pitch.
• **Volume:** the loudness or softness of your voice.
• **Quality:** the unique resonance of your voice, such as huskiness, nasality, raspiness, or whininess.
• **Nonword sounds:** "mmh," "huh," "ahh," and the like, as well as pauses or the absence of sound used for effect in speaking.
• **Pronunciation:** whether or not you say a word correctly.
• **Articulation:** whether or not your mouth, tongue, and teeth coordinate to make a word understandable to others (such as a lisp).
• **Enunciation:** whether or not you combine pronunciation and articulation to produce a word with clarity and distinction so that it can be understood. A person who mumbles has an enunciation problem.
• **Silence:** the lack of sound.
   These vocal cues are important because they are linked in our minds with a speaker's physical characteristics, emotional state, personality characteristics, gender characteristics, and even credibility. In addition, vocal cues, alone, have a persuasive effect for people when they are as young as 12 months (Vaish & Striano, 2004). According to Kramer (1963), vocal cues frequently convey information about the speaker's characteristics, such as age, height, appearance, and body type. For example, people often associate a high-pitched voice with someone who is female, younger, and/ or smaller. You may visualize someone who uses a loud voice as being big or someone who speaks quickly as being nervous. People who tend to speak slowly and deliberately may be perceived as being high-status individuals or as having high credibility.

A number of studies have related emotional states to specific c vocal cues. Joy and hate appear to be the most accurately communicated emotions, whereas shame and love are among the most difficult to communicate accurately (Laukka, Juslin, & Bresin, 2005; Planalp, 1996). Joy and hate appear to be conveyed by fewer vocal cues, and this makes them less difficult to interpret than emotions such as shame and love, which are conveyed by complex sets of vocal cues. "Active" feelings such as joy and hate are associated with a loud voice, a high pitch, and a rapid rate. Conversely, "passive" feelings, which include affection and sadness, are communicated with a soft voice, a low pitch, and a relatively slow rate (Kramer, 1963).

Personality characteristics also have been related to vocal cues. Dominance, social adjustment, and sociability have been clearly correlated with specific vocal cues (Bateson, Jackson, Haley, & Weakland, 1956). Irony, on the other hand, cannot be determined on the basis of vocal cues alone (Bryant & Tree, 2005). Although the personality characteristics attributed to individuals displaying particular vocal cues have not been shown to accurately portray the person, as determined by standardized personality tests, our impressions affect our interactions. In other words, although you may perceive loud-voiced, high-pitched, fast-speaking individuals as dominant, they might not be measured as dominant by a personality inventory. Nonetheless, in your interactions with such people, you may become increasingly submissive because of your perception that they are dominant. In addition, these people may begin to become more dominant because they are treated as though they have this personality characteristic

Why do we study nonverbal communication?

Nonverbal messages communicate emotions
As we pointed out, it forms the bulk of our communication. Most of that communication is about emotional information, which in turn is a powerful motivator in human behavior. We base our feelings and emotional responses not so much upon what another person *says*, but upon what another person *does*.

Nonverbal messages are seen as more reliable

Old folk saying: actions speak louder than words. Research bears this out. When verbal and nonverbal contradict, we tend to believe the nonverbal. For one thing, it is seen as being more difficult to fake. An experiment reported by Zuckerman, DePaulo, and Rosenthal ["Verbal and Nonverbal Communication of Deception," *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology* 14 (1981): 1-59] showed that virtually everything we use to discern if someone else is lying comes from the nonverbal realm or the paralanguage realm, with the bulk falling in nonverbal.

Because of nonverbal communication, you cannot *not* communicate

The very attempt to mask one's communication communicates something in and of itself. If you are playing poker with someone who has been talking normally, but who suddenly stops talking and goes "stone-faced," that person has communicated something. It may be a very good hand, or a very bad hand, but at the least the poker player has communicated a desire to hide what is there. Long periods of silence at the supper table communicate as clearly as any words that something may be wrong.

Nonverbal communication is strongly related to verbal communication Nonverbal cues substitute for, contradict, emphasize, or regulate verbal messages. For instance, if someone asks us which way the restroom is, we may simply point down the hall. We may compliment someone's new haircut while our faces give away the real feeling of dismay we have. We may describe a fish we caught with a motion of our hands to emphasize the monster-like proportions. And most certainly we regulate the flow of conversation nonverbally by raising an index finger, nodding and leaning forward, raising eyebrows, and/or changing eye contact.

Problems of studying nonverbal communication

Studying nonverbal communication presents a whole range of challenges that are unique to its nature. They include:

1. Nonverbal cues can be ambiguous

No dictionary can accurately classify them. Their meaning varies not only by culture and context, but by degree of intention, i.e., you may not be intending to communicate (in the absence of nerve disorders, people seldom talk out loud when they don't intend to). A random gesture may be assumed to have meaning when none at all was intended. Plus, some people who may feel emotion strongly nevertheless find that their bodies simply do not respond appropriately, i.e., someone who is feeling happy may not necessarily smile.

2. Nonverbal cues are continuous

This is practically related to the last point. It is possible to stop talking, but it is generally not possible to stop nonverbal cues. Also, spoken language has a structure that makes it easier to tell when a subject has changed, for instance, or to analyze its grammar. Nonverbal does not lend itself to this kind of analysis.

3. Nonverbal cues are multichannel

While watching someone's eyes, you may miss something significant in a hand gesture. Everything is happening at once, and therefore it may be confusing to try to keep up with everything. Most of us simply do not do so, at least not consciously. This has both advantages and disadvantages. Because we interpret nonverbal cues subconsciously and in a "right-brained", holistic fashion, it can happen quickly and fairly accurately. However, because it is not conscious and more "right-brained" it is difficult to put one's finger on exactly *why* one got a certain impression from someone, or even to put it into "left-brained" wording.

4. Nonverbal cues are culture-bound

Evidence suggests that humans of all cultures smile when happy and frown when unhappy [M. Argyle, *Bodily Communication* (New York: Methuen & Company, 1988)]. A few other gestures seem to be universal. However, most nonverbal symbols seem to be even further disconnected from any "essential meaning" than verbal symbols. Gestures seen as positive in one culture (like the thumbs-up gesture in the USA) may be seen as obscene in another culture.

How are Verbal and Nonverbal Communication Related?

Both verbal and nonverbal communication are essential for effective interactions with others. How are the two related? Nonverbal communication works in conjunction with the words that we utter

in six ways: to repeat, to emphasize, to complement, to contradict, to substitute, and to regulate. Let us consider each of these briefly.

Repeating occurs when the same message is sent verbally and nonverbally. For example, you frown at the PowerPoint presentation while you ask the speaker what he means. Or you direct a passing motorist by pointing at the next street corner and explaining where she should turn.

Emphasizing is the use of nonverbal cues to strengthen your message. Hugging a friend and telling him that you really care about him is a stronger statement than using either words or bodily movement alone.

