

Group Dynamics

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Minimal group paradigm

- Tajfel, Billig, Bundy and Flament (1971)
 - Schoolboys
 - Preferences for Kandinsky or Klee
 - Task – to distribute money between pairs of recipients identified only by code number and art preference
 - Participants strongly favoured own group
 - No self-interest (not a recipient)
 - Only criteria for group was art preference
- Second task – identified only as group X and group Y members – no personal characteristics could be inferred by preferences
- Robust finding – merely being categorised as a group member = ethnocentrism and competitive intergroup behaviour





- 'A collection of two or more interacting persons who share common goals, have a stable relationship, are somehow interdependent, and perceive that they are in fact part of a group.'

(Paulus, 1989)

- Many types of group e.g.:
 - Religious groups
 - National groups
 - Racial groups
 - Gender groups
 - Organisational groups
 - Friendship groups



- Paulus - subjective definition

- Contains no objective characteristics of groups

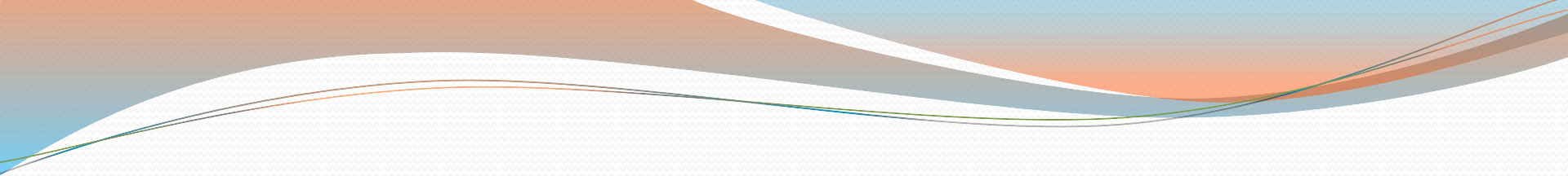
e.g. common fate (Lewin, 1948) or face-to-face interaction (Bales, 1950)

- Emphasizes common identity

- Identification of groups recognizes that

- Some people do not belong
- Some groups are more cohesive than others





To be part of a group....

- Interaction
- Interdependence
- Relatively stable relationship persisting over a time period
- Sharing of some kind of common goal, or goals
- Structured interaction
- Recognition that they are part of a group

Are all collections of people 'groups'?

- **Social aggregates** – collections of unrelated people
- **Individualist** tradition – we act as individuals regardless of social context
(e.g. Latane, 1981)
- **Collectivist** tradition – groups possess unique characteristics that shape the processes, understandings and behaviours of group members
(e.g. Sherif, 1936, Tajfel and Turner, 1979, Abrams and Hogg, 2004)

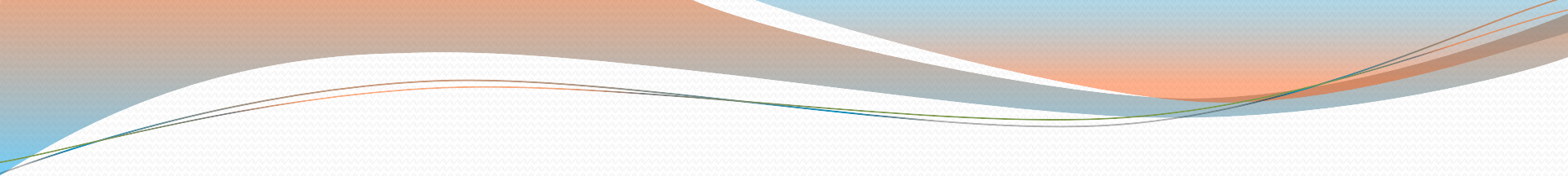
- **Sociobiological perspective** (e.g. Bowlby)

- Adaptive value of forming groups
 - Protection
 - Cooperation
- The need to belong – innate and universal (Baumeister and Leary, 1995)

- **Cognitive perspective**

- e.g. social comparison theory
 - The need to hold accurate views of the world
 - Belief with no basis in physical reality (e.g. preferences)

- **Social Identity Theory** (Tajfel, 1979; Tajfel and Turner, 1986)
 - Personal identity – qualities and characteristics which are strictly individual
 - Social identity - that part of the individual's self-concept which derives from:
 - his/her knowledge of his/her membership of a social group (or groups)
 - the value and emotional significance of that membership
 - Our self-concept partly depends on how we evaluate the ingroup relative to other groups
 - The self as a group member - may result in multiple selves

