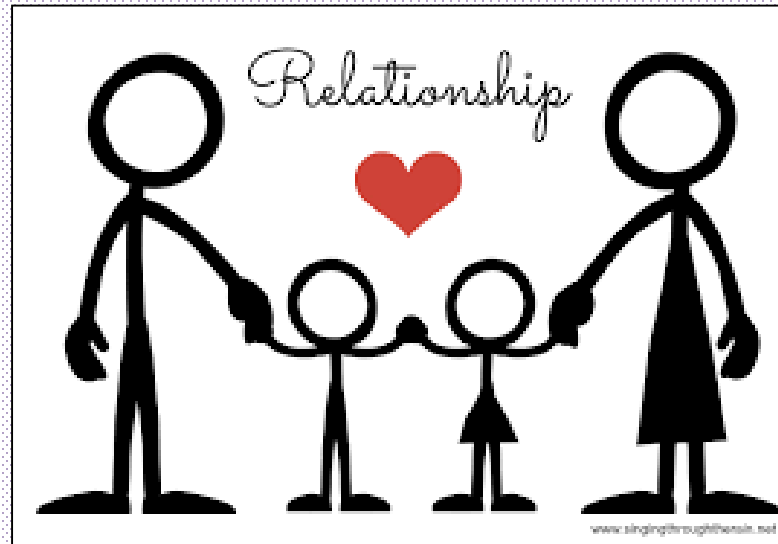


Social Psychology - Lecture 1:

Relationships and Pro-social behaviour



Learning outcomes

- Demonstrate an appreciation of the key theories and concepts that underpin social interaction and relationship formation;
- Describe the psychological theories and concepts relating to social influence and group dynamics;
- Describe a range of theories and concepts within developmental psychology;
- Demonstrate knowledge of infant's and children's physical, social and emotional development;
- Organise their knowledge through the use of a range of information resources and present their work at the appropriate level.

Questions to consider

- What chances are there for average-looking Matt to have a romantic relationship with Melissa, the most beautiful girl in school? How might he be able to overcome the discrepancy in physical attractiveness?
- Leila feels that her husband takes more than he gives, and that she does all the hard work to make their marriage a success. What social psychological theory can you link this to? What are the likely consequences of this relationship imbalance?

Lecture outline: Part 1- Relationships

- Challenges in Studying Attraction, Relationships, and Love
- FROM ATTRACTION TO LIKING
 - Physical Attractiveness
 - Similarity
 - Positive Interaction
- FROM ACQUAINTANCE TO FRIEND: RELATIONSHIP DEVELOPMENT
 - Exchanges of Rewards: What's in it for Me and for You?
 - Self-Disclosure: Let's Talk about Me and You

CLOSE RELATIONSHIPS:



- **Cognitive Interdependence:** The Partner Becomes Part of the Self
- **Behavioural Interdependence:** Transformations in Exchange
- **Affective Interdependence:** Intimacy and Commitment
- Individual Differences in Close Relationships: **Attachment Styles**

The other things...

- **ROMANTIC LOVE, PASSION, AND SEXUALITY**
- Passionate Feelings
- Mate Preference: Who's Looking for What?
- Sex in the Context of a Relationship
- **WHEN RELATIONSHIPS GO WRONG**
- Threats to Relationships
- Handling Conflict: Maintaining Relationships in the Face of Threat
- Break-Up, Bereavement, and Loneliness

Lecture outline: Part 2- Pro-social behaviour.

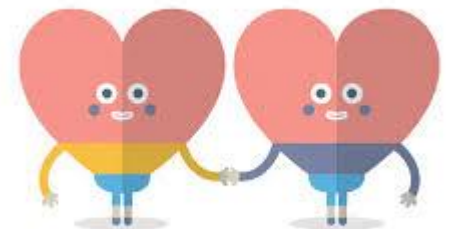
- **WHY DO PEOPLE HELP?**
- **HELPING AND COOPERATION FOR MASTERY AND CONNECTEDNESS**
- **Biological Perspectives:** Is Prosocial Behaviour in Our Genes?
- **Helping for Mastery:** The Personal Rewards and Costs of Helping
- **Helping for Connectedness:** Empathy and Altruism
- **Mastery and Connectedness in Cooperation**



- **ROLE OF SUPERFICIAL OR SYSTEMATIC PROCESSING IN HELPING AND COOPERATION**
 - The Impact of Processing
- **PROSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR IN SOCIETY**
 - Help That Helps; Help That Hurts
 - Increasing Prosocial Behaviour in Society

Challenges in Studying Attraction, Relationships, and Love

- Issue 1: Often nonexperimental designs
 - Therefore it may be difficult to draw causal conclusions
- Issue 2: Often samples of dating students or married couples
 - Although these are convenient populations, are they representative?
 - Far less research on same-sex partnerships (this is increasing though; Peplau & Fingerhut, 2007). More similar than different? (Roisman et al., 2008).
- Issue 3: Most research of the research originates from America
 - Therefore it is difficult to examine cultural differences. Why is this so important? (Goodwin, 1999).



From Attraction to Liking

(IPA- interpersonal attraction)

- In cultures emphasizing voluntary relationships, a relationship often starts with initial feelings of attraction based on:
 - Physical attractiveness (Dion, 2002; Rhodes, 2006; Locher et al., 1993).
 - Similarity (Berscheid & Reis, 1998; Montoya, 2008; Lang et al., 2013).
 - Interaction (Bornstein et al., 1987; Bunk et al., 2002; McAdams & Bryant, 1987).
 - Reciprocity (Collins & Miller, 1994).

Physical determinants of attraction

- Physical appearance
- Hatfield et al. (1966) asked people to complete personality and aptitude tests before being matched for a social dance
- Physical attractiveness rated
- When participants rated their partner...
- Personality and aptitude were poor predictors of ratings
- Only physical attractiveness mattered

Physical Attractiveness



- Effects of attractiveness
 - Stereotype that attractive people are warm and friendly (The Halo effect: Dion, 1972). What is beautiful is good... these decisions are made within 100 milliseconds!
 - An evolutionary basis? (Buss, 1986, Thornhill & Gangestad, 2006) or signs of developmental instability?
 - Access to resources; in low socio-economic areas preferences are for heavier body weights (Swami et al., 2010).
 - Causes everyday interactions to be more pleasant for attractive people, but there is a flip side...

Experiential Bases of Physical Attractiveness

- We like what we see most of- judgements of physical attractiveness are strongly influenced by our experience and our expectations. We are drawn to those who are similar to our opposite sex parent (Little et al., 2003).
- We see those we like as being more attractive than those we dislike. Jensen-Campbell et al., (1995) found that people judged individuals as more attractive when they received information about those individuals possessing positive personality traits, and conversely a man becomes less attractive if women find out that he is flirtatious (Quist et al., 2012).

And...

- It's good to be good-looking:
- More likely to get dates (Berscheid et al., 1971)
- Get better marks at university (Mandy & Sigall, 1974)
- More likely to be successful in job interview (e.g., Dipboye et al., 1977)
- Likely to earn more money (e.g., Frieze et al., 1991)
- Likely to be treated better in the legal system (Downs & Lyons, 1991)

AND...

- Wide variations but strong consensus both within and between cultures (Langlois & Roggman, 1990).
- Is there a 'super person' who everyone finds attractive?
- No... average faces seem to be most attractive (e.g., Halberstadt et al., 2005; Winkielman & Halberstadt, 2006).
- Prototypical (digitized or mathematically average) faces more attractive than real faces because they are closer to the mental prototype of a face and therefore more familiar and easier to process.
- Facial symmetry- A prototypical face is a marker of biological 'quality', a more diverse gene pool, a stronger, better mate and more fertile.
- People prefer dogs, birds, cars (among other things) that are symmetrical.
- And there are gender differences - Women focus on status and men focus on youth and beauty.
- Fertility and status: When ovulating, women prefer the smell of t-shirts worn by symmetrically-faced men , ovulating strippers earn more tips and women are rated as more attractive when at their most fertile.

