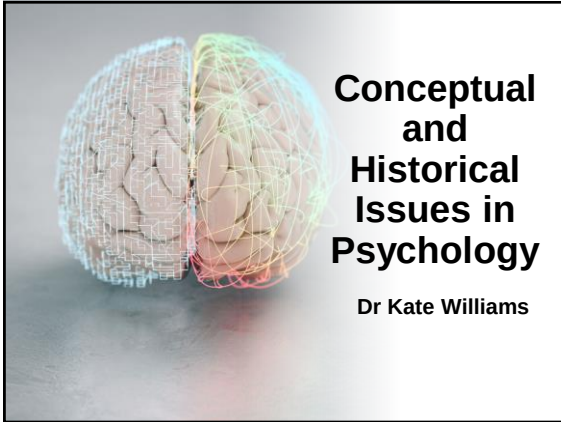




1

WARNING!



Today's session will discuss sensitive, uncomfortable, and potentially upsetting topics.



We will also be watching videos relating to classic ethically concerning studies.



These will include potentially upsetting scenes, footage of real-world events, and of participants displaying distress.



If you do not feel this would be suitable, you are not expected to stay.

2

Session Outline:



Overview of Social Psychology



Social Perception



Attribution



Attitudes: Formation and Change



Prejudice and Discrimination



Conformity and Group Influence



Obedience



Aggression and Altruism

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Core Domain: Social Psychology

ONE OF THE
BPS CORE
AREAS!!!

SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF HOW
THOUGHTS, FEELINGS, &
BEHAVIOUR ARE
INFLUENCED BY OTHERS
AND SOCIAL NORMS

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Social Psychology

- Study of:
 - Social perception*: how we think about our social world
 - Social Influence*: how other people influence our behavior
 - Social Relations*: how we relate toward other people

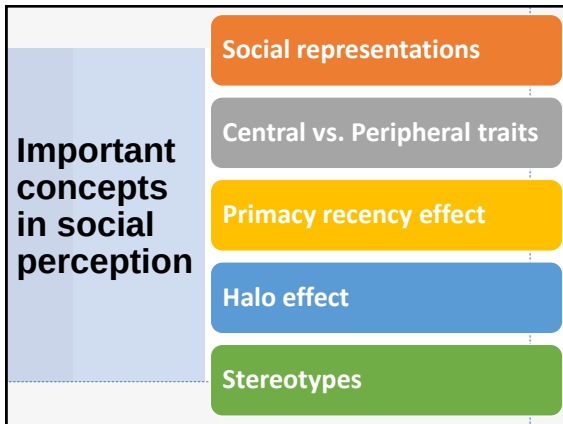
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Social Cognition

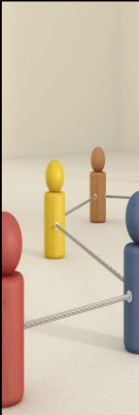
How cognitive processes affect social perception judgements - The person as Thinker (Fiske & Taylor, 1991)

Consistency Seekers:	Seek to reduce Cognitive Dissonance • Mental conflict when we have contradictory values, attitudes, perspective, thoughts about something
Naïve scientists:	Seek consistency and stability from coherent view of world and need for environmental control.
Cognitive misers:	We are limited in capacity to take in info - use heuristics as mental shortcuts to think • Availability, Representativeness, Anchoring, Simulation
Motivated tacticians:	We are driven by our goals and desires

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Social Representations (SRs)

- Common sense, simplified, widely shared understanding of complex theories involving:
 - Personification – make abstract concepts concrete
 - Figuration – e.g., using cartoons to simplify complex ideas
 - Anchoring – where judgements or decisions are influenced by reference point ("anchor"), which can be completely irrelevant.
- Help establish shared communication and social reality
 - But implicate scapegoating, prejudice, and discrimination

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Central vs. Peripheral Traits

- Asch (1946) - "Warm" v "Cold" people
 - Presented two lists of adjectives about a person
 - Then presented participants with 18 adjectives
 - "warm group" chose words such as generous, sociable and popular
 - "cold group" chose opposite traits!
- Central traits exert major organising influence on overall impressions
- Peripheral traits have little influence

Intelligent	Intelligent
Skillful	Skillful
Industrious	Industrious
Warm	Cold
Determined	Determined
Practical	Practical
Cautious	Cautious

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Primacy-Recency Effect



Asch (1946)

Attach more importance to initial info we learn about a person

Which may shape how we perceive subsequent information about them

Influences desire to make further contact with person



Primacy effect may occur with strangers



Recency effect may occur with people we know well

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Halo Effect (Thorndike, 1920)



• Implicit Personality Theory

- We infer what people are like based on limited info (cognitive bias).