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- Self-categorization Theory (Turner, 1984) – development of social identity theory

- Utilitarian perspective

- e.g. Social Exchange Theory (Thibaut and Kelley, 1959)

Also applies to group relationships/interactions

- Social relations – fulfilment of own needs
 - Costs must outweigh benefits
 - Opportunities for alternatives – e.g. chances of becoming a member of a more desirable group

Entitativity

- Campbell (1958)
- Property of a group that marks it as a coherent and bounded social entity in its own right
- Groups differ in entitativity (*e.g. Lickel et al, 2000*)

e.g. group size, beliefs, practices



- Lickel et al (2000)

- 40 groups
- Members of a jury, people waiting at a bus stop, family members, black people
- 8 dimensions:
 - Degree of interaction among members
 - Importance of group members to each other
 - Common goals for group members
 - Common outcomes
 - Similarity among group members
 - Duration
 - Permeability (ease of joining/leaving)
 - Size
- Entitativity
- Sorting task according to own criteria
- Some groups consistently sorted into the same categories
- Groups in same category rated similarly on the eight dimensions

Type of group (examples)

	Intimacy group	Task group	Social category	Loose association
Degree of interaction among members	High	Moderate/High	Low	Low
Importance of group members to each other	High	Moderate/High	Low	Low
Common goals for group members	High	Moderate/High	Low	Low
Common outcomes	High	Moderate/High	Low	Low
Similarity among group members	High	Moderate	Low	Low
Duration	Long	Moderate	Long	Short
Permeability	Low	Moderate	Low	High
Size	Small	Small	Large	Moderate
Entitativity	High	High	Moderate	Low

(Lickel et al, 2000)

Entitativity

- Single most important predictor = Interaction among group members
- Positive correlation between entitativity and:
 - Importance of group members
 - Common goals
 - Common outcomes
 - Group member similarity
 - Duration

Link to common fate (Lewin, 1948); face-to-face interaction (Bales, 1950))

- Weak negative correlation:
 - Group size
 - Permeability
- Johnson et al (2006) – Different group types – different functions for members
e.g. affiliation (need to belong), achievement-based needs and;
social identity (Hogg et al., 2007)

Socially-shared cognition and affect

- Shared understandings of aspects of group life – tasks, roles, skills and abilities
- Coordination, Communication, Cooperation
(Van Ginkel and Van Knippenberg, 2008)
- Example (cognition) - **transactive memory** – knowing who to ask for a specific piece of information. No need for one person to know it all
(Wegner, 1987)
- Example (affect) – **emotional contagion** – transfer of moods and emotions among group members
(George, 1990; Barside, 2002)

Cohesiveness

Binds members to the group *(Festinger, 1950)*

- Liking for each other (interpersonal cohesion)
- Sharing of same goals (task cohesion)
- Feeling that the group satisfies their needs more than another could



- **Depersonalised attraction**

Group members embody/represent important or desirable features

- Personal characteristics of individual group members play a small role in this type of attraction

(Hogg and Hains, 1996)



- Cohesiveness - multidimensional – factors can vary independently of one another

(Zaccaro and McCoy, 1988)

- Two primary dimensions involved in cohesiveness

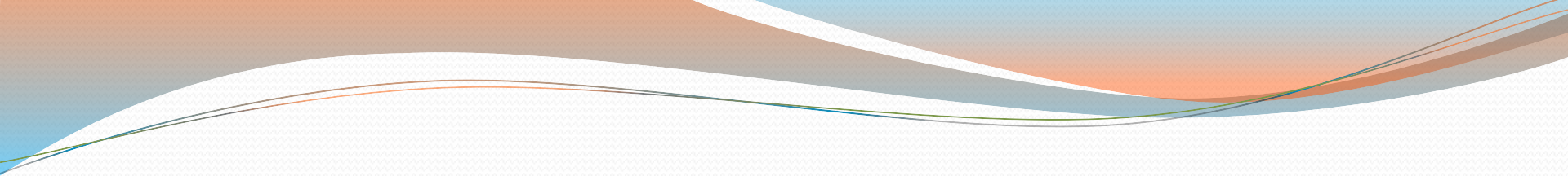
(Cota et al, 1995)

- **Task-social** dimension

- Extent to which members are interested in the goals of the group or in social relationships within it
- Cohesion – related to improved performance only if performance goals accepted