Complementing is different from repetition in that it goes beyond duplication of the message in two channels. It is also not a substitution of one channel for the other. The verbal and nonverbal codes add meaning to each other and expand the meaning of either message alone. Your tone of voice, your gestures, and your bodily movement can all indicate your feeling, which goes beyond your verbal message.

Contradicting occurs when your verbal and nonverbal messages conflict. Often this occurs accidentally. If you have ever been angry at a teacher or parent, you may have stated verbally that you were fine—but your bodily movements, facial expression, and use of space may have "leaked" your actual feelings. Contradiction occurs intentionally in humour and sarcasm. Your words provide one message, but your nonverbal delivery tells how you really feel.

Substituting occurs when nonverbal codes are used instead of verbal codes. You roll your eyes, you stick out your tongue, you gesture thumbs down, or you shrug. In most cases your intended message is fairly clear.

Regulating occurs when nonverbal codes are used to monitor and control interactions with others. For example, you look away when someone else is trying to talk and you are not finished with your thought. You walk away from someone who has hurt your feelings or made you angry. You shake your head and encourage another person to continue talking. While verbal and nonverbal codes often work in concert, they also exhibit differences that we will consider next.

Language and Social Interaction

Language is the carrier of a vast amount of what we call culture. Knowledge of the past, techniques of science and of food-getting, taboos and social rituals, all are carried in language, or at least have language counterparts, as is particularly clear in the case of material culture. From the point of view of social psychology, language is important, first as it relates to communication, and second as it functions in the socialization of the individual, that is, in the development of his personality. Moreover, it carries for the person the social definitions of situations, the world of discourse, and the whole range of culture content which impinges upon him. It is the medium of interaction without which social life could not develop, without which the individual could not become intelligent. It is now our purpose to trace the evolution of speech and to discuss the psychology of speech development.

<u>Barriers to Communication</u>

Communication plays a major role in developing a relationship. It can also affect the relationship among family members or management in any institute. More specifically, communication influences the effectiveness of instruction, performance evaluation, and the handling of discipline problems. Communication should be straightforward. What can make it complex, difficult, and frustrating are the barriers. Effective communication requires messages to be conveyed clearly between communicators, but along the way there are many communication barriers that can create misunderstandings and misinterpretations of your message. Successful communication requires knowing what barriers to communication exist and how to navigate around these roadblocks.

Here is a list of some barriers to communication you should be aware of: Some barriers of communication are the following.

.1**. Physiological Barrier**

Physiological barriers to communication are related with the limitations of the human body and the human mind (memory, attention, and perception). Physiological barriers may result from individuals' personal discomfort, caused by ill-health, poor eye sight, or hearing difficulties.

a. Poor Listening Skills

Listening to others is considered a difficult task. A typical speaker says about 125 words per minute. The typical listener can receive 400–600 words per minute. Thus, about three-fourth of listening time is free time. The free time often sidetracks the listener. The solution is to be an active rather than passive listener. A listener's premature frown, shaking of the head, or bored look can easily convince the other person/speaker that there is no reason to elaborate or try again to communicate his/her excellent idea.

b.. Information Overload

Nurses are surrounded with a pool of information. It is essential to control the flow of the information, else the information is likely to be misinterpreted or forgotten or overlooked. As a result, communication may get distorted.

c.. Inattention

At times, we just do not listen but only hear. For example, your boss is immersed in his/her very important paper work surrounded by so many files on the table and you are explaining him/her about an urgent office problem. In this situation, due to the inattention, the boss will not listen to you (he/she will only hear you); hence, he/she may not get what you are saying and it may lead to disappointment.

d. Emotions

The emotional state of a person at a particular point of time affects his/her communication with others as it has an impact on the body language (nonverbal communication). If the receiver feels that the sender is angry (emotional state), he/she can easily infer that the information being obtained will be very terrible. Emotional state causes some physiological changes in our body that may affect the pronunciation, pressure of the speech, and tone of the voice of the sender as well as the

perception, thinking process, and information interpretation of the receiver during verbal communication.

e. Poor Retention

Human memory cannot function beyond a limit. One cannot always retain all the facts/information about what is being told to him/her especially if he/she is not interested or not attentive. This leads to communication breakdown.

.2. Physical and Environmental Distractions

Physical distractions are the physical things that get in the way of communication. Examples of such things include the telephone, an uncomfortable meeting place, and noise. These physical distractions are common in the hospital setting. If the telephone rings, the usual human tendency will be to answer it even if the caller is interrupting a very important or even delicate conversation. Distractions such as background noise, poor lighting, uncomfortable sitting, unhygienic room, or an environment that is too hot or cold can affect people's morale and concentration, which in turn interfere with effective communication.

.3. Psychological Barrier

Psychological factors such as misperception, filtering, distrust, unhappy emotions, and people's state of mind can jeopardize the process of communication. We all tend to feel happier and more receptive to information when the sun shines. Similarly, if someone has personal problems such as worries and stress about a chronic illness, it may impinge his/her communication with others.

.4. Social Barriers

Social barriers to communication include the social psychological phenomenon of conformity, a process in which the norms, values, and behaviors of an individual begin to follow those of the wider group. Social factors such as age, gender, socioeconomic status, and marital status may act as a barrier to communication in certain situations.

5. Cultural Barriers

Culture shapes the way we think and behave. It can be seen as both shaping and being shaped by our established patterns of communication. Cultural barrier to communication often arises when individuals in one social group have developed different norms, values, or behaviors to individuals associated with another group. Cultural difference leads to difference in interest, knowledge, value, and tradition. Therefore, people of different cultures will experience these culture factors as a barrier to communicate with each other.

.6. Semantic Barrier

Language, jargon, slang, etc., are some of the semantic barriers. Different languages across different regions represent a national barrier to communication, which is particularly important for migrating nurses. Use of jargon and slang also act as barrier to communication. For example, while delivering health education to a cardiac patient, if a cardiac nurse uses jargons such as "coronary artery disease," "anticoagulants," and "homocysteine and C-reactive proteins," the patient will listen attentively as he/she cannot understand these medical jargons. Therefore, she is required to use

simple words "heart ki nadi ki bimari," "khoon patla karne ki dawai," and "certain chemicals in our body" so that the patient can understand what the nurse is supposed to communicate with him/her.

7. Linguistic Barriers

Individual linguistic ability may sometimes become a barrier to communication. The use of difficult or inappropriate words in communication can prevent the people from understanding the message. Poorly explained or misunderstood messages can also result in confusion. The linguistic differences between the people can also lead to communication breakdown. The same word may mean differently to different individuals. For example, consider a word "face."

- He is facing a problem
- What is the face value of this share bond?
- Your face is oval shape

"Face" means differently in different sentences. Communication breakdown occurs if there is wrong perception of the meaning of the message by the receiver.