- +ve/-ve qualities in one area affect how person is perceived in other, unrelated areas.

- Positive trait creates "halo" that extends to other aspects of character, leading to assumption they possess other positive qualities.

- Perception that attractive person is more intelligent, friendly, competent, even if no direct evidence to support this.

- Negative Halo Effect - works in opposite direction.

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Stereotypes

- Implicit Personality Theory where whole group traits and beliefs are characterised

- Arise from social, cultural, or historical factors and can be based on characteristics such as race, gender, religion, ethnicity, nationality, or other group affiliations.

- Can be +ve/-ve and may/not accurately reflect characteristics of individuals within the group.

- Contributes to prejudice and discrimination

- Cognitive view - we naturally categorise info to make sense of world

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Stereotypes



Affects:

- Attention:
- Perception:
- Memory:
- Behaviour:
 - Towards outgroups
 - Within outgroups

Stereotype Threat



Social Priming:

- How stereotypes affect behaviours outside conscious awareness through primes
- Contextual factors may make social priming effect more powerful



Self-Fulfilling Prophecy:

- Expectations affect our behaviour toward a person, which can cause the person to behave in a way that confirms our expectations

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Impression Management

- Actively influence impression others form of us
- Work on self-presentation to make a good impression
- May involve presenting differently depending on situation
- To do this, we need to be able to self-monitor:
 - High self-monitors: Behave differently depending on context - Try to match behaviour to situations
 - Low self-monitors: More likely to be themselves regardless of situation - Behave based on own needs and values
- Strategies to create favourable impressions:
 - Behaviour matching
 - Showing appreciation or flattery
 - Consistency of beliefs
 - Ensure verbal and non-verbal behaviour matches
 - Self-disclosure
- Amount/type of info we are willing to disclose about ourselves is key and contingent on:
 - Reciprocity, Norms, Trust, Quality of relationship, Gender
- Too much "self-disclosure" in inappropriate situation can create unfavourable impression



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Attribution

- How individuals explain causes of behaviour and events.
- Attribution Theory:
 - We are naturally inclined to understand and interpret actions (ours and others).
- In Western culture, two main types:
 - **Internal/personal (Dispositional) Attribution:**
 - Explain behaviour as result of our internal characteristics (personality traits, abilities, etc.).
 - E.g., if we do well on a test, an internal attribution is that we are intelligent or hardworking.
 - **External (Situational) Attribution:**
 - Attribute cause of behaviour to external factors (situation)
 - E.g., if we perform poorly on a test, an external attribution might be that the test was too difficult.



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Attribution theories



Jones and Davis: explain why we make correspondent inferences about people's dispositions

We engage in analysis of uncommon effects, looking for dispositions that cause behaviour
Likelihood of making dispositional attributes influenced by:
• Free choice, Social Desirability, Roles, Prior Expectations



Weiner's attribution theory: dimensions of causality applied to emotion and motivation:

Locus,
Stability,
Controllability



Kelley's Covariation model: concerned with processes we make internal and external attributions for cause of behaviour.

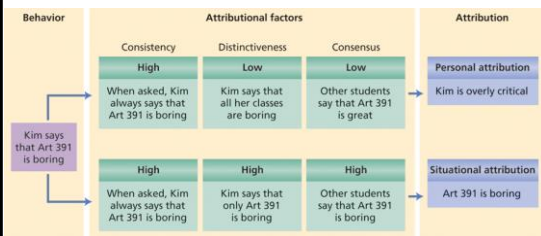
Likely to infer two events are causally related if they co-occur repeatedly
Attributions depend on extent of covariation with causal info regarding:
• Consensus, Consistency, Distinctiveness
When all types of info are high, we make situational attribution, when consistency is high and the other two are low, we make a personal attribution



Kelley's Configuration model attempts to account for single event attributions through multiple necessary and multiple sufficient causal schemata

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Attribution



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Attribution Biases

• People are less rational than Jones & Davis's & Kelley's models suggest

• More accurate account of attributions involves systematic biases:

1. Fundamental attribution error (FAE)

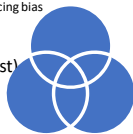
- People attribute others' behaviour to internal factors (e.g., personality) while overlooking or underestimating influence of situational factors.
- Often observed in social judgments.