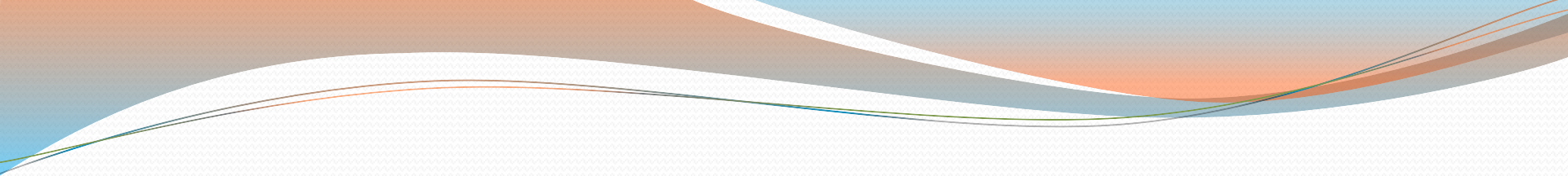
- **Individual-group** dimension

- Whether members are committed to the group as a whole or to individual members



Additional factors influencing cohesiveness

- **Effort required to become a member**
 - the greater the cost of joining the more attractive we need to feel it to be
- **External threats or severe competition**
 - groups close ranks when threatened –if one member can be threatened this could suggest that the group is weak and any of its members be threatened also
- **Group Size**
 - small groups tend to be more cohesive than large groups



Levels of Analysis

- Individual level
 - Individual awareness of own and others' group membership
- Group/Interpersonal level
 - Similarity of behaviour that is not due to individual personalities
- Wider context
 - Behaviours only shown due to the current social context (e.g. at a football match, a music concert, at work, school etc...)