8. Past Experience

If someone has awful experiences in the past related to some particular situation, then he/she will try to avoid communication in that situation. For example, a staff nurse who, while providing detailed information regarding the patient care at the time of routine clinical round to her boss, is always facing negative body language and discouraging words from her boss will ultimately limit her communication to the boss at that time.

9. Organizational Barriers

Unclear planning, structure, information overload, timing, technology, and status difference are the organizational factors that may act as barriers to communication.

a. Technological Failure

Message not delivered due to technical failure (e.g., receiver was not in mobile network area and the sender has not activated delivery report in message setting).

b. Time Pressures

Often, in organization the targets have to be achieved within a specified time period, the failure of which may have adverse consequences for the employee. In a haste to meet deadlines, usually an employee tries to shorten the formal channels of communication that can lead to confusion and misunderstanding among the various levels of supervisors, hence leading distorted communication. Therefore, sufficient time should be given for effective communication.

c. Complexity in Organizational Structure

Greater the hierarchy in an organization (i.e., the more the number of managerial levels), more are the chances of communication getting destroyed. Only the people at the top level can see the overall picture while the people at low level just have a knowledge about their own area and a little knowledge about other areas of the organization.

10. Barriers Related with the Message

a. Unclear Messages

Effective communication starts with a clear message. Unclear messages in terms of meaning, grammar, and words may act as a barrier to communication because the receiver may not be able to intercept the actual meaning of the message.

b. Stereotypes

Stereotypes are beliefs or generalizations about characteristics or qualities that are felt to be typical of a particular group (Funk & Wagnalls, 1966). Stereotyping is a barrier to communication because people with stereotype thoughts either will not read the message completely or will not read it at all because of their thinking that they already know everything

.c. Inappropriate Channel

Variation of channels helps the receiver understand the nature and importance of a message. While making a choice for a channel of communication, the sender needs to be sensitive to such things as the complexity of the message; consequences of a misunderstanding; knowledge, skills, and abilities of the receiver; and immediacy of action to be taken from the message.

d.. Lack of Feedback

Feedback is the mirror of communication. Feedback mirrors what the sender has sent. Without feedback, communication cannot be considered complete. Both the sender and the receiver can play an active role in using feedback to make communication truly two-way.

11. Some Other Blocks to Communication

- Failure to listen: Communicator may or may not feel able to speak freely to the listener, if the listener is not listening carefully or not responding.
- Conflicting verbal and nonverbal messages.
- Failure to interpret with knowledge.
- Changing the subject: A quick way to stop conversation is to change the subject.
- Inappropriate comments and questions: Certain types of comments and questions should be avoided in most situations because they tend to impede effective communication, e.g., close-ended questions and using comments that give advice.

Interpersonal attraction

Interpersonal attraction is the attraction between people which leads to friendships and romantic relationships. Interpersonal attraction, the process, is distinct from perceptions of physical attractiveness which involves views of what is and is not considered beautiful or attractive.

The study of interpersonal attraction is a major area of research in social psychology. Interpersonal attraction is related to how much we like, dislike, or hate someone. It can be viewed as force acting between two people that tends to draw them together and resist their separation. When measuring interpersonal attraction, one must refer to the qualities of the attracted as well as the qualities of the attractor to achieve predictive accuracy. It is suggested that to determine attraction, personality and situation must be taken into account. Repulsion is also a factor in the

process of interpersonal attraction, one's conception of "attraction" to another can vary from extreme attraction to extreme repulsion.

Both personal characteristics and environment play a role in interpersonal attraction. A major determinant of attraction is propinquity, or physical proximity. People who come into contact regularly and have no prior negative feelings about each other generally become attracted to each other as their degree of mutual familiarity and comfort level increases. The situation in which people first meet also determines how they will feel about each other. One is more likely to feel friendly toward a person first encountered in pleasant, comfortable circumstances.

People are generally drawn to each other when they perceive similarities with each other. The more attitudes and opinions two people share, the greater the probability that they will like each other. It has also been shown that disagreement on important issues decreases attraction. One of the most important shared attitudes is that liking and disliking the same people creates an especially strong bond between two individuals. The connection between interpersonal attraction and similar attitudes is complex because once two people become friends, they begin to influence each other's attitudes.

Determinants of interpersonal attraction

1. **Physical attraction**

    Physical attractiveness is the degree to which a person's physical traits are considered aesthetically pleasing or beautiful. The term often implies sexual attractiveness or desirability, but can also be distinct from the two; for example, adults may regard children as attractive for various reasons. There are many factors which influence one person's attraction to another, with physical aspects being one of them. Physical attraction itself includes universal perceptions common to all human cultures, as well as aspects that are culturally and socially dependent, along with individual subjective preferences

We would like to believe that beauty is only skin deep, and therefore, a trivial determinant of liking. Indeed, when asked what they looked for in a potential date, most people put physical attractiveness at the bottom of their list. Elaine Hatfield randomly matched incoming students at the University of Minnesota for a blind date. The students previously had been given a battery of personality tests. Intelligence, masculinity, femininity, dominance, submission, dependence, independence, sensitivity and sincerity had little effect on liking. The one determinant of whether or not a couple liked each other and actually repeated their date was their physical attractiveness.

2. **Proximity**

    In social psychology, **propinquity** (from Latin *propinquities*, "nearness") is one of the main factors leading to interpersonal attraction. It refers to the physical or psychological proximity between people. Propinquity can mean physical proximity, a kinship between people, or a similarity in nature between things ("like-attracts-like"). Two people living on the same floor of a building, for example, have a higher propinquity than those living on different floors, just as two people with similar political beliefs possess a higher propinquity than those whose beliefs strongly differ

    People who become friends are those who have the greatest opportunity to interact. Proximity allows you to get to know the other person better, thereby predicting their behavior better. Because of this they seem less frightening than strangers. "Mere exposure" to others leads to positive feelings about them. Exposure increases attraction when the initial interaction is favorable or neutral. Mere Exposure Effect (Zajonc, 1968): familiarity The experiment about the relations between attraction and exposure of picture shows the degree that the subject was exposed affects the increase of attraction.

3. Similarity

A popular myth about attraction is that "Opposites attract;" however, a number of studies suggest that, in fact, it is similar characteristics that lead to attraction. To test this hypothesis, Donn Byrne conducted a study to investigate the relationship between interpersonal attraction and attitude similarity. In this experiment, participants' attitudes were recorded on a variety of issues that ranged from those they thought were extremely important (e.g., integration, God, premarital sex relations) to those considered be of minor importance (e.g., western movies and television programs). Afterward, subjects evaluated a fictional character based on given information of that character's attitudes. Subjects indicated significantly more positive feelings toward the "stranger" when there were attitude similarities, rating that person higher in intelligence, morality, and adjustment than characters with dissimilar attitude scales (Byrne, 1961). However, this finding is often criticized for its failure to satisfy external validity, since there was no actual human interaction. In response to such criticisms, Griffitt and Veitch conducted a study where thirteen unacquainted males lived together for ten days under simulated fall-out shelter conditions. Result indicated a positive correlation between attraction and attitude similarity, even when a participant's attitude was neither explicitly nor implicitly informed by the investigators (Griffitt & Veitch, 1974). The similarity hypothesis is further supported by several well-validated studies (e.g., Feingold, 1988), which indicate a strong correlation between married couples and similarities in education and socioeconomic status, but also equal levels of physical attractiveness (Murstein & Christy, 1976; Feingold, 1988).