2. Actor-observer bias:

- Attribute own behaviour to external factors while attributing behaviour of others to internal factors (dispositional influences).
 - Most pronounced when explaining own negative behaviour – self-protecting bias
 - Personal success explained by dispositional ways – self-enhancing bias
 - Both constitute self-serving bias

• N.B.: cultural differences (individualistic vs. collectivist)

- FAE may reflect Westernised emphasis on individualism
- Other cultures less likely to display self-serving bias



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Interactive Task

- Follow the lecturer's instructions to complete the Fundamental Attribution Error Activity



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Attitudes

Positive or negative evaluation reaction to stimuli - person, action, object or concept (Tesser & Schaffer, 1990)

- Help define our identity, guide actions, and influence how we judge people (Fazio & Roskos-Ewoldsen, 2005)

Attitudes influence many things:

- Politics,
- War,
- Fashion,
- Sport,
- Health,
- etc.

Study of attitudes has changed, but 4 question remain focus:

1. Where do they come from (how are they modulated/formed)?
2. How to be measured?
3. How/why do they change?
4. How do they link to behaviour?

Three-component model: Attitudes comprise:

- Affect: feelings towards something
- Cognition: thoughts about something
- Behaviour: how we intend to act towards something

Attitudes relate to beliefs and values. However,

- Beliefs are non-evaluative representations of the world
- Values represent what is considered desirable and good etc.
- A belief will become an attitude when a value component is added
- Have strong behavioural component

Katz identifies key aspects of attitudes:

- Knowledge
- Adjustive
- Value-expressive
- Ego-defence functions

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Measuring attitudes



Explicit (direct):

Conscious self-reports (verbal, written, etc.) of people's opinion

E.g., do Likert Scale Q on attitudes towards illegal immigrants

Issues:

- Acquiescent Responses: answer yes regardless of content
- Social Desirability: respond in manner viewed as favourable



Implicit (indirect):

Elicit attitude we may not be consciously aware of or are unwilling to report

E.g., Priming/Implicit Association Issues:

- Lack of predictive validity
- Situational/contextual factors
- Cultural and individual differences
- Ethically not fully aware of study aims
- Interpretation ambiguity

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Can Attitudes Predict Behaviour?

- Often but not always – sometimes we do not act in accord with our attitudes.....
- La Piere (1930s) – toured USA with Chinese couple
 - Time of widespread prejudice against Asians
 - Stopped at 251 restaurants and hotels
 - Only refused service once
 - When La Piere wrote to establishments later, 90% said they would not serve Chinese Patrons
- When do attitudes predict behaviour?
 - When situational factors contradicting attitudes are weak
 - E.g., no pressure to conform
 - When we are aware of them, and strongly held
 - E.g., when we consciously think of our attitudes
- General attitudes predict general behaviour; specific attitudes predict specific behaviour



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Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1991)

- Intention-behaviour gap
- Intention to engage in behaviour is strongest when:
 - We have positive **attitude** to behaviour
 - When **subjective norms** support our attitudes
 - We believe we can **control** our behaviour
- TPB used to predict whether people attend screening, take medicine properly, engage in safe sex, exercise, eat healthily, etc.



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What happens if we engage in a behaviour that is inconsistent with our attitudes about it..... Cognitive Dissonance (Festinger, 1957)



People strive for consistency in their cognitions



Contradicting cognitions create state of tension/unease

"Being honest is important but I just lied to my friend about liking their shirt"
"Being conscientious is good but I skived three lectures"



People may alter attitudes to be consistent with behaviour

"It is ok to tell a little white lie rather than upset someone"



Or intend to alter future behaviour

"skiving made me feel bad, I'm not going to do it again"

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Changing Attitudes

• Persuasive Communication – 3 key aspects

- **Communicator**
 - Credibility, Expertise, Trustworthiness
- **Message**
 - Allen (1991): present opposite argument and refute it...
 - Inducing fear - Only if moderate-strong fear AND provides easy effective way to reduce threat (otherwise – denial/avoidance!)
- **Audience**
 - Individual difference receptiveness
 - "need for cognition"



(Petty & Cacioppo, 1986;
Petty et al., 2005)

• Propaganda

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Prejudice and Discrimination

- **Prejudice:** negative attitude toward people based on their membership to a group
- **Discrimination:** overt behavior treating people unfairly based on group to which they belong
- **Explicit Prejudice:** expressed publicly
- **Implicit Prejudice:** hidden from public view



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Cognitive Roots of Prejudice