The Matching hypothesis

- People tend to be attracted to others who are about the same level of physical attractiveness as themselves
- Matched couples tend to have longer-lasting relationships
- Can people “box above their weight”?
- People can compensate or make up for their looks to make themselves attractive in other ways
- e.g., wealth, sense of humour, good social circle

Continued...

- What “assets” can a person bring?
- Looking for equity.
- This can be achieved when people want different things through asset matching.
- “Attractive 28 year old woman seeks professional man”
- “Professional 40 year old man seeks attractive younger woman”.
- People exchange what they want which also makes evolutionary sense (Buss & Schmitt, 1993)- more on this later.

- We assume that those similar to us will also like us. Why?
- Similar others validate our beliefs and attitudes.
- We view our own characteristics as desirable (in-group vs out-group) and being liked by someone is the strongest reason for liking them! (Montoya & Insko, 2008).
- Langlois & Roggman (1990) found that computer generated `average` faces are seen as more attractive than faces with non-representative features, because they represent the `majority`. This is over and above the effects of symmetry.

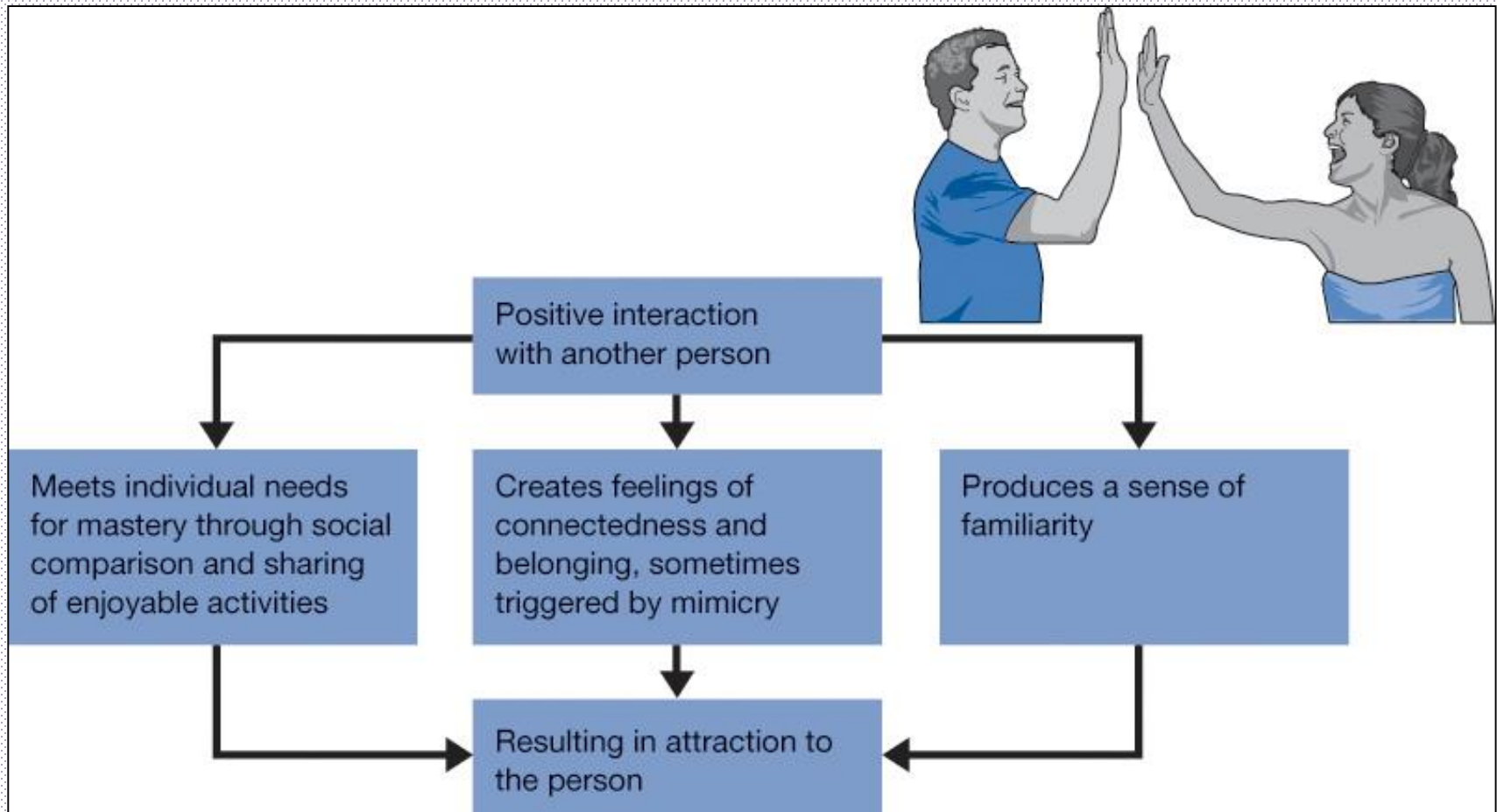
Similarity, familiarity, mastery and connectedness.

- Similar others tend to attract - why?
 - Similarity encourages positive interaction over common interests, etc.
 - This can be for similar attitudes, hobbies, personalities, values, experiences and looks! (Berscheid & Reis, 1998; DeBruine, 2004). People even prefer those with the same initials! (Jones et al., 2004).
 - Liking is even greater if those qualities are most salient to us (Montoya & Horton, 2013).

Why does similarity increase liking?

- As we have just mentioned, similarity signals who is `me and mine
 - If we know they are similar to us, we assume that they will like us.
- Similarity signals familiarity
 - The mere exposure effect (Moreland & Zajonc, 1982). Similarity and familiarity are so close that by just using `we` will trigger feelings of familiarity (Housley et al., 2010).
- Similarity contributes to mastery
 - Shared interests increases the opportunity for interaction, mimicry, co-operation and trust (Kruup et al., 2008).
- Similarity validates connectedness
 - Even a shared birthdate provides us with a sense of connection (Walton et al., 2012). We expect similar others to understand us.