Evidence suggests we are attracted to people who are similar to ourselves. Attraction to persons very similar to yourself allows you to validate yourself as being worthy of being liked. Matching hypothesis - predicts that although you may be attracted to the most physically attractive people, you will date and mate with people who are similar to yourself in physical attractiveness.

Attitudinal similarity is especially important due to cognitive consistency. Attitude similarity, especially significant in initial attraction, seems to predict relationship success. If you have favourable attitudes toward certain objects and discover that another person has favourable attitudes toward those objects, your   cognitions will be consistent if you like that person. Similar others reinforce this opinion. We expect that similar others will approve of us - we prefer to develop friendships with those we think will evaluate us favorably. Prestige, money, power, intelligence, and various personality characteristics may compensate for a lack of physical attractiveness. The more intellectually similar people are, the more they are alike in the way they see the world and the greater their interpersonal mutual attraction.

Complementarity's an "opposites attract"; people are attracted to dissimilar others only in certain situations. Winch (1958) proposed the complementarity hypothesis, the idea that opposites attract. The research evidence is mixed at best. Generally, similarity seems a much more potent determinant of attraction than complementarity.

4. Competence

We might think that, all other things being equal, the more competent an individual is, the more we will like them. We stand a better chance of being right if we surround ourselves with highly able, highly competent people. However, studies suggest that, in problem-solving groups, the participants who are considered the most competent and to have the best ideas tend not to be the ones who are best liked. It could be that a person who has a great deal of ability makes us feel uncomfortable - the person may seem unapproachable, distant, superhuman.

There was a study done in which there were four experimental conditions. It had a person of superior ability who bungled (spilled coffee on himself); a superior person who did not bungle; a person of average ability who bungled; an average person who did not bungle. The superior person who committed a blunder was the most popular; next was the perfect person who did not blunder; then the average person who did not blunder; last was the average person who blundered. Hence, while a high degree of competence does make us appear more attractive, some evidence of fallibility increases our attractiveness still further.

5. Reciprocation

The single most powerful determinant of whether one person will like another is whether the other likes that person. Work by Hallinan and others show that when choices are not reciprocated, friendships fade. Two subjects met with each other. Researchers led some subjects to believe that the other subject liked them while others were led to believe they were disliked. In a subsequent interaction, those individuals who thought they were liked behaved in more likable ways. Moreover, subjects who believed they were liked were, in fact, liked by the other subject, while those who believed they were disliked were not liked by the other subject. Partners tended to mirror the behavior of the subjects with whom they were paired.

Theories of interpersonal attraction

1. Social exchange theory

Based on an economic model of profits and losses; claims that you develop relationships that enable you to maximize your profits.
Rewards – Costs = Profits
How people feel about their relationships depends on their perception of the rewards they receive from the relationship (e.g., praise) and the costs they incur (e.g., time, money, etc). When the costs are larger then rewards, people leave the relationships. When rewards equal or surpass the comparison level, you feel satisfied with the relationship
When people compute costs and rewards, they do not compute simply. They consider comparison levels. Comparison level is your realistic expectations of what you feel you deserve from a relationship. You also have a comparison level for alternatives that you compare your profits from current relationships with the ones you think you can get from alternative relationships.

2. Equity theory

Similar to social exchange but goes a step further - claims that you develop and maintain relationships in which your ration of rewards to costs is approximately equal to your partner's. People are happiest with relationships in which the rewards and costs a person experiences and contributions he or she makes to the relationship are toughly equal to the rewards, costs, and contributions of the other person. When they feel their relationships are not fair, people try to balance the relationship to be fair. Inequity leads to dissatisfaction.
Equitable Relationship

$$\frac{\text{Output of A}}{\text{Input of A}} = \frac{\text{Output of B}}{\text{Input of B}}$$

Different culture and gender feels differently about equity and need. In much of Europe, equity is unrelated to satisfaction while in the U.S. it is highly correlated. Women are more likely to engage in extramarital affairs when they perceive their relationships are inequitable

3.Evolutionary theories

The evolutionary theory of human interpersonal attraction states that opposite-sex attraction most often occurs when someone has physical features indicating that he or she is very fertile. Considering that one primary purpose of conjugal/romantic relationships is reproduction, it would follow that people invest in partners who appear very fertile, increasing the chance of their genes being passed down to the next generation. This theory has been criticized because it does not explain relationships between same-sex couples or couples who do not want children, although this may have something to do with the fact that whether one wants children or not one is still subject to the evolutionary forces which produce them.

Another evolutionary explanation suggests that fertility in a mate is of greater importance to men than to women. According to this theory, a woman places significant emphasis on a man's ability to provide resources and protection. The theory suggests that these resources and protection are important in ensuring the successful raising of the woman's offspring. The ability to provide resources and protection might also be sought because the underlying traits are likely to be passed on to male offspring. Critics of this theory point out that most genes are autosomal and non-sex-linked (Gould, et al.)

Evolutionary theory also suggests that people whose physical features suggest they are healthy are seen as more attractive. The theory suggests that a healthy mate is more likely to possess genetic traits related to health that would be passed on to offspring. People's tendency to consider people with facial symmetry more attractive than those with less symmetrical faces is one example. However, a test was conducted that found that perfectly symmetrical faces were less attractive than normal faces. According to this study, the exact ratio of symmetric to asymmetric facial features depicting the highest attraction is still undetermined. It has also been suggested that people are attracted to faces similar to their own. Case studies have revealed that when a photograph of a woman was superimposed to include the features of a man's face, the man whose face was superimposed almost always rated that picture the most attractive This theory is based upon the notion that we want to replicate our own features in the next generation, as we have survived thus far with such features and have instinctive survival wishes for our children. Another (non-evolutionary) explanation given for the results of that study was that the man whose face was superimposed may have consciously or subconsciously associated the photographically altered female face with the face of his mother or other family member.

MODULE 4

PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

Prosocial behavior is defined as actions that benefit other people or society as a whole (Twenge, Ciarocco, Baumeister, & Bartels, 2007). It is characterized by helping that does not benefit the helper; in fact, prosocial behavior is often accompanied by costs. Psychologists suggest that one way this behavior may outweigh the associated costs concerns the human desire to belong to a group. Helping facilitates group work and in turn, provides individuals with immense benefits for the long run (Twenge et al., 2007).