- Us vs. them in thinking leads to perception of in-groups and out-groups
 - *In-group bias/favoritism:* attribute more positive qualities to "us" than "them"
 - *Out-group derogation:* attribute more negative qualities to "them" than "us"
 - *Out-group homogeneity bias:* viewing members of out-groups as being more like one another than members of in-groups
- When members of out-groups contradict our stereotypes, we can:
 - Change stereotype
 - Explain away discrepant behavior
 - Person is exceptional case
 - Situational causes



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- Motivational Roots of Prejudice:**
 - Realistic Conflict Theory: competition for limited resources = prejudice
 - Social Identity Theory: prejudice from need to enhance our self-esteem
 - Personal identity
 - Group identity
- How Prejudice Confirms Itself:
 - Stereotype Threat: create self-consciousness among stereotyped group and fear they will live up to other people's stereotypes
 - Occurs even if group members do not accept stereotype
- Reducing Prejudice:
 - Teaching interventions
 - Equal Status Contact:
 - Engage in sustained close contact
 - Have equal status
 - Work to achieve a common goal that requires cooperation
 - Are supported by broader social norms



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Norms

- Social Norms:** shared expectations of how people should think, feel, and behave
 - Implicit and unspoken
 - Regulate daily behavior without conscious awareness
- Social Role:** set of norms to characterise how people in social positions ought to behave
 - Role conflict:* occurs when the norms accompanying different roles clash

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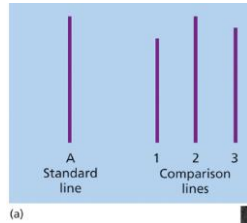
Interactive Task

Follow the lecturer's instructions

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Conformity

- Adjustment of behaviour, attitude, and beliefs to a group standard
- Informational Social Influence:
 - Follow opinions or behavior of others because we think they have accurate knowledge and what they are doing is correct
- Normative:
 - Conforming because we want to be liked by others.
 - Obtain rewards that come from being accepted by others while avoiding their rejection
- Asch (1951):
 - Students asked to judge which of three comparison lines was same length as a standard line
 - 37% of participants conformed to the *incorrect* group answer



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Factors affecting Conformity



Group size:

- Conformity increases as group size increases

Presence of a dissenter:

- One person disagreeing with the others greatly reduces group conformity

Culture:

- Greater in collectivistic cultures



Minority Influence:

To maximize influence, minority must:

Be highly committed to point of view

Remain independent in face of majority pressure

Appear to keep open mind

Maintain consistent position time

Not appear unreasonable, deviant, or negative

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Obedience

- The Milgram Experiments:
 - Conducted by Stanley Milgram.
 - Investigated obedience to authority.
 - One "learner", one "teacher"
 - Participants asked to give increasingly more severe shocks to another person (actor) in another room
 - 65% gave the maximum level of shock

[The Milgram Study](#)

Factors That Influence Obedience:

- Remoteness of victim
- Closeness and legitimacy of authority figure
- Diffusion of responsibility: obedience increases when someone else does dirty work
- **Not** personal characteristics



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Compliance



Compliance Techniques: strategies to manipulate you to say yes when really no



Norm of Reciprocity: when others treat us well, we should respond in kind



Door-In-The-Face: persuader makes large request, expecting you to reject, then presents smaller request



Foot-In-The-Door: persuader gets you to comply with small request first, and later presents a larger request



Lowballing: commit to an action, then before performing behavior - persuader increases "cost" of same behavior

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Behavior In Groups



- **Social Loafing:** reduce individual effort when working in group than alone
 - *Collective Effort Model:* on collective task, put in only as much effort you expect is needed to reach goal
- More likely to occur when:
 - We believe individual performance is not monitored
 - Task/group has less value/meaning to us
 - We display low motivation to strive for success
 - Expect others will display high effort
- Depends on gender and culture
 - Occurs more strongly in all-male groups
 - Occurs more often in individualistic cultures
- **Social Facilitation:** enhancing performance or putting in more effort in a group setting because we know others are watching, evaluating, and perhaps judging.