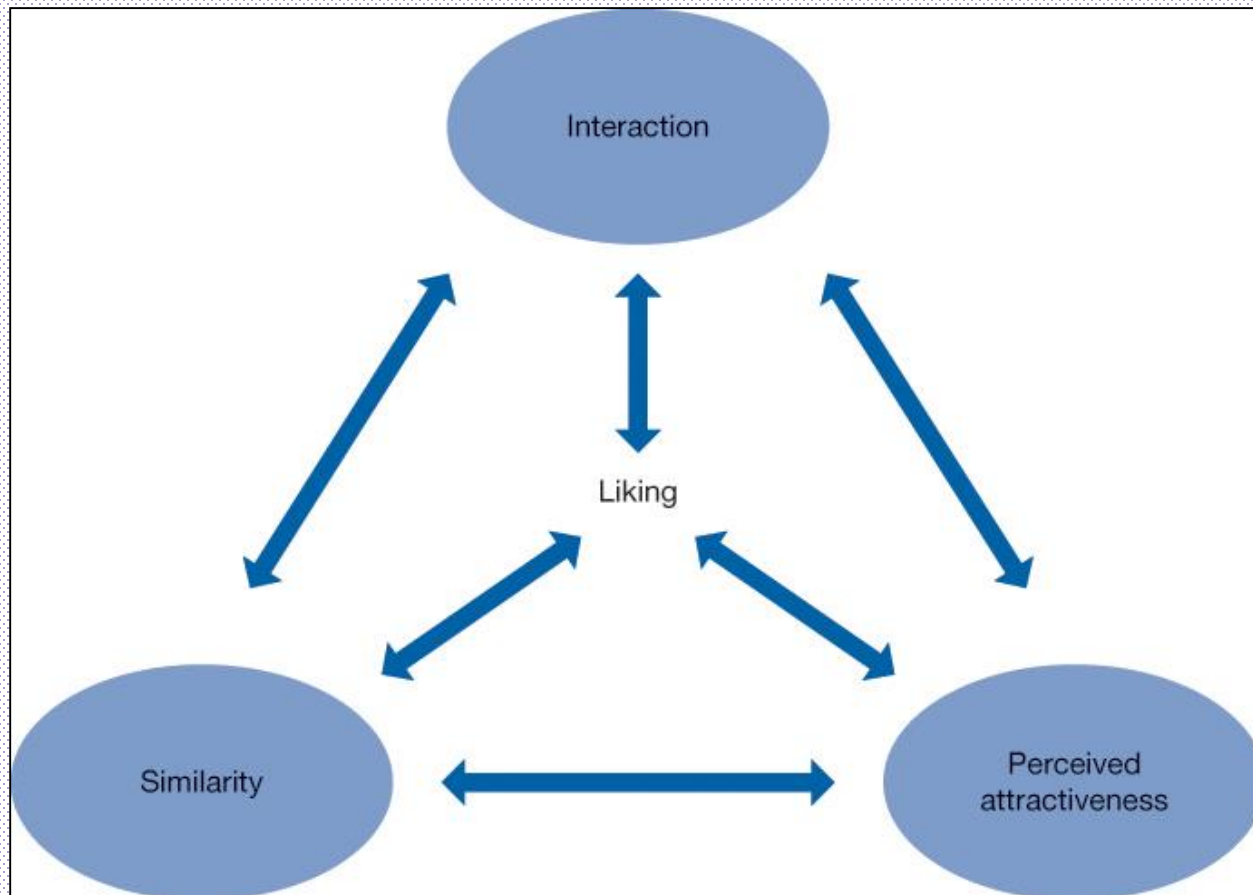
Why Interaction Increases Liking



But...a cautionary word

- Frequent interaction does not always lead to liking.
 - When it fails to meet our needs or is harmful the interaction is terminated.
- Often, the first point of contact sets the scene for all future positive or negative interactions (Sunnafrank & Ramirez, 2004).
 - One study found that incompatible music tastes are one of the most important reasons for dissent amongst university students (Abramovitch, 1997).

Liking, Similarity, Interaction, and Attractiveness: Mutually Reinforcing Processes



Familiarity and proximity

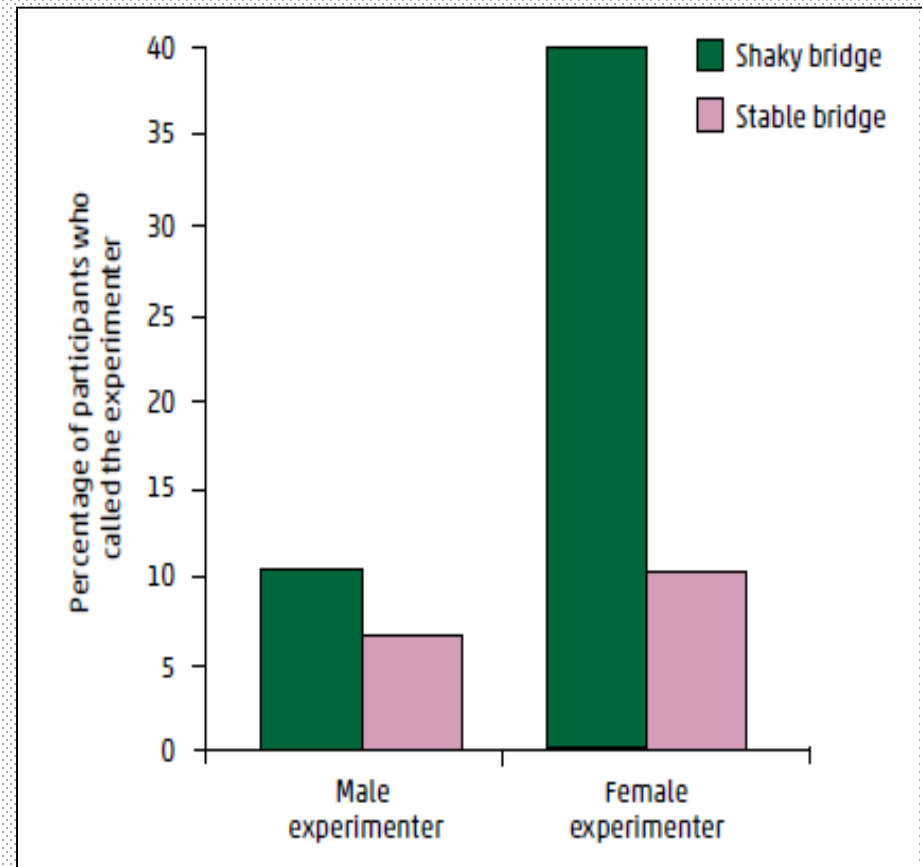
- Finding someone familiar or being close to them can facilitate attraction.
- People prefer faces that look like their own (Little & Perrett, 2002.)
- Prefer faces of opposite sex persons that have been morphed with their own face.
- We are often friends with neighbours who live closest to us.
- The propinquity effect; Festinger et al., (1950).
- We tend to like things that are familiar to us.
- Repeated exposure is likely to lead to increased liking.

Virtual relationships

- Many modern relationships are not dependent on physical proximity.
- Allows relationships that would not normally be possible.
- Social networking.
- Online dating.
- But people can conceal aspects of themselves they don't like (Whitty & Joinson, 2008).
- Increased time online is associated with feelings of depression and loneliness (Kraut et al., 1998).

Physiological arousal

- Dutton and Aron (1974):
- Male participants completed a questionnaire.
- Asked to cross a shaky or stable bridge to pass it to the experimenter (male or female.)
- DV – whether the participants called the experimenter with further queries about the study.
- Excitation transfer and misattribution.



As Relationships Develop...

- They transition from liking based on a person's *individual* characteristics such as attractiveness...
- ...to liking based on the specific history of the interaction between a *pair* of people:
 - Liking will be mutual and reciprocal.
 - The relationship partner may like the person more than others generally do.

Psychological bases of relationships

- Need to affiliate.
- The need to be with others is as fundamental to our psychological wellbeing as our needs for food and water are to our physical wellbeing (Baumeister & Leary, 1995).
- Broad variations in this need.
- Some people prefer to be alone (Craig et al., 1999).
- Fear of death (Wisman & Koole, 2003).
- Being in troublesome situations (Shachter, 1959).

Need for affiliation scale (Buunk et al., 2005)

	SA	A	D	SD
I like to go to places and settings with lots of people.	1	2	3	4
I would never want to live completely on my own.	1	2	3	4
In my leisure time, I prefer to do things together with others.	1	2	3	4
I cannot stand being alone.	1	2	3	4
I prefer to go my own way alone.	1	2	3	4
I really prefer to stay as short a time as possible at occasions where there are lots of people.	1	2	3	4
When on vacation, I avoid contact with other vacationers as much as possible.	1	2	3	4
It is not my thing to undertake something with a group of people.	1	2	3	4
It sounds awful to have a job in which you are alone.	1	2	3	4
I find it stressful to have people around me constantly.	1	2	3	4
I like to talk to others.	1	2	3	4
Even when I am in a relationship, I still have a strong need to be alone.	1	2	3	4
The ideal way to spend my leisure time is to do something on my own.	1	2	3	4
I like to be alone.	1	2	3	4
I love teamwork.	1	2	3	4
I don't like to undertake something totally on my own.	1	2	3	4

Source: Buunk, Zurriaga, Peiro et al., 2005

Exchanges of Rewards: What's in it for Me and for You?

- Rewards each partner obtains from interaction (mastery).
 - Sharing enjoyable activities.
 - Providing social support.
- Rewards directly exchanged in exchange relationships.
 - Each partner rewards the other in order to gain rewards in return.