Prosocial behavior or voluntary behavior intended to benefit another" consists of actions which "benefit other people or society as a whole, such as helping, sharing, donating, co-operating, and volunteering. These actions may be motivated by empathy and by concern about the welfare and rights of others, as well as for egoistic or practical concerns Evidence suggests that prosociality is central to the well-being of social groups across a range of scales Empathy is a strong motive in eliciting prosocial behavior, and has deep evolutionary roots. Prosocial Behavior refers to the phenomenon of people helping each other with no thought of reward or compensation. You may have thought this didn't exist, but it's been known to happen. Prosocial behaviours are actions or patterns of behavior rather than motivations. The motivation to do charitable acts is called altruism. For example, if a person gives an unmarked box of clothing to a shelter anonymously, the action of giving the box is the prosocial behavior. The person's motivation to give the box would be altruism.

Prosocial behavior occurs when someone acts to help another person, particularly when they have no goal other than to help a fellow human. So why does this altruistic behavior appear? One thought, of Kin Selection, is that it is a genetic response to supporting the broader gene pool. Social conditioning can also have be a cause and prosocial parents lead to prosocial children. The Reciprocity Norm may also have an effect, where people help others, knowing that one day they may want someone else to help them in the same unselfish way. Demonstrating such social norms is likely to get you admiration from other people around you. Prosocial behavior varies with context as much as between people. Men will tend to be chivalrous for short periods, whilst women will work quietly for longer periods. People who are in a good mood are more likely to do good, as are people who are feeling guilty. People in small towns are more likely to help than those squashed together in cities.

Origin

The term prosocial behavior arose in the 1970s, leading to psychological analysis of the giving, helping, and sharing processes. The nonresponsive bystanders in the brutal Katherine "Kitty" Genovese murder in 1964, as well as the 1960s Civil Rights Movement refuting racial discrimination, further prompted examination of human nature and the significance of helping others (Knickerbocker 2003). Prosocial behavior came to be seen as key in harmonious interpersonal and group interactions. Prosocial moral reasoning has been theoretically and empirically linked to prosocial behaviors (Carlo 1996). Culture, with its respective values and emphasis on socialization, may thus influence levels of prosocial moral reasoning (Carlo 1996). Other significant influences on moral reasoning include education and logical skills. (Carlo 1996).

Helping behaviors amongst humans have been evidenced since early history, in accordance with the communal cultures of native peoples worldwide. (Penner 2005) From an evolutionary perspective, early humans' survival relied strongly on the processes of giving and helping. Those who displayed prosocial dispositions were thus met with evolutionary success (Penner 2005). Group selection evinces that if two groups are in direct competition with one another, the group with the larger number of altruists will have an advantage over a group of mainly selfish individuals (Penner 2005). Kin selection, or the successful transmission of one's genes from all sources to the next generation, is thus supported (Penner 2005). Religious practice has also been associated with prosocial and helping behaviors, as helping is often considered a religious obligation. Weight on giving and helping in the Judeo-Christian culture can be considered a primary reason that prosocial behavior is a social norm and moral imperative in Western Culture today (Knickerbocker 2003).

Prosocial Behavior and Altruism

Altruism involves the unselfish concern for other people. It involves doing things simply out of a desire to help, not because you feel obligated to out of duty, loyalty, or religious reasons. Everyday life is filled with small acts of altruism, from the guy at the grocery store who kindly holds the door open as you rush in from the parking lot to the woman who gives twenty dollars to a homeless man. News stories often focus on grander cases of altruism, such as a man who dives into an icy river to rescue a drowning stranger to a generous donor who gives thousands of dollars to a local charity. While we may be all too familiar with altruism, social psychologists are interested in understanding *why* it occurs. What inspires these acts of kindness? What motivates people to risk their own lives to save a complete stranger?

Altruism is one aspect of what social psychologists refer to as prosocial behavior. Prosocial behavior refers to any action that benefits other people, no matter what the motive or how the giver benefits from the action. Remember, however, that altruism involves true selflessness. While all altruisms acts are prosocial, not all prosocial behaviors are altruistic. For example, we might help others for a variety of reasons such as guilt, obligation, duty or even for rewards.

Evolutionary Psychology: Instincts and Genes

According to Charles Darwin's (1859) theory of evolution, natural selection favors genes that promote the survival of the individual. Any gene that furthers our survival and increases the probability that we will produce offspring is likely to be passed on from generation to generation. Genes that lower our chances of survival, such as those causing life-threatening diseases, reduce the chances that we will produce offspring and thus are less likely to be passed on. Evolutionary biologists like E. O. Wilson and Richard Dawkins have used these principles of evolutionary theory to explain such social behaviors as aggression and altruism. Several psychologists have pursued these ideas, spawning the field of **evolutionary psychology,** which is the attempt to explain social behavior in terms of genetic factors that evolved over time according to the principles of natural selection).

Kin Selection One way that evolutionary psychologists attempt to resolve this dilemma is with the notion of **kin selection,** the idea that behaviors that help a genetic relative are favored by natural selection (Hamilton, 1964; Meyer, 1999). People can increase the chances that their genes

will be passed along not only by having their own children but also by ensuring that their genetic relatives have children. Because a person's blood relatives share some of his or her genes, the more that person ensures their survival, the greater the chance that his or her genes will flourish in future generations. Thus natural selection should favor altruistic acts directed toward genetic relatives. There is support for this notion in the animal kingdom, particularly among social insects.

There is some evidence that kin selection operates in human beings as well. According to Gene Burnstein, Chris Crandall, and Shinobu Kitayama (1994), people's choice of whom to help is influenced by the "biological importance" of the outcome: People are especially likely to help others who are most related to them when this help increases the likelihood that that person will have children. In one study, for example, people reported that they would be more likely to help genetic relatives than nonrelatives in life-and-death situations, such as a house fire. People did not report that they would be more likely to help genetic relatives when the situation was non-life-threatening, which is consistent with the idea that people are most likely to help in ways that ensure the survival of their own genes. Interestingly, both males and females, followed this rule of kin selection in life-threatening situations.

The Reciprocity Norm To explain altruism, evolutionary psychologists also point to the **norm of reciprocity,** which is the expectation that helping others will increase the likelihood that they will help us in the future. The idea is that as human beings were evolving, a group of completely selfish individuals, each living in his or her own cave, would have found it more difficult to survive than a group who had learned to cooperate. Of course, if people cooperated too readily, they might have been exploited by an adversary who never helped in return. Those who were most likely to survive, the argument goes, were people who developed an understanding with their neighbours about reciprocity: "I will help you now, with the agreement that when I need help, you will return the favor." Because of its survival value, such a norm of reciprocity may have become genetically based.