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Aggression and Antisocial Behaviour

- Any behaviour **intended** to harm some person, oneself, or object
- **Instrumental aggression:** intentional harm behaviour to achieve goal
 - Steal money/protect loved one/military conflict
 - Motivated by anticipation of rewards/avoidance of punishment
 - Deliberate & rationale
- **Hostile aggression:** triggered by anger with the goal of causing harm.
 - Aim to cause injury/death
 - Motivated only by desire to harm
 - Impulsive & irrational



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Theories of Aggression

Evolutionary approach

- Derived from sociobiology and Darwinism
 - Principles of natural selection
- Human social behaviour understood by its basis in past survival and reproduction
- Violence – result of past contributions to obtaining resources, status and females

Lorenz's ethological theory

- Aggression as instinctive and important evolutionary development

Evaluation

- Hunter-gatherers NOT warriors
- Other animals do kill each other
- Ignores role of learning and culture



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Theories of Aggression

• Dollard's Frustration – Aggression Hypothesis:

- Aggression only triggered by frustration
- Explains acts of displaced aggression (scapegoating)
- Ignores role of situation making displaced aggression impossible despite frustration

• Social Constructionist theory

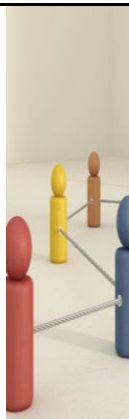
- Aggression is "socially constructed" – judged as aggressive by observer or actor
- Understood in terms of socio-cultural context
 - E.g. football hooliganism
- Confrontation between rival supporters usually ritualised and symbolic – both sides refrain from actual violence



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Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977)

- Aggressive behaviours learned through reinforcement and imitating others
- Emphasise role of **observational learning** or **modelling**, which happens spontaneously.
 - Learning occurs through mere **exposure** to behaviour
 - Whether behaviour is modelled depends on **consequences** of that behaviour.
- The Modeling Process:
 - Attention: must pay attention to model's behavior
 - Retention: must retain info in memory to recall when needed
 - Reproduction: must be capable of reproducing behavior
 - Motivation: must be motivated to display the behavior



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Bandura's (1965) Bobo Doll study



Showned three groups of children film of adult behaving aggressively towards a Bobo Doll

- Group A: saw adult kicking & punching doll
- Group B: as above but saw second adult appear at end and reward adult with sweets and praise
- Group C: same as A but second adult scolded adult and warned against further aggression

Group C children (vicarious punishment):

- showed significantly fewer aggressive acts to Bobo Doll than Group A (control) or Group B (vicarious reward)
- But no difference between Group A and B in number of aggressive acts towards Doll
- Suggests vicarious punishment more powerful than vicarious reward
- Suggests merely **watching** violence can result in acquisition of learned aggressive behaviours

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Pro-social behaviour

- Helping, Comforting, Sharing, Co-operating, Reassuring, Defending, Donating to charity.

Prosocial behaviour and Altruism

- Altruism: absence of any obvious external rewards – motivated by consideration of other's needs rather than own.

- Evolution and Prosocial Behaviour:**
 - Kin Selection: organisms more likely to help others they share most genes - offspring and genetic relatives
 - Increases odds genes will survive across successive generations
 - Even when it means sacrificing own lives because genetic survival is more important than individual survival
 - Reciprocal Altruism: helping others increases odds they will help us or our kin in return



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Bystander intervention

Kitty Genovese (1964) case

- 38 people witnessed brutal murder of KG – none intervened or called police – only one called police after attack - Why?
- Latane & Darley's (1970) Decision Model of Bystander Intervention
 - Because so many people were around no-one helped.....

5-Step Bystander Intervention Process (Latané & Darley, 1970):

- Notice event
- Decide if event is real emergency
 - Social comparison: look to see how others are responding
- Assume responsibility to intervene
 - Diffusion of Responsibility: believe someone else will help
- Decide if you know how to help
 - Self-efficacy in dealing with the situation
 - Decision to help (based on cost-benefit analysis)
- Bystander Effect: presence of others inhibits each person's tendency to help
 - Due to social comparison or diffusion of responsibility



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Who and why do we help?

- Some people more likely to receive help due to
 - Similarity
 - Gender
 - Male bystanders more likely to help women
 - Women equally likely to help either gender
 - Perceived fairness and responsibility
- **Arousal-cost-reward model** (Piliavin et al.)
 - Helping behaviour depends upon
 - **Arousal** in response to need/distress of others
 - Need to reduce negative arousal therefore help
 - **Cost-reward analysis**
 - Assess and weigh up anticipated costs and rewards of helping and not helping



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What are the costs of helping someone?

- Time
- Effort
- Danger
- Embarrassment
- Physical aversion

What are the rewards of helping someone?

- Gratitude
- Fame
- Self-satisfaction
- Money?

What are the costs of not helping someone?

- Guilt
- Blame
- Psychological discomfort

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