Social exchange theory and equity theory

- As the relationship develops so do the rewards. Different relationships have differing rules of exchange (Fiske 1992).
- Also as relationships develop, the emphasis grows towards the importance of the other.
- We keep less track of consumption and exchange is based more on assumption.

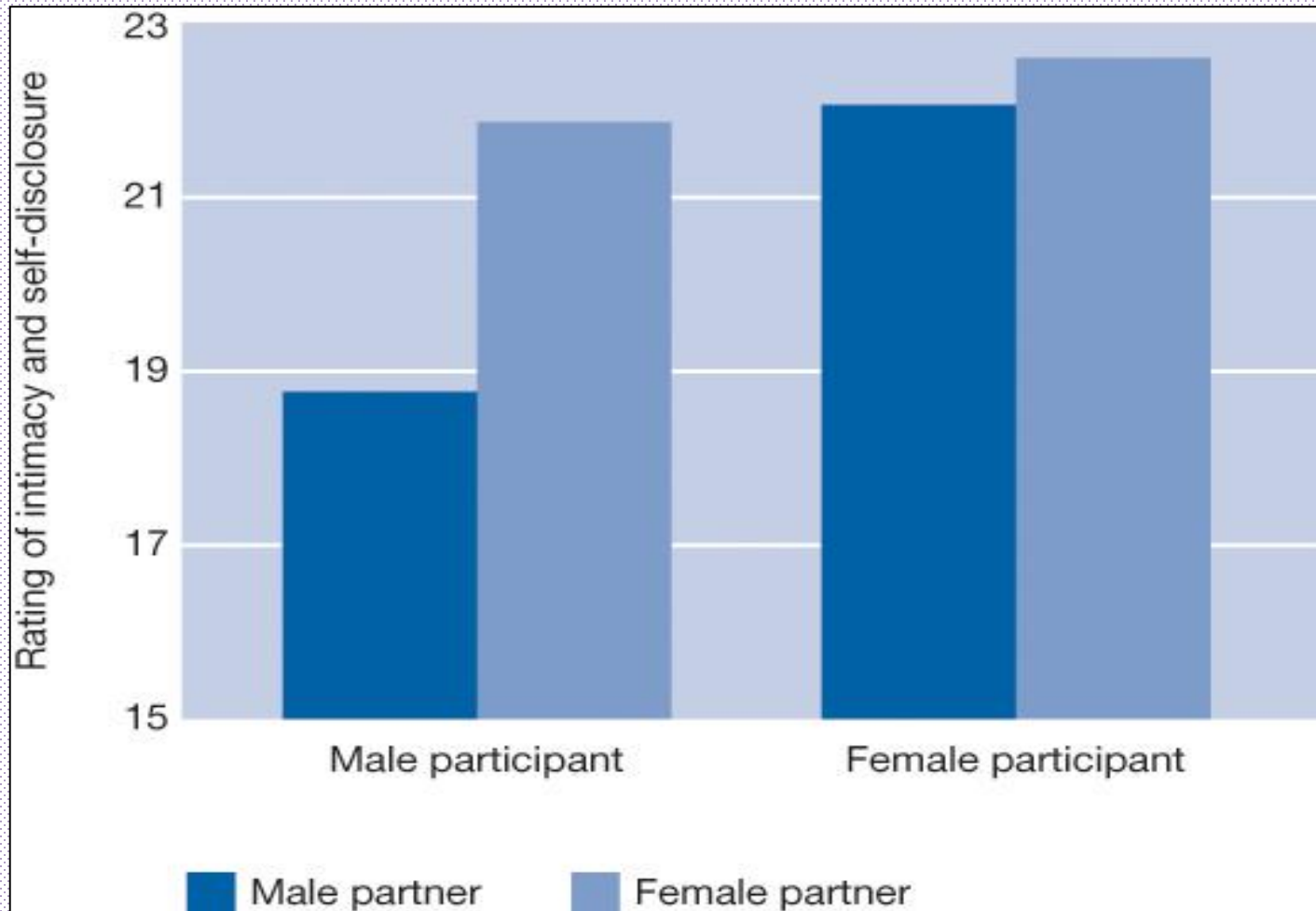
- Social exchange theory relates to friends and acquaintances whereas equity theory is more concerned with romantic relationships.
- According to Adams (1963) in romantic relationships people are satisfied if the rewards and costs are balanced (ratio).
- However, Kelley & Thibaut (1978) argue that 1) people have different expectations from relationships (comparison levels) and 2) we must not forget potential alternative partners (CLA).

- Rusbult (1983) satisfaction is not enough to understand relationship stability. She added a third factor- investment. Investment directly relates to relationship stability.
- McCullough et al., (1998) also refers to the role of forgiveness, which in turn is linked to commitment and willingness to sacrifice (Lange et al., 1997).

Self-disclosure: Let's Talk

- As relationship deepens, partners share more information about self:
 - Self-disclosure increases liking.
 - Generally reciprocated in kind.
 - Signals trust in relationship.
 - Women tend to disclose more than men-
 - Especially regarding feelings and emotions
 - People from individualistic cultures tend to self-disclose more than those from collectivist cultures.

Sex Difference in Self-disclosure



(Data from Reis, 1986.)

Interdependence

- Each partner's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors influence the other.
- **Is this love?**
- Love defined as:
- The “thoughts, feelings, and actions associated with a desire to enter or maintain a close relationship with a specific person” (Aron & Aron, 1991).
- Three types- cognitive, behavioural and affective.

1. Cognitive Interdependence:

The Partner Becomes Part of the Self

- Partner becomes part of the self as relationship processes operate:
 - Self-disclosure: Know partner's thoughts and feelings as well as one's own.
 - Amount of knowledge: Can observe partner in range of situations.
 - Perspective: Think about events from partner's point of view as well as one's own.
 - Control: Can influence partner's actions as well as one's own.

Cognitive Interdependence

- These processes erase typical differences between knowledge about self and others.
- Other becomes part of the self
 - Use “we”.
 - Partner’s characteristics affect how quickly we rate own characteristics. Our self concept contains our partner.

It's the Thought that Counts

- Actual behaviours become less important than attributions regarding the motive behind the action.
- Often attributions in relationships are positively biased (valuing me and mine)
 - Partner's negative behaviours explained away
 - Partner's positive behaviours attributed to love and caring

2. Behavioural Interdependence: Transformations in Exchange

- Outcomes depend on partner's behavioural decisions as well as one's own:
 - Prefer different activities but both want to do activity together: Need to coordinate.
 - Decisions based on concern for partner's outcomes as well as one's own.
 - You treat your partner as you would treat yourself.

Changes in the Distribution of Rewards

- In communal relationships:
 - Partners directly concerned for other's welfare (connectedness).
 - Provide rewards to benefit partner rather than to gain rewards in return.
- Shift from exchange to communal orientation is important turning point in a relationship.
- Aron et al., (1991)- money giving experiment.