Learning Social Norms A third way in which evolutionary theory can explain altruism has been offered by Nobel laureate Herbert Simon (1990). He argued that it is highly adaptive for individuals to learn social norms from other members of a society. People who are the best learners of the norms and customs of a society have a survival advantage, because over the centuries, a culture learns such things as which foods are poisonous and how best to cooperate, and the person who learns these rules is more likely to survive than the person who does not. Consequently, through natural selection, the ability to learn social norms has become part of our genetic makeup. One norm that people learn is the value of helping others; this is considered a valuable norm in virtually all societies. In short, people are genetically programmed to learn social norms, and one of these norms is altruism (Hoffman, 1981). In sum, evolutionary psychologists believe that people help others because of three factors that have become ingrained in our genes: Kin selection, the norm of reciprocity, and the ability to learn and follow social norms.

Social Exchange: The Costs and Rewards of Helping

• *Social exchange theory* argues that much of what we do stems from the desire to maximize our rewards and minimize our costs. Like evolutionary psychology, it is a theory based on self-interest; unlike it, it assumes that self-interest has no genetic basis.

• Helping can be rewarding in three ways: it can increase the probability that someone will help us in return in the future; it can relieve the personal distress of the bystander; and it can gain us social approval and increased self-worth.

• Helping can also be costly; thus it decreases when costs are high. Social exchange theory presumes that people help only when the rewards outweigh the costs. Thus social exchange theory presumes that there is no pure altruism.

. Empathy and Altruism: The Pure Motive for Helping

• Batson is the strongest proponent of the idea that people often help purely out of the goodness of their hearts. He argues that pure altruism is most likely to come into play when we experience **empathy** for the person in need; that is, when we are able to experience events and emotions the way that that person experiences them. Batson's **empathy-altruism hypothesis** states that when we feel empathy for a person, we will attempt to help purely for altruistic reasons, that is, regardless of what we have to gain. If we do not feel empathy, then social exchange concerns will come into play

• In a study by Toi and Batson, (1982), students listened to a taped interview with a student who had ostensibly broken both legs in an accident and was behind in classes. Two factors were manipulated: empathetic vs. non-empathetic set, manipulated by instructions given to Ss; and the costs of helping, manipulated by whether or not the injured student was expected to be seen every day once she returned to class. The dependent variable was whether Ss responded to a request to help the injured student catch up in class. As the empathy-altruism hypothesis predicted, people in the high empathy condition helped regardless of cost, while those in the low empathy condition helped only if the cost of not helping was high. ,p>• The empathy-altruism hypothesis has been much debated, with some researchers arguing that empathy increases the cost of not helping and thus increases the likelihood of helping because it lowers people's distress at seeing someone they care about suffer. In summary, we have discussed three basic motives underlying prosocial behavior: that helping is an instinctive reaction to promote the welfare of those genetically similar to us (evolutionary psychology); that the rewards of helping often outweigh the costs, making it in people's self-interest to help (social exchange theory); and that under some conditions, powerful feelings of empathy and compassion for the victim prompt selfless giving (the empathy-altruism hypothesis).Each of these approaches has vociferous proponents and critics.

DETERMINANTS OF PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

Whatever the nature of people's basic motives, these motives are not the sole determinants of whether people help, for many personal and situational factors can suppress or trigger these motives. If basic human motives were all there was to it, how could we explain the fact that some people are much more helpful than others? Clearly, we need to consider the personal determinants of prosocial behavior that distinguish the helpful person from the selfish one

A. Individual Differences: The Altruistic Personality

• An **altruistic personality** consists of the qualities that cause an individual to help others in a wide variety of situations.

• It turns out that there is little evidence of consistency in altruism; for example, Hartshorne and May (1929) found only a .23 correlation between different kinds of helping behaviors in children,

and several studies have found that those who scored high on a personality test of altruism were not much more likely to help than those who scored low. People's personality is clearly not the only determinant of helping. Instead, it seems to be that different kinds of people are likely to help in different situations.

B. Gender Differences in Prosocial Behavior

• Eagly and Crowley (1986) did a meta-analysis and found that men are more likely to help in chivalrous, heroic ways, and women are more likely to help in nurturant ways involving long-term commitment.

C. Cultural Differences in Prosocial Behavior

• It might seem as though people with an *interdependent view of the self*, who come from collectivist cultures, would be more likely to help a person in need. However, people everywhere are less likely to help a member of an **out-group**, a group with which the person does not identify, than a member of an **in-group**, the group with which the person identifies and feels he or she is a member. Cultural factors come into play in determining how strongly people draw the line between in-groups and out-groups. People in collectivist cultures may draw a firmer line between in-groups and out-groups and be more likely to help in-group members and less likely to help out-group members, than people from individualistic cultures, who have an *independent view of the self*.

• Simpatía in Latino and Hispanic cultures refers to a range of friendly social and emotional traits. Levine et al. (2000) found that people in cultures that value simpatía were more likely to help in a variety of nonemergency helping situations .

D. The Effects of Mood on Prosocial Behavior

• One reason that personality alone cannot determine helping is that helping depends on a person's current mood.

1. Effects of Positive Moods: Feel Good, Do Good

• People who are in a good mood are more likely to help. For example, Isen and Levin (1972) did a study in a shopping mall where Ss either found or did not find a dime in a phone booth. As the person emerged from the booth, a confederate walked by and dropped a sheaf of papers; 84% of those who found the dime helped, compared with 4% of those who did not find the dime.

• North, Tarrang, & Hargreaves (2004) found that people are more likely to help others when in a good mood for a number of other reasons, including doing well on a test, receiving a gift, thinking happy thoughts, and listening to pleasant music.

• Good moods can increase helping for three reasons: (1) good moods make us interpret events in a sympathetic way; (2) helping another prolongs the good mood, whereas not helping deflates it; (3) good moods increase self-attention, and this in turn leads us to be more likely to behave according to our values and beliefs (which tend to favor altruism).

2. Negative-State Relief: Feel Bad, Do Good

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

prosocial behaviour. In such situations empathy may be there or not..• When people feel guilty, they are more likely to help. For example, Harris et al. (1975) found that churchgoers were more likely to donate money before, rather than after, confession (while still feeling guilty as opposed to after feeling their guilt absolved).

• Sadness will lead to helping under certain conditions. Cialdini's **negative-state relief hypothesis** says that people help in order to alleviate their own sadness and distress; it exemplifies a social exchange approach. According to this theory, people in a sad or distressed mood will be more likely to help but in a way unrelated to the cause of the bad mood.