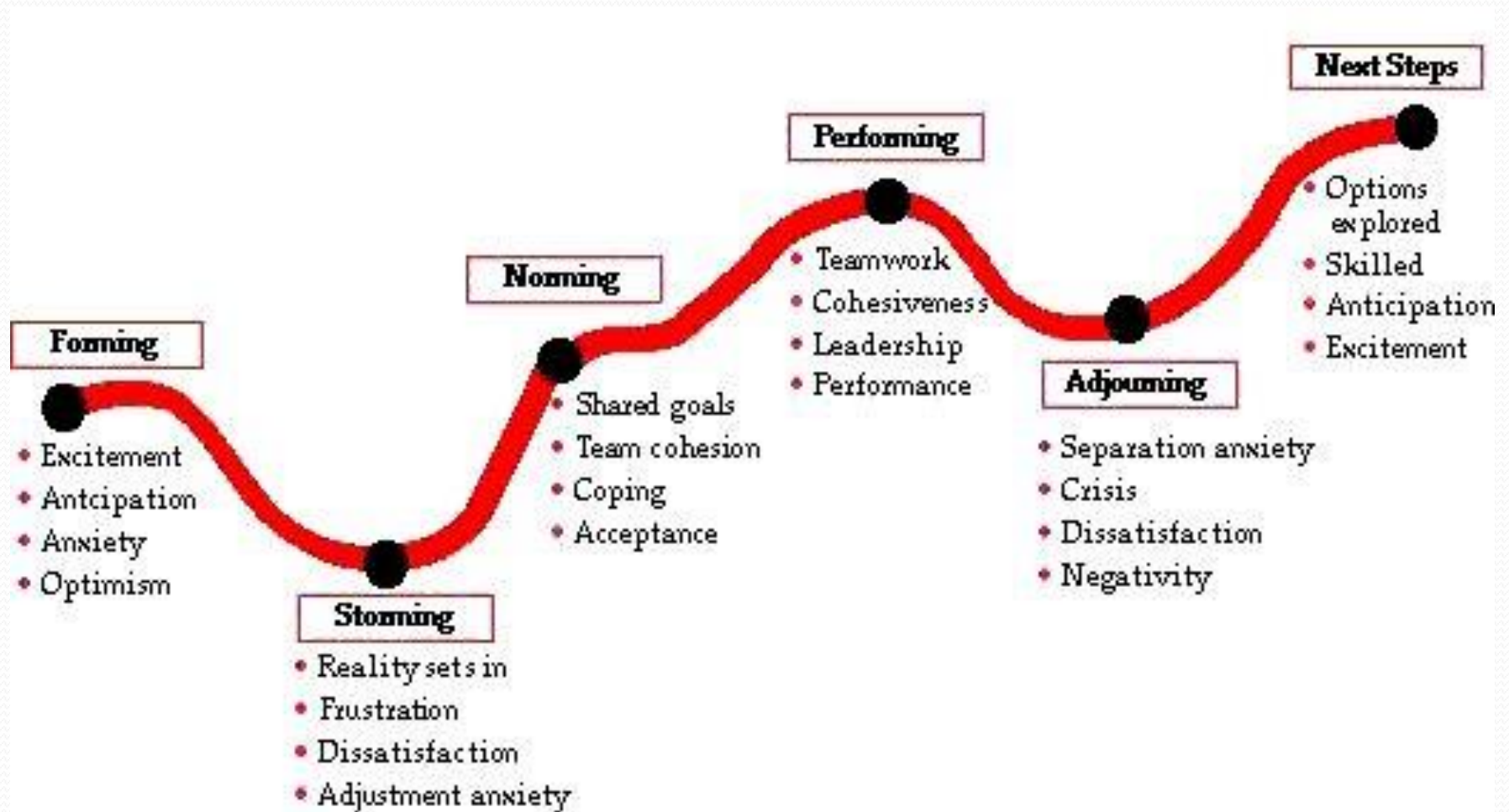
Individual level of analysis

- **Group socialization** – efforts of existing members to assimilate new members to group norms and practices
- Moreland and Levine (1982) - 5 stages of group membership
 - Investigation
 - Socialization
 - Maintenance
 - Re-socialisation (level of dissatisfaction with group leading to exit)
 - Remembrance (evaluation by ex-member and group)
- Stages - differences in degree of group commitment
- Movement between stages involves role transition
- Role transitions – mutual evaluation (individual and group)
[Link to cost-benefit models]

Group level of analysis

Group development

- Challenges and goals of groups change over time
- Impacts upon:
 - Member interaction
 - Group performance
 - 'Rewardingness' of group to members
- Five-stage model of group development – groups formed for a purpose
(Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman and Jensen, 1977)
 - Forming
 - Storming
 - Norming
 - Performing
 - Adjourning
- Different stages of the group's life are characterised by changing within-group interaction patterns



(adapted from Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman and Jensen, 1977)

BREAK

15 MINUTES



Intergroup level of analysis

- Intergroup context elicits salience of group membership
- Salience of self-categorization as a group member needed for group membership to influence thought and behaviour
- Explicit and implicit forms of competition (e.g. football match; House of Commons; social status (e.g. group of school friends))
- James and Greenberg (1989) – manipulated salience of university membership
Found: performance was enhanced when membership made salient

Active contribution towards favourable comparison (e.g. Tajfel and Turner SIT)

• Similarity - Group Norms

- **Prescriptive** norms – how to feel, think, behave
- **Proscriptive** norms – how not to feel, think, behave
- Implicit or explicit norms
- Tendency for conformity - internalization of belief and value system

(Turner, 1991)

Group norms = belief system that enables the smooth functioning of the group

- Regulates group interaction
- Predicts member behaviour
- Possibility of deviant behaviour

(Schachter, 1951)



Norms and Roles

Norms

- Formal or informal
- Regulate and guide behaviour
- Some are universal and some vary across cultures