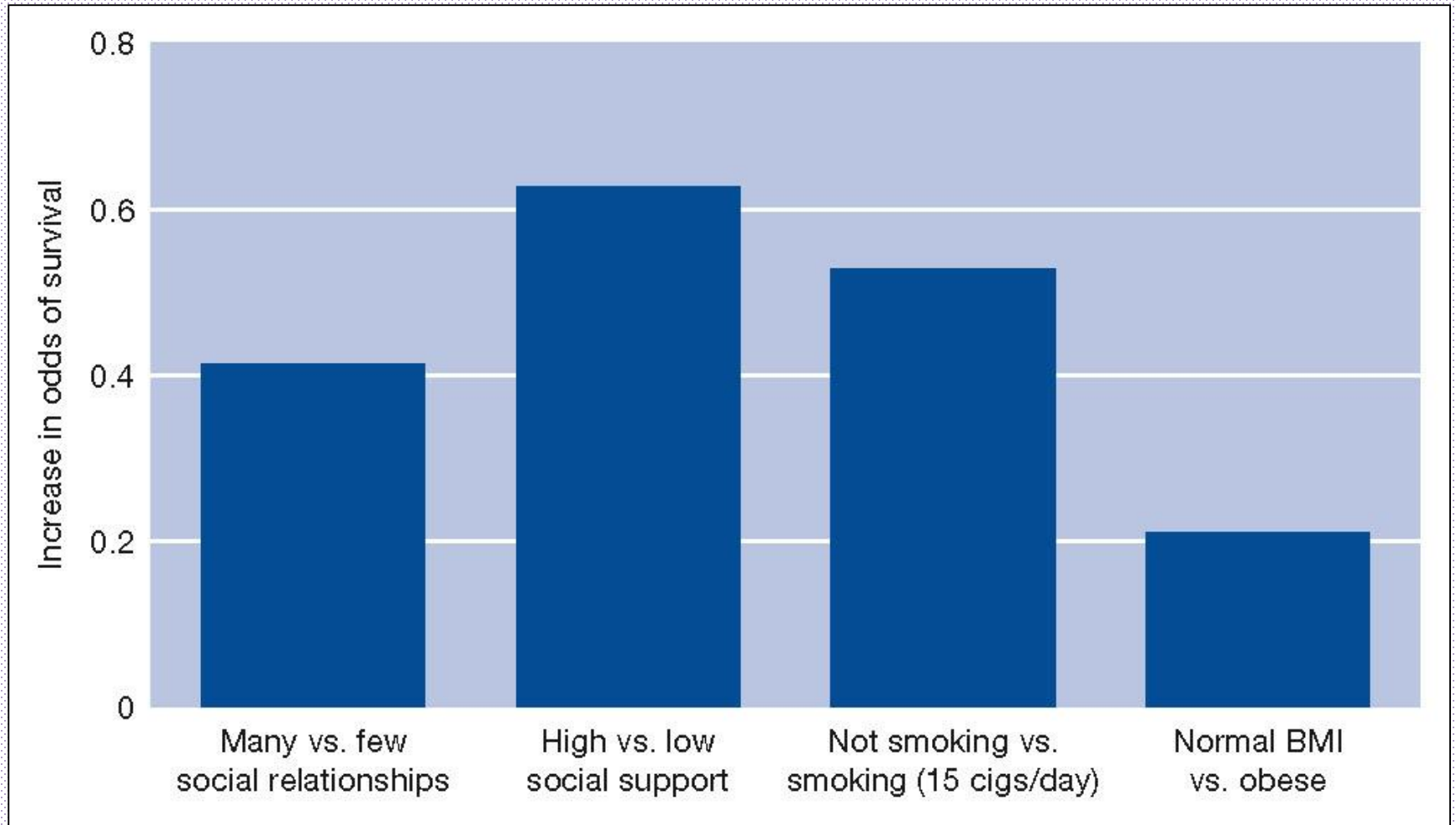
3. Affective Interdependence: Intimacy and Commitment

- Intimacy: Positive emotional bond of understanding and support.
 - Most important reward of close relationships. Each persons emotional well being is affected by what the other does.
 - Built gradually over time through interactions showing support and acceptance.
 - Especially in responses to self-disclosures.

Intimate Interactions and Health

- Intimacy translates into [social support](#), including coping resources provided by relationship partners.
- Strongly related to physical health (Robies et al., 2014). Women benefit even more-
- A) a buffer to stress.
- B) psychological benefits.
- We think with the other person in mind and we believe that the other is trustworthy.

Effects of Social Support



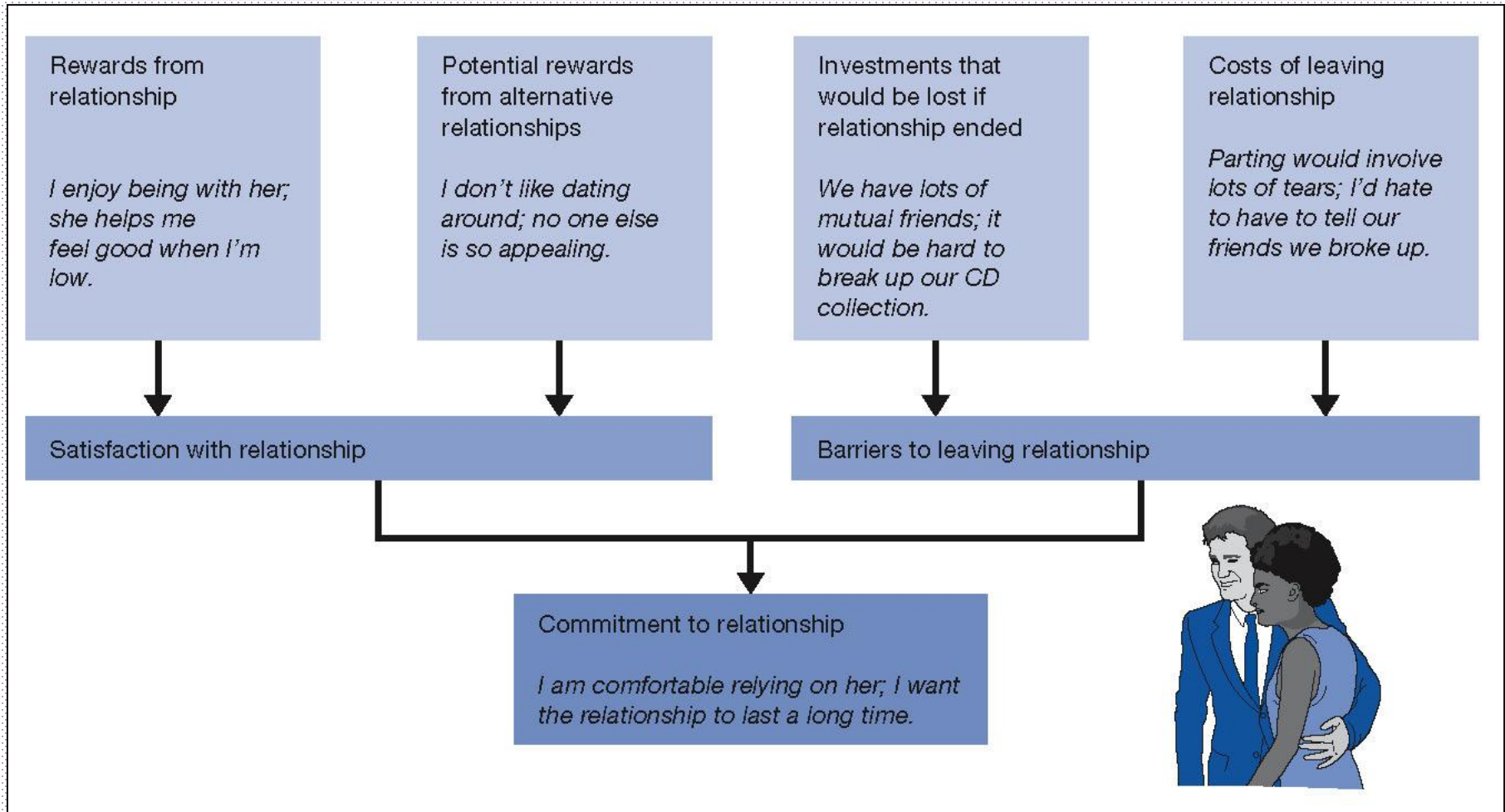
Effects of Social Support

- Emotional support rather than concrete problem solving is most important for social support.
 - Women offer more emotional support than men.
 - So interacting with women is more beneficial for health.
- Social validation helps not only for stressful events, but for enjoyment of positive events.