Empathic Joy:

Helping behaviour has been explained by Empathic Joy Hypothesis (Smith, Kealing & Stotland 1989). This theory suggests that helper responds and helps victims not because of empathy but because he wants to accomplish something and doing so is rewarding. The argument goes like this if we help people only for empathy, then they would not be concerned about feedback. To test this hypothesis Smith Keating and Stotland performed an experiment. In this experiment female student said that she might drop out of college because she felt isolated and distressed. She was described as similar to one group and dissimilar to other group. After watching the videotape the participants were asked to give helpful advice. Some were told that they would be given a feedback of effectiveness of their advice others were told that they would not come to know what student decided to do. Results showed that participants were helpful only if there was high empathy and feedback about the advice

SITUATIONAL DETERMINANTS OF PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOR: WHEN WILL PEOPLE HELP?

A. Environment: Rural versus Urban
• People in rural areas are more helpful. This effect holds over a wide variety of ways of helping and in many countries. One explanation is that people from rural settings are brought up to be more neighborly and more likely to trust strangers. An alternative hypothesis, posted by Milgram, is the **urban-overload hypothesis**, the idea that people living in cities are likely to keep to themselves in order to avoid being overloaded by all the stimulation they receive. The evidence supports the latter hypothesis, finding that where an accident occurs matters more in influencing helping than where potential helpers were born, and that population density is a more potent determinant of helping than is population size.

B. Residential Mobility

• People who have lived in one place for a long time are more likely to engage in prosocial behaviors.
• This effect can arise quite quickly even in a one-time laboratory setting. Oishi et al. (2006) found that participants who had worked with a group member on four tasks were more likely to help a struggling group member than those who had switched to a new group after each task.

C. The Number of Bystanders: The Bystander Effect

• Latané and Darley are two social psychologists who were working in New York at the time of the Kitty Genovese murder (described in Chapter 2). They hypothesized that, paradoxically, it might

have been the large number of bystanders (38) that witnessed the murder that led to a failure to help.

• In a laboratory study, participants sat in separate booths and communicated over an intercom. As they listened, one of the other participants ostensibly had a seizure. The experimenters manipulated how many other participants the subject believed there were. The more other people the S believed were present, the less likely they were to help and the slower they were to do so (Darley & Latané, 1968). The **bystander effect** is the finding that the greater the number of bystanders who witness an emergency, the less likely any one of them is to help.

• Latané and Darley (1970) developed a step-by-step description of how people decide whether to help in an   emergency . The five steps are:

1. **Noticing an Event** ,p>• In order for people to help, they must notice that an emergency has occurred.

• Sometimes very trivial things, such as how much of a hurry a person is in, can prevent them from noticing someone else in trouble. Darley and Batson (1973) showed that seminary students who were in a hurry to give a sermon on campus were much less likely to help an ostensibly injured confederate groaning in a doorway than were those who were not in a hurry. They also found that helping was not predicted by personality scores or by the topic of the sermon (half were about to lecture on the parable of the Good Samaritan).

2. Interpreting an Event as an Emergency

• The next determinant of helping is whether the bystander interprets the event as an emergency. Ironically, when other bystanders are present, people are more likely to assume an emergency is something innocuous. This **pluralistic ignorance** occurs because people look to see others' reactions (informational influence); when they see that everyone else has a blank expression, they assume there must be no danger. This was demonstrated in a study by Latané and Darley (1970) where Ss were sitting in a room when white smoke began pouring out of a vent. The more other participants there were in the room, the less likely anyone was to seek help and the longer they took to do so. For ambiguous events, then, people in groups will gain false reassurance from each other and convince each other that nothing is wrong.

3. Assuming Responsibility

• The next step that must occur if helping is to take place is for someone to take responsibility. When there are many witnesses, there is a **diffusion of responsibility**, the phenomenon whereby each bystander's sense of responsibility to help decreases as the number of witnesses increases. Everyone assumes that someone else will help, and as a result, no one does, as happened with the Kitty Genovese murder.

4. Knowing How to Help

• Even if all the previous conditions are met, a person must know what form of assistance to give. If they don't, they will be unable to help.

5. Deciding to Implement the Help

• Finally, even if you know what kind of help to give, you might decide not to intervene because you feel unqualified to help or you are too afraid of the costs to yourself.

• Markey (2000) examined helping in an Internet chat room situation; when the chat room group as a whole was asked to provide some information about finding profiles, the larger the group, the longer it took for anyone to help. However, when a specific person was addressed by name, that person helped quickly, regardless of group size.

D. The Nature of the Relationship: Communal versus Exchange Relationships

• Much research examines helping between strangers, but most helping occurs between people who know each other well.

• *Communal relationship* are those in which people's primary concern is with the welfare of the other, whereas *exchange relationships* are governed by equity concerns. One possibility is that rewards are equally important in the two different types of relationships, but the nature of the rewards is different. Clark and Mills (1993), however, argue that the nature of the relationship is fundamentally different, such that those in communal relationships are less concerned with rewards.

• Generally we are more helpful towards friends than strangers, and we are more likely to help a partner in a communal relationship than a partner in an exchange relationship; the exception occurs when the other is beating us in a domain that is personally important and thus threatens our self-esteem; in this case, we are more likely to help strangers than friends

CRUCIAL STEPS DETERMINE HELPING AND NON-HELPING :

Latane and Darley (1970) proposed that likelihood of a person engaging in prosocial is determined by series of decisions that must be made quickly by those who witness an emergency. When we are suddenly and unexpectedly faced with an emergency situation that is difficult to interpret, before acting we must first figure out what if anything is going on and what we should do about it. This requires series of decisions that will determine whether we will help a person. The following factors determine the helping behaviour during emergency.

1. Noticing or failing to notice that something unusual in happening.

 In our day to day life we are thinking about something and concentrating on something else. For example when you are traveling by a local train, you hear a noise and hear that someone in having a problem of breathlessness. We may not notice, maybe we are in sleep or deeply engrossed in some thinking, concentrating on something else. Here we may fail to notice that something unusual is happening. In everyday life we ignore many sights and sounds that are not relevant to us, and may not notice the emergency situation. Darley and Latane performed a simple experiment on the students who were trained to become priest, those who are more likely to help. These priests were given a task of walking near by the campus and giving a talk. One group was told that they had plenty of extra time to reach the campus. The second group were hold that they were right on schedule with just enough time to get there, and third group was hold that they are late for speaking assignment and they needed to hurry. Along the route to campus an emergency situation was staged. A stranger, actually stumped in the way coughing and groaning. The question was, would students notice an emergency? The group that was least preoccupied (who had sufficient time) 63% of the participants provided help. The group that was on schedule, moderately

preoccupied group, (The group that was on schedule) 45 percent helped. In the preoccupied condition, i.e. The Third group, only 9 percent responded to stranger. Many of the preoccupied students paid less or no attention to a stranger. This study clearly indicates that when a person is too busy to pay attention to his surroundings, he fails to notice obvious emergency.