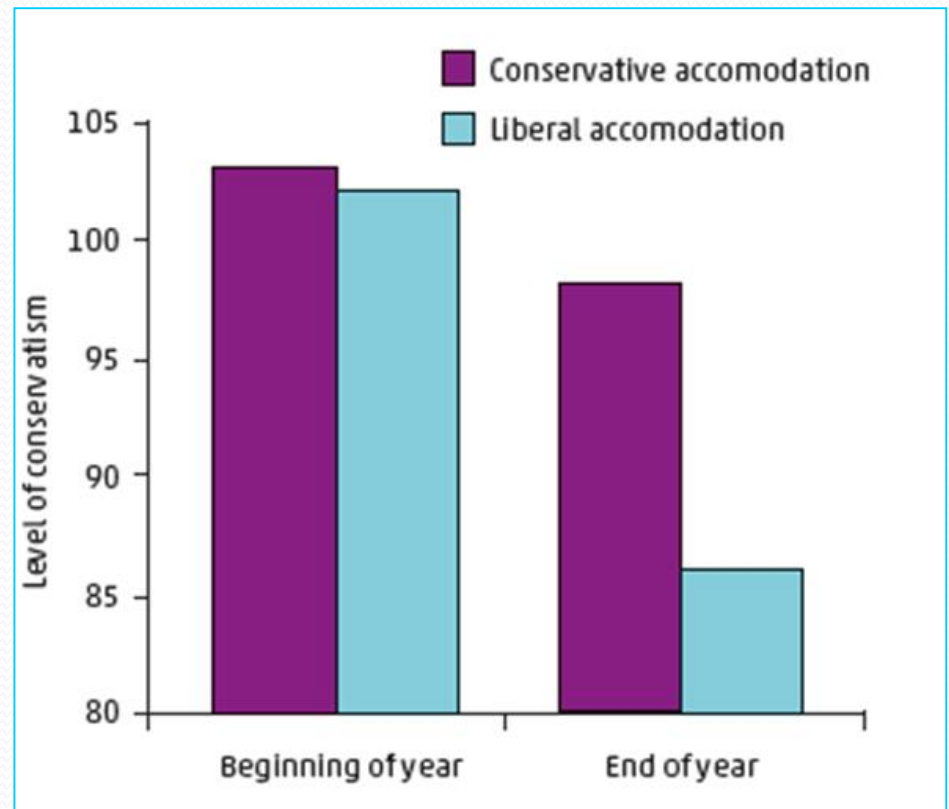
Roles

- *Roles* – shared expectations of how people are supposed to behave
- How people holding particular positions should behave:
 - Division of labour
 - Expectations

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Norms

- Provide frames of reference but can change attitudes and behaviour
- Students randomly assigned to dormitory (liberal) or sorority (conservative) lodging
(Siegel & Siegel, 1957)
- Attitudes measured at beginning and end of year
- Dormitory students became more liberal in their attitudes from exposure to liberal norms



Social Norms

Cialdini, Reno and Kallgren (1990):

Manipulated the descriptive norm for littering behaviour by controlling the amount of litter in various settings

- Clean - anti-littering norm
- Littered - pro-littering norm
- Leaflet that could be discarded
e.g. 'Drive carefully' leaflet under car windscreens

Results - people more willing to drop litter in a littered environment than in a clean one

Responding to social norms



Why do norms work so well?

- They are often *enforced*
- People often *internalise* them
- They become *fixed* during socialisation
- They are *consensual*
- They are frequently *activated*
- They act as *action heuristics* to make life easier



Roles and Statuses

Roles

- Norms encourage similarity
- Roles differentiate between group members
 - e.g. task-oriented and relationship-oriented
 - = informal role differentiation
 - Task-oriented – most influential, but liked less
- Help define the group
- Groups with set roles tend to be more satisfied and perform better (Barley & Bechky, 1994)
 - Other factors including personality and abilities
- **Internalization** of roles
- **Role conflict** - can result in high levels of stress (*Williams et al, 1991*)



Influence of roles

- They can sometimes make people lose sight of right and wrong
 - E.g. Stanford Prison Experiment (Zimbardo, 1973)
- Also when they seem *illegitimate* or *arbitrary* (gender roles are a good example)



- **Status differences**

e.g. Speaking hierarchy (Bales, 1953)

8-person group: person who talked most = 20% time
person who talked least = 2% time

- Evaluation of appropriateness of treatment (Tyler, 1994)

- Expectation States Theory
(Berger, Rosenholtz and Zelditch, 1980)

Different roles associated with different levels of status based on expectations of other members

- Confer or withhold status - influences behaviour of members



Level of Identification with the group

- Low and high identifiers - e.g. Ellemers, Spears and Doosje (1997)
- Low identifiers
 - perceive group as less homogeneous
 - less committed to their group
 - more strongly desire individual mobility to a higher status group
- Member's dissatisfaction with own lower status group likely to be increased as a result of limited/no opportunity to transfer to higher status group
- Relatively high status group – members have the means to protect from perceived threat from lower status group/s - e.g. Intergroup Threat Theory (Stephen and Renfro (2002))

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979): Status

- If status is legitimate and stable, but it is possible to pass legitimately into a dominant/higher status group (higher status identity)
 - Less solidarity with own group
 - Little intergroup competition
 - Attempt to dis-identify with current group
 - **Social mobility**
- If status is illegitimate and unstable, not possible to move to dominant/higher status group (retain lower status identity)
BUT, the social order can be changed
 - Strong solidarity
 - Direct intergroup competition
 - Identification with current group
 - **Social change**

