



Prejudice and Discrimination

Lecture Three

Social Cognition

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- How do we know the things we know?
 - Where do we get the information from that helps to form our stereotypes, attitudes and opinions about other groups?
- Does watching every episode of 'The Wire' make me an expert on people from East Baltimore?
- How many Afghan refugees do you know personally?
 - Probably have opinions, attitudes, beliefs about them
 - These are the components of a stereotype

Social Cognition

- How people think about themselves and others (Hamilton, 1981)
- How we process information and how we then use that information within our cognitive system (Brewer & Kramer, 1985)
- Stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination does not occur in isolation from our cognitive processes
 - It is often highly influenced by them

What Influences Our Use Of Information?

- Salience of the situation in the environment
- Figure/Ground
- Attribution

Affect

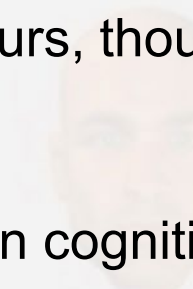
- Affect = the emotional response to a stimulus (*a feeling*)
- Attitude = evaluation of an object
 - Affect
 - Behaviour
 - Cognition (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)
- Attitudes viewed as stable and enduring traits (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975)
 - So the attitudes, behaviours and cognitions towards an outgroup should remain stable across time and situations

- Mead (1963)
 - “(People) must be taught to hate, but the appreciation and fear of difference is everywhere”
- We seem to naturally fear/feel apprehensive about things that are different to the norm (Billig & Tajfel, 1973)
 - Outgroups are different to the norm
 - Outgroups are different to our norm
- So if we are apprehensive about an outgroup, the feeling that goes with that apprehension is likely to be negative
 - So *Affect* is likely to be *negative* towards outgroups

- But... Devine (1989) – People with low prejudice know about stereotypes of their outgroup, so if they have the same information why don't they have the same affect?
- May not be as simple as a basic ABC attitude response



• Anxiety

- The most common affective feeling in intergroup interactions (Esses & Zanna, 1995)
 - Anxiety disruptive to behaviours, thoughts and other feelings (Stephen & Stephen, 1985)
 - Anxiety leads to a reduction in cognitive capacity (Bodenhausen, 1993)
 - Anxiety leads to increased stereotyping and avoidance of future interactions (Fiske et al., 1996)
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Positive Affect

- Happiness
 - Happy people more likely to use stereotypes (Hamilton et al., 1993; Isen et al., 1982)
- Why? Either...
 - Being happy uses up cognitive resources and leaves less room for processing
 - No motivation to think carefully (and expend cognitive processes) and so rely on stereotypes
- Bodenhausen et al. (1994a)
 - Seems people have the ability to process carefully when required, so more likely to be motivated

Negative Affect

- Anger

- Anger in the perceiver – more stereotypic judgements (Bodenhausen et al., 1994b)
- Anger in the target – deeper processing of angry target (Ackerman et al., 2004)
- But more likely to stereotype if prejudiced (Hugenberg & Bodenhausen, 2003, 2004; Hutchings & Haddock, 2008)

- Sadness

- Leads to greater processing and less use of stereotypes (Bodenhausen et al., 1994b; Ellis & Ashbrook, 1988)

Motivation

- As seen previously, we are often motivated to maintain our mood if happy
 - So less processing and more use of stereotypes
- Also motivated to avoid dissonance (Festinger, 1959)
 - So attitudes, cognitions and behaviours should match

Cognition

- The interaction between implicit and explicit prejudice
- Low Implicit/Low Explicit = Egalitarian/Truly Low Prejudiced
- High Implicit/Low Explicit = Aversive Racists
- Low Implicit/High Explicit = Principled Conservatives
- High Implicit/High Explicit = Modern Racists
- Modern studies
 - Implicit prejudice: Hugenberg and Bodenhausen (2004); Hutchings and Haddock (2008)
 - Interaction between Implicit and Explicit prejudice: Son Hing et al. (2006, 2008); Sullivan and Hutchings (2019, in press)

How Did We Get To This Point?

- Implicit memory – first explored in depth in amnesic patients (i.e., the mirror maze task)
- Led to the theory in memory that we have an explicit, conscious memory for experienced events and an implicit, unconscious memory
- Given many names
 - Automatic (implicit) versus Controlled (explicit; Devine, 1989)
 - Mindful (explicit) versus Mindless (implicit; Langer, 1989)
 - Intended (explicit) versus Unintended (implicit; Uleman & Bargh, 1989)

Cognition

- Increased cognitive load = Increased stereotyping
 - To be expected
- As cognitive resources become limited, so we need to take mental shortcuts to allow the allocation of resources
- This is the main function of stereotypes – to allow for this very action

- Implicit Association Test – consciously exploring the unconscious

- Participants see the things priming them (faces and words)
- Their reactions to them are the implicit (unconscious) part, as measured by reaction time

- Priming – unconsciously exploring the unconscious

- Participants unaware of the prime (e.g., rapidly displayed word or picture)
- Task response measured

The Big Argument

- What do implicit and explicit prejudices show us?
 - Devine (1989) – explicit prejudice different for high and low prejudiced participants, but implicit prejudice the same for all
 - Suggests implicit prejudice is a measure of knowledge of cultural stereotypes rather than a measure of prejudice *per se*
- Dijksterhuis and Knippenberg (1996); Lepore and Brown (1997); Wittenbrink et al. (1999)
 - Differences in implicit prejudice, similar to the type seen in explicit prejudice, suggest implicit prejudice is a form of prejudice
 - Leads to a different form of stereotyping and discrimination, such as that seen in Aversive Racists

- One of the big areas of active research in prejudice psychology at the moment