2) Correctly interpreting an event as an emergency – Even those who pay attention to an emergency situation have incomplete information about what is happening? Most of the time whatever is noticed may not be always an emergency. Whenever potential helpers are not aware of what is happening, they are likely to hold back and wait for further information. It may be that when Genovese was murdered, people around could not understand what was happening, when they heard the screams it was felt that man and a woman were possibly having a fight. The situation itself was quite ambiguous for those who were possibly having a fight. The situation itself was quite ambiguous for those who were witnessing it. In such situations people tend to accept the interpretation that is most comfortable to them.

It is observed that when three are many witness for a given incident. The help may not be given because of diffusion of responsibility, like when there are so many people who can help why me? Help is generally not given in such a situation with the fear of being misinterpreted by people generally, when we are uncertain about the situation and our actions we land up doing nothing. In the presence of others, we generally engage in a social comparison, we look at others as to how they are reacting and if others do not react we may feel foolish to react. It is always safe to follow majority. This situation is described as "pluralistic ignorance". It refers to the fact that because none of the witness responds to an emergency, no one knows for sure what is happening and each depends on others for interpretation of the situation. Latane and Darley (1968) performed an experiment to demonstrate how far people will go to avoid making possibly inappropriate response to a situation that may be or may not be an emergency situation. The investigators placed students alone or with two other students and asked them to fill out a questionnaire. After several minutes had passed, experimenter's secretly pumped smoke in the room through a vent. When participants were working alone (75%) they stopped and left the room to report the problem. When three people were there in the room, only 38% reacted to the smoke. Even after smoke became so thick that it was difficult to work, only 62% percent continued to work on the questionnaire and failed to make any response to smoke filled room. This study showed that the presence of others inhibited a response even when it meant risking their life. The inhibiting effect is less, especially, when group consists of friends because friends are more likely to communicate about what is happening, (Rutkowski, Ciruder & Romer 1983). The inhibiting effect is less if people are from small town, when they are more likely to know each other. Similarly, this inhibiting effect in still lesser under the influence of alcohol because anxiety about reactions of other and fear of doing wrong is reduced under the effect of alcohol, as a consequence, helping behaviour is more likely to be seen (Nitchlow & Liu 1985).

3) Deciding that it is your responsibility to provide help :

Building catches a fine, cards collide, in this situation responsibilities are clearly indicated. Fireman, policeman, etc., take the lead. But when the responsibility is not clear, people assume that someone

must take responsibility. But when no one is present, the lone bystander has to take the responsibility.

4) Deciding that you have the necessary knowledge and skills to act : Prosocial behaviour cannot occur unless a person knows how to become helpful. Some emergencies are sufficiently simple; almost everyone knows how to become helpful. But when emergencies require a special help only some of the bystander can be of help. e.g. Good swimmer can help a person, who is drowning or a doctor can help patient with heart problem.

5) Making final decision to help : During emergency situation keep is given to a person, only when a bystander makes a decision to help. Many times helping behaviour may be inhibited by potential negative consequences of the behaviour. Fritzsch and others held that helper engages himself in cognitive algebra where he weighs positive and negative consequences of it. In Mumbai, if any accident victim asks for help, the first consideration that a bystander has is what will be the consequences? Will he be questioned by the policeman for helping a person after the accident? To summarize, deciding whether to help or not to help is not a simple process. It requires series of decisions to be taken by the helper.

Ways of increasing prosocial Behaviour

HOW CAN HELPING BE INCREASED?

• An important note is that people do not always want to be helped—if being helped means that they appear incompetent, they will often suffer in silence, even at the cost of failing at the task.

A. Increasing the Likelihood that Bystanders Will Intervene

• Simply being aware of the barriers to helping can increase people's chances of overcoming those barriers. Two recent incidents on college campuses are cited as examples. Also, Beaman et al. (1978) had students listen either to a lecture about Latané and Darley's work or to one about an unrelated topic; two weeks later, in a different context, they encountered a student lying on the floor, while a confederate lounged by, apparently unconcerned. Those who had heard the bystander intervention lecture were more likely to help.

B. Positive Psychology and Prosocial Behavior

• Martin Seligman, a prominent clinical psychologist, has brought interest to the field of positive psychology after becoming disconcerted by clinical psychology's focus upon disease rather than health. Social psychology has not concentrated solely on negative behaviors but on positive ones as well.

C. Increasing Volunteerism

• Many people engage in volunteer work; the United States has the highest rate (47%; Ting & Piliavin, 2000). However, even in the U.S., more than half the population is not engaged in volunteerism. How can the rate of volunteering be increased? Some schools and businesses require service work; however, the *over justification effect* suggests that those who volunteer for a requirement will be less likely to see their helping as intrinsically motivated and may volunteer less in the future; research suggests that this is in fact the case. To encourage volunteerism, one must be

careful to make sure that people feel that volunteering is their free choice and not an externally imposed requirement.

D. Exposure to prosocial model increases prosocial behaviour – you are out for some work, you see students or representatives of charity collecting money for some cause. You decide to contribute only when you see someone else also doing so. Number of shops have donation box with money in it. This is done to encourage you to donate as well. Seeing money makes you believe that others have also donated for a cause, may be you also can do so.

In the situations of emergency, presence of helpful bystander provides a strong social model for helping. The following experiment provides the best example of such model. In this field experiment in which young women (a research assistant with a punctured tyre parked her car just off the road. Motorists were more likely to help this woman if they passed a staged scene in which another woman with a punctured tyre was being helped. The prosocial model depicted in media also creates a social norm for helping behaviour. Example, many a times the game winners of the reality show often donate a amount of price for a certain cause of charity. Sprafkin, Liebert and Poulous (1975) – Carried out an investigation to study the power of T.V. in creating prosocial responsiveness. Children were divided in three groups. One group of children was shown Lassie, in when there was a rescue scene. The second group of children watched another episode of same serial, but did not focus on prosocial behaviour. A third group watched a show with numerous content, but did not have any prosocial model. After this children played the games and prizes were given to winners. Each group was made to encounter a group of hungry and shining pepper. At a point there was a chance that child had a chance that if could wail and help pip and loose the prize. The results showed that the group that watched the rescue episode stopped and spent more time in comforting animals as compared with other two groups. All the television shows do not necessarily encourage the prosocial behaviour. Eg. Children who watch violent video games show a decrease in the prosocial behaviour. (Anderson and Bushman 2001).

Other Methods to   Increase Prosocial Behavior in Society

Ways to make help more likely include:

- Reducing ambiguity: Making the need for help more clear.
- Increasing internal attributions for prosocial behavior: If the cause of helping is internal, the chance for subsequent prosocial behavior increases.
- Teaching norms that support prosocial behavior in school, and showing personal examples or models.
- Activating prosocial norms: By directing attention to (norms of) helping behavior, or by making people self-aware, which leads to more helping behavior.
- Infusing, not diffusing, responsibility: Direct your request for help to a specific person.
- Promoting identification: Connectedness leads to more helping behavior