Commitment

- Commitment: Long-term orientation toward relationship, with intention to maintain it over time and strong emotional bond to partner.
 - Commitment develops over time.
 - This allows partners to trust that the other will be there for them.
- Commitment depends on:
 - Satisfaction with relationship (based on its rewards, etc.).
 - Comparison level for alternatives: Rewards perceived to be available in alternative relationships.
 - Barriers to leaving relationship: Accumulated investments of time, money; mutual friends, etc.

Processes of Commitment



(Based on Rusbult, 1983.)

Commitment

- Biases maintain commitment to relationships.
- Example: Simpson, Gangestad, and Lerma (1990).
 - Students in committed relationships see alternative partners as less attractive (reducing comparison level for alternative partners).
- Commitment strongly predicts how long a relationship will last.

Individual Differences in Close Relationships: Attachment Styles

- People differ in degree of comfort with intimacy and reliance on partner.
- [Attachment styles](#): General beliefs about self and others that influence orientations toward relationships.
 - Originate in infancy, begin with relationship to caregiver.
 - Also influenced by experiences in adult relationships.

Attachment styles

TABLE 12.1 An Example of Statements Measuring Attachment Styles in Adult Close Relationships

1. It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.
 2. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important to me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.
 3. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships, but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.
 4. I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.
-

Source: From Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). Copyright © 1991 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted with permission.

Effects on Relationship Processes

- Example: Simpson, Rholes, and Nelligan (1992).
 - When upset, women classified as secure and preoccupied sought support from male partner.
 - Dismissing and fearful women who were more upset actually sought less support.
 - Securely attached men offered more support.
 - If offered, support actually helped calm all the women.

Relationships in Cultural Perspective

- Western independent cultures assume relationships are voluntary, often temporary.
- Interdependent cultures stress ties to kin and social groups, thus, processes may differ.
- Romantic love.
 - More valued in independent cultures.
 - In interdependent cultures, it is seen as socially disruptive.

Pro-social behaviour – when do people help?

- Behaviour whose immediate intention is to help or benefit others.
 - Other goals may be present as well.
- Studies examine:
 - Helping in emergencies.
 - Minor, everyday favours (giving so someone can use the pay phone).
 - Donating organs or blood.
 - Caring for disabled or elderly relatives.

Reasons for Pro-social Behaviour

- Altruism: Prosocial behaviour motivated by desire to help others for its own sake, not for personal rewards.
- Egoism: Prosocial behaviour motivated at least in part by desire for personal rewards (mastery).
 - Including positive feelings about having helped.
- Decisions:
 - Is help needed?
 - Is help deserved?
 - Should I help?

Is Help Needed and Deserved?

- Distracting surroundings may prevent noticing need. E.g. busy places (Korte et al., 1975).
- Positive moods increase attention to others' needs (Schaller & Cialdini 1990)- bad or good mood in helping a student task.
- Other people's reactions shape our interpretations (pervasive social influence).
 - If others are unresponsive, we may be too.

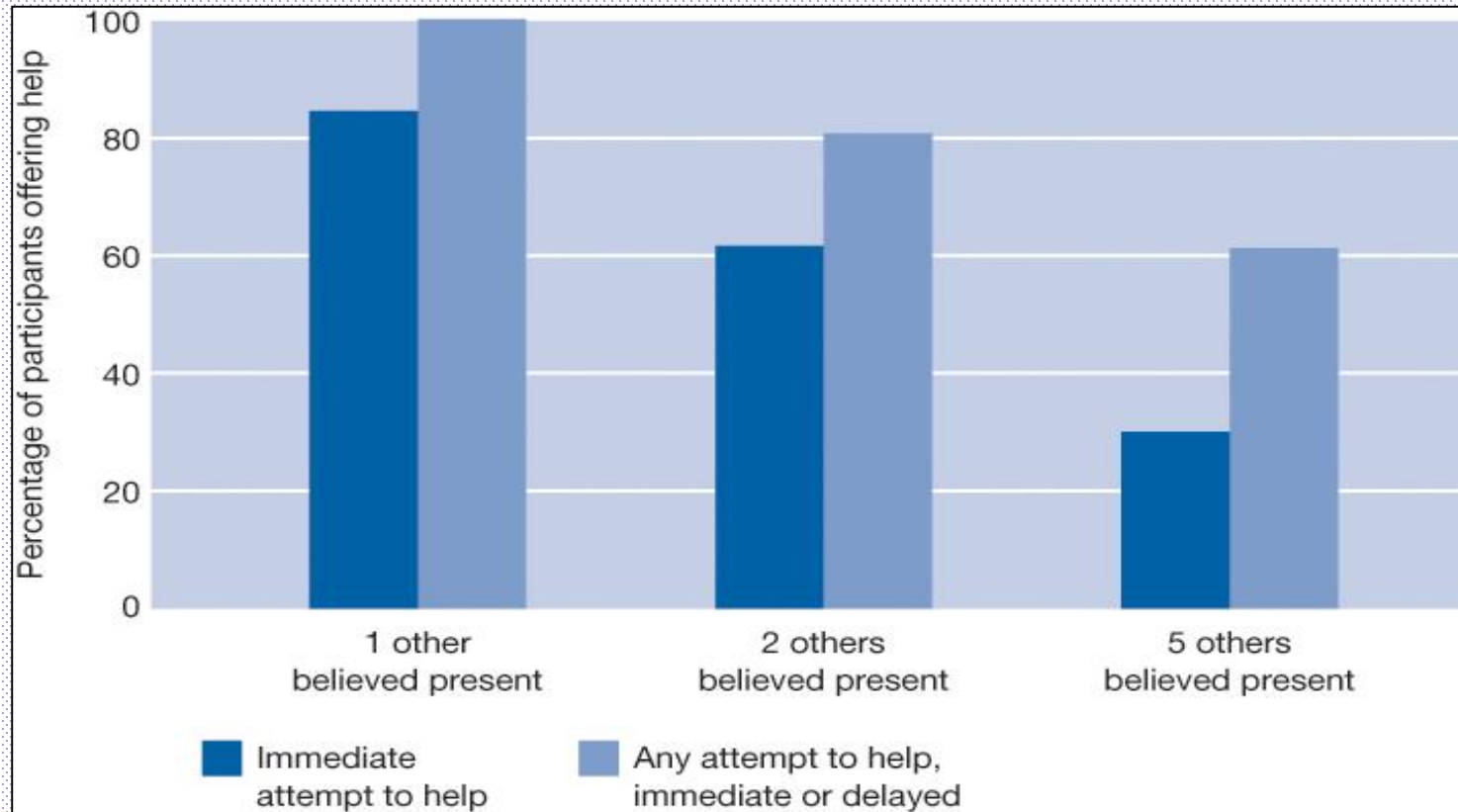
Is Help Needed and Deserved?

- Norm of social responsibility: Give aid to the helpless or dependent (Caporael & Brewer, 1991). Some people who think they have more than they should, will take less or give more.
- Seen in cohesive groups more frequently.
- Attributions regarding controllability of need.
 - Is the person ill, or drunk? (Fiske et al., 2002).

Should I Help?

- Is it up to me to help?
- Jayna Murray killed by work colleagues (2011).
- Research inspired by bystander failure to help in [Kitty Genovese](#) murder.
 - [1964 documentary about the Kitty Genovese murder](#)
- If more others are present, then each individual feels less need to help.
 - Not because they do not care about the situation.

Darley and Latané (1968)



- People offered help less often when they thought more bystanders were present.

Do Norms Make Helping Inappropriate?

- Norm of family privacy: Strangers reluctant to intervene in family matters.
 - Even physical attack or abuse.
- Others' failure to help produces norm of not helping.

Do Norms Make Helping Appropriate?

- If other people help, then people perceive norm of helping.
 - Thus, pro-social models are effective.
- Individuals learn personal norms of helping, often from parents or other role models.
- Religious teachings of norms of helping.

Biological Perspectives: Is Prosocial Behavior in our Genes?