In-groups and Out-groups

- Groups can only exist because some people are members and others are not
 - inclusion and exclusion criteria

- Group comparison:
Essential for determining characteristics of own group e.g. funny, intelligent

May change resulting in adjusted views of own group

e.g. Turkey – EU membership – Christianity/Islam
Salience of European, largely Christian identity

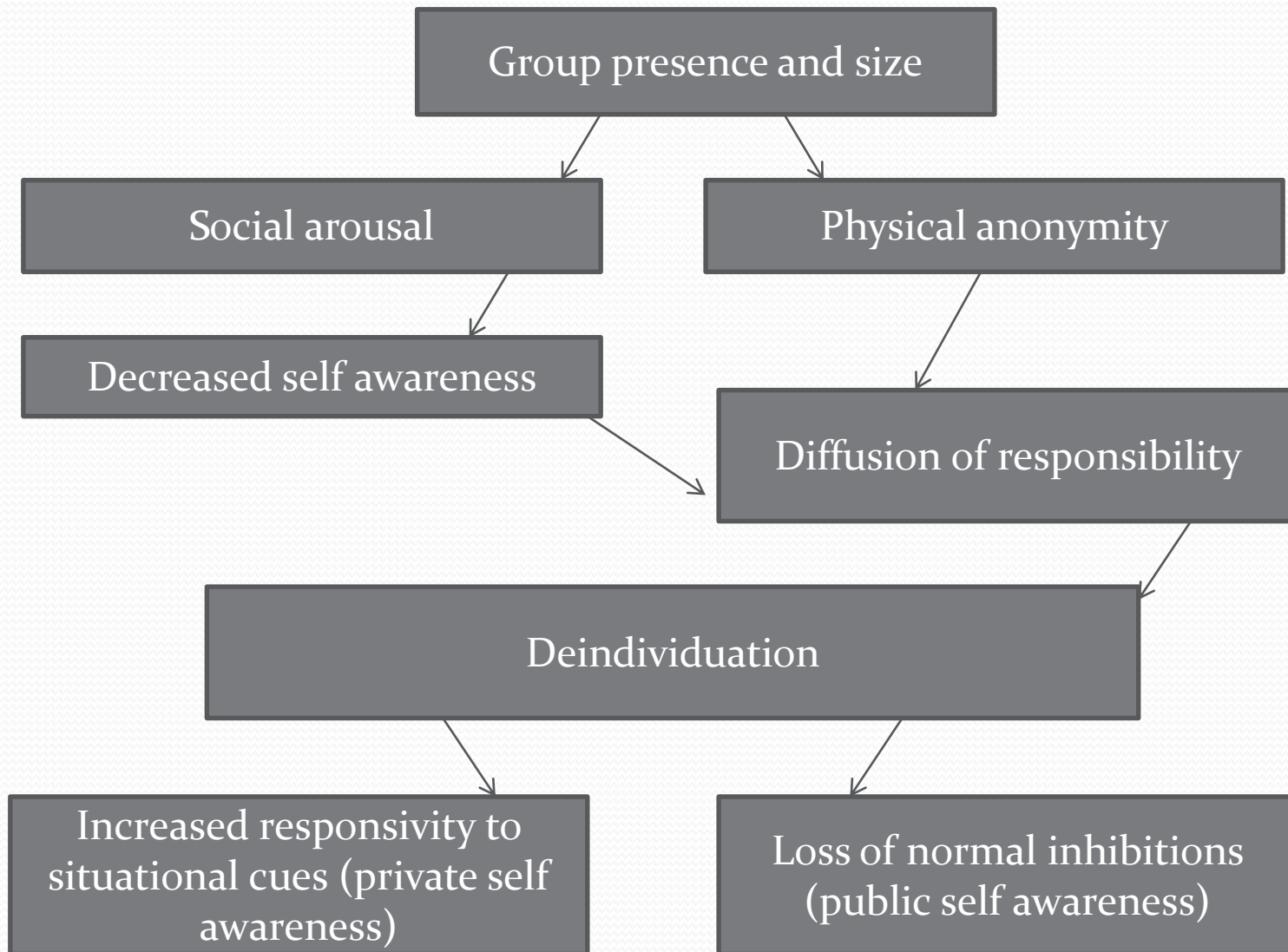


Effects of being part of a group

- De-individuation (Zimbardo, 1973)
- Realistic Group Conflict (Sherif et al, 1961)
- In-groups and out-groups
- Prejudice and discrimination
- Social facilitation
- Social loafing