- One interpretation of evolutionary theory: Tendency to aid another at a cost to the helper's survival cannot be an evolved genetic predisposition.
 - But some types of helping benefit helper as well.
 - Helping kin (even at personal cost) may increase genes' survival.
 - Helping other group members may benefit group's survival.

Biological Perspectives: Is Pro-social Behavior in our Genes?

- As with aggression, tendencies to help not “hardwired”.
- Depend on flexible interpretations of situations (construction of reality)- cognitive and emotional processes guiding behavior is a variety of situations.
- Motives to help engaged by particular cues, such as kinship or emotional closeness of the person in need.

Helping for Mastery: The Personal Rewards and Costs of Helping

- Helping strongly influenced by perceived rewards and costs,
 - Even seemingly trivial costs, such as lost time,
- Helper's abilities affect costs and rewards,
 - Example: training in first aid (e.g., CPR, Heimlich maneuver, mouth-to-mouth resuscitation),
- In many kinds of emergencies, men see themselves as more capable of helping,
 - Potential explanation for men's greater willingness to help found in much research (Eagly & Crowley, 1986),
- Self efficacy and confidence will elicit more helping behavior.

Emotional Rewards of Helping

- Some rewards of helping are emotional: Helping makes us feel good (Isen, 1990),
- Happy people are more likely to help others,
 - Especially if the helping will maintain their mood (Isen & Simmonds, 1978),
- Sad or guilty people may help to escape from their negative mood (Nelissen et al., 2007),

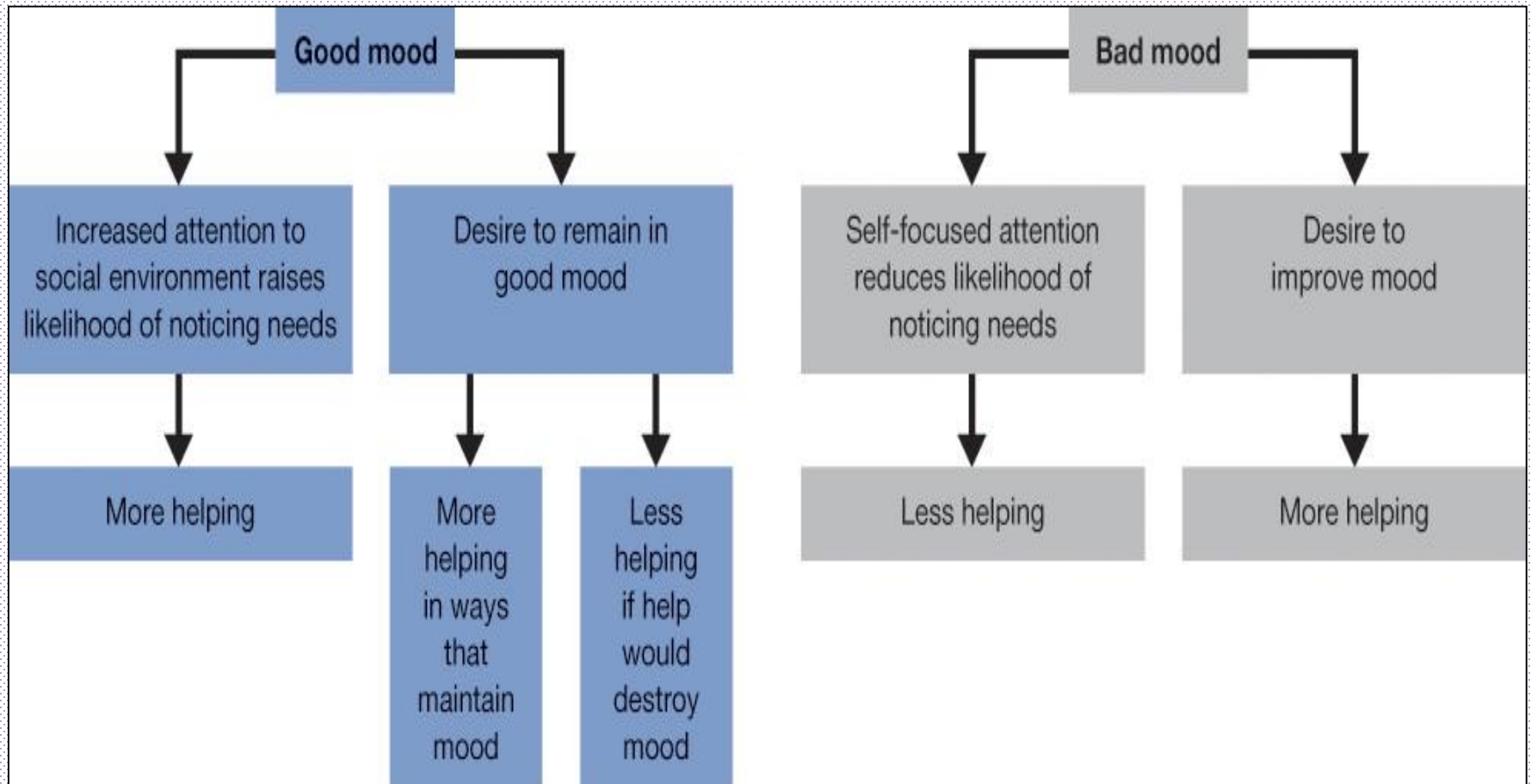
Is Helping Pure Egoism?

- Helping could be seen as due to personal rewards (mastery) in all cases, if unobservable emotional rewards are included (Schaller & Cialdini, 1988),
- Negative-state relief model of helping: Seeing others suffer causes negative feelings, which are relieved by offering help,
 - Also can be relieved by escape or distraction,

Is Helping Pure Egoism?

- But evidence suggests sad people are not always helpful:
 - Due to self-focused attention.
 - Example: Thompson, Cowan, and Rosenhan (1980):
 - Participants imagine friend is dying.
 - Focus either on own feelings or on friend's feelings.
 - Offered unrelated opportunity to help.
 - Only 25% of self-focused participants helped as compared to 83% of other-focused participants who helped.

Multiple Effects of Mood



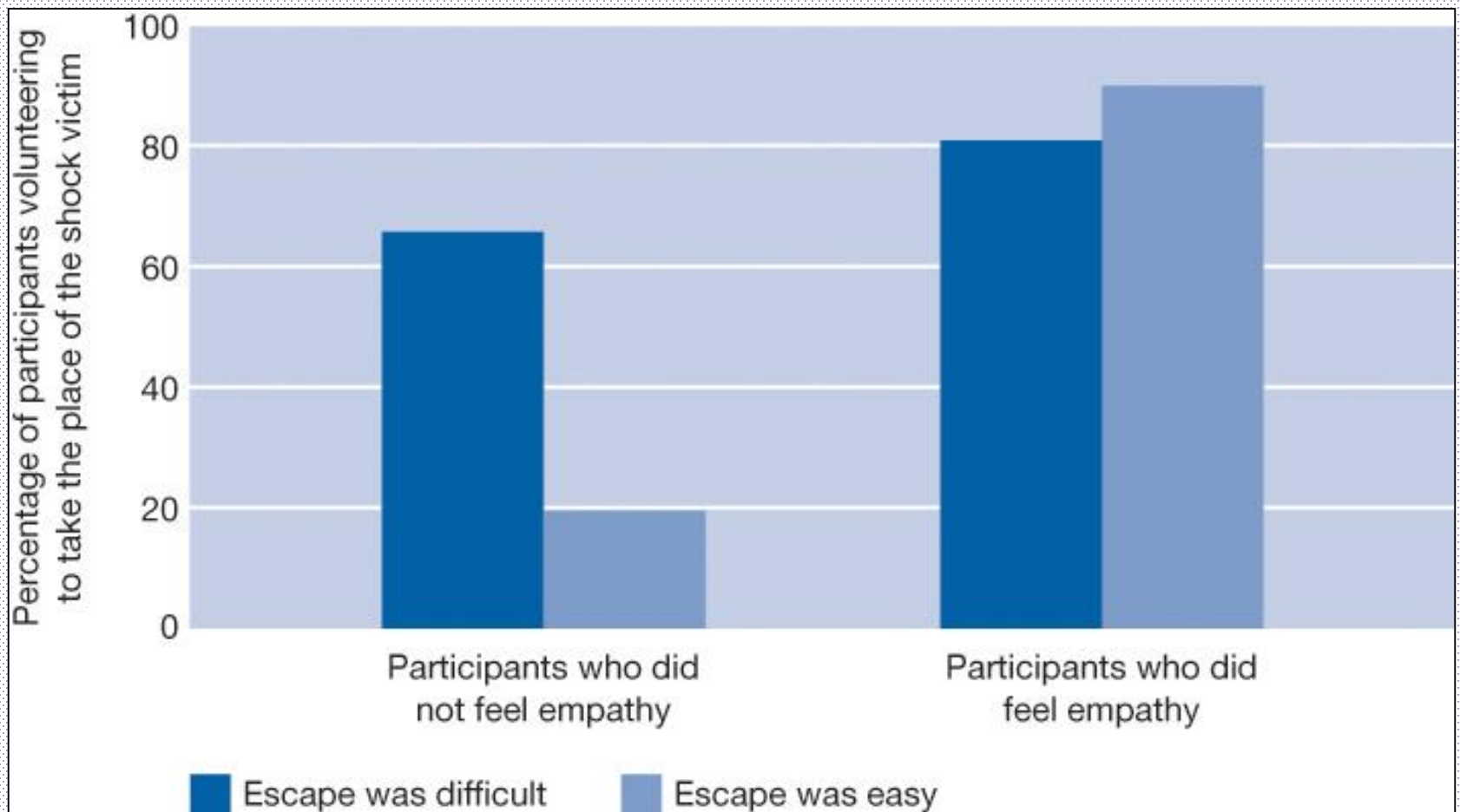
Helping for Connectedness: Empathy and Altruism

- Empathy-altruism model: People can experience two types of emotional response to others' need.
 - Personal distress (anxiety, upset, fear).
 - Empathic concern (sympathy, compassion).
- Personal distress motivates egoistic helping or escape.
- Empathic concern motivates altruistic helping.
- **Example: Elaine study by Batson et al., (1981) next slide-**

Batson et al., (1981)

- Students see “Elaine” very upset by receiving shocks.
- Emotional empathy with Elaine manipulated.
- Ease of escape from situation manipulated.
- Is student willing to receive the shocks in Elaine’s place?
- Empathy motivates helping even if escape would be easy.

Batson et al. (1981)



Helping for Connectedness: Empathy and Altruism

- Not surprising that helping can be motivated by feelings of empathy (connectedness to others) as well as personal rewards (mastery).
- Even a minimal connection can increase likelihood of helping.
 - Example: Someone on the street asking you the time or directions.

Mastery and Connectedness in Co-operation

- People help in-group members more than others (valuing me and mine)- more on this next week!
- Social identification turns good of the group into the goal of the individual.

Social Dilemmas and measuring pro-social behaviour

- Situations directly pitting individual interests against group interests.
- Each group member is better off not co-operating. The temptation is high because rewards are not often immediate.
 - Regardless of what others do.
- All members of group are better off if all members cooperate (Van Lange et al., 2013).

Types of Social Dilemmas

- Resource depletion dilemmas.
 - Participants harvest common resource
 - Examples: Fish in sea, land for farming, diamond mines
 - Each motivated to take as much as possible.
 - But over-harvesting will deplete resource, leaving nothing for anyone.
- Public goods dilemmas.
 - Public good: Has to be provided for everybody (even those who do not contribute), or not provided at all.
 - Examples: public TV, unpolluted air, strong military defense, medical care.
 - Individuals motivated to take goods without paying (“free riding”).
 - But if nobody pays, resource will not be available.

Mastery Motives in Social Dilemmas: Rewards and Costs

- Usually people follow individual interests and end up losing the resource.
- Behavior reinforced by norm (see or expect that others will do the same).
- Often individual greed (desire for rewards: mastery) seems most important motivator.
- Examples of this...

Mastery Motives in Social Dilemmas: Rewards and Costs

- Structural solutions change the payoffs in the situation.
 - Set quotas (maximum permissible harvests) of depletable resource.
 - Provide public good by taxing everyone (enforced contributions).
- This requires enforcement, which may be difficult.

The Role of Trust

- Trust increases co-operation and the more peoples interests are in conflict the more important it becomes. To improve trust you:
- Ensure communication among group members.
 - Allowed to communicate, groups form norm of cooperation, promise to comply.
 - Works better for smaller groups.
- Ensure equality among group members.
 - Inequality of resource use raises uncertainty about how others will behave.

Connectedness Motives in Social Dilemmas: Social Identification

- Social identification with group should promote cooperation.
 - Individuals adopt group goals as their own.
 - People assume other group members will also cooperate.
 - Group norms favoring cooperation become accessible guides for action.
 - Individuals contribute to public good --even if they realize others' contributions are sufficient, so their contribution isn't actually needed!

Individual Differences in Cooperation

- Some individuals oriented toward cooperation in general (others have more competitive orientations) –social value orientations (Van Lange, 1990).
- Gender differences.
 - Men and women cooperate to a similar extent (Balliet et al., 2011) meta analysis.

The role of superficial or systematic processing in helping behaviour.

- Emergencies often limit processing (Penner et al., 2005).
 - No time; emotional arousal.
 - People act on most accessible feelings or norms.
 - Empathy for others may outweigh thoughts of personal danger
 - Helping someone who is being mugged
 - Helping to reduce water useage
 - Presence of others makes helping less likely.

The Impact of Systematic Processing

- Planned, long-term helping allows systematic processing.
 - Examples: Volunteering for service organizations, contributing to charities.
- Repeatedly helping others leads to self-perception as helpful.
 - Reinforces the idea of further helping.

The Impact of Systematic Processing

- Multiple goals support long-term helping, such as volunteering. Systematic processing can reverse an original decision. E.g. Dutch family sheltering a Jewish baby.
- Clary et al., (1998) six main goals serving-
 - Egoistic concerns (**mastery**: gaining understanding, new skills, earning social approval).
 - Altruistic concerns (**connectedness**: empathy for others' needs, expressing values in humanitarian service).
 - Group identification (**valuing me and mine**: helping fellow group members).

Do you Get More Helping from Impulse or from Deliberation?

- People are most likely to engage in pro-social behaviour when the decision to cooperate is made quickly (Rand et al., 2012).
 - Example: Helping a person out of a burning building or calling 999 to report an accident/crime.

Help that Helps; Help that Hurts

- Helping can be positive and inspire gratitude.
- However, helping can also make people feel that they owe favour in return (norm of reciprocity).
- Helping can make recipient of help seem less capable or less competent.
 - Welfare and other programs offering financial and social assistance need to be sensitive to mixed messages when offering aid.

Increasing Prosocial Behaviour in Society

- Reduce ambiguity of situation, make need for help clear.
 - Labeling the situation increases helping- if helping behavior is internalized more likely to help in future.
- Increase internal attributions for helping.
 - Seeing self as helpful, altruistic increases future helping and schools can teach pro-social norms.

Increasing Pro-social Behavior

- Teach norms that support helping, co-operation.
 - Models in media are important.
- Make pro-social norms accessible.
 - Activating norms can indicate helping is a personal responsibility.
 - Self-awareness due to mirror can increase volunteering.

Increasing Pro-social Behaviour

- Avoid diffusion of responsibility.
 - Indicate what particular person is supposed to help.
- Promote identification with those in need.
 - Feelings of connectedness motivate helping even at personal costs.
 - Religious faith can have this effect.