Factors that interact to cause deindividuation (adapted from Myers 1998)





Trick or Treat (Diener et al, 1976)

Seattle USA

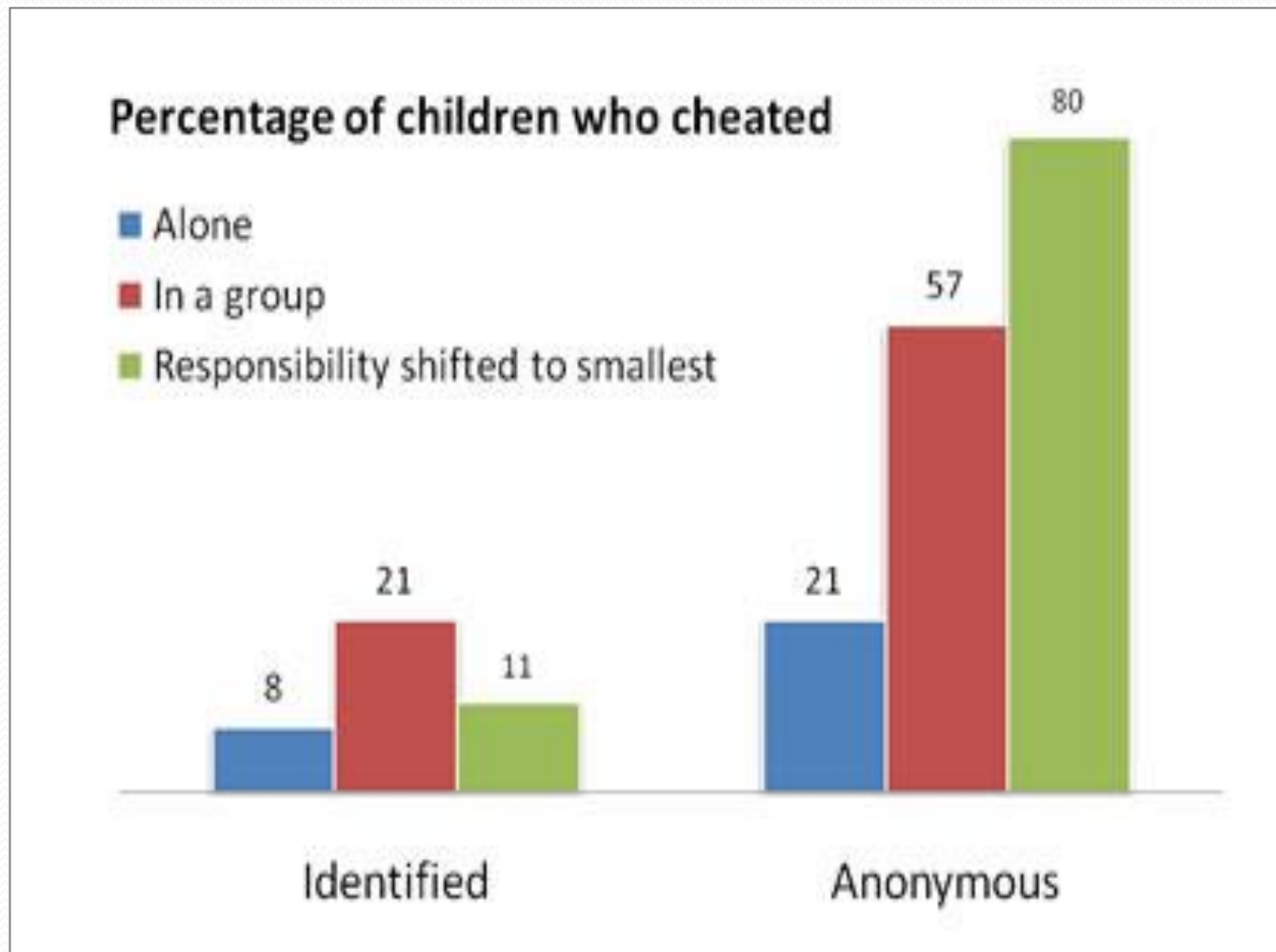
Procedure: 27 women asked to give out sweets to 1000 trick or treaters.

Half the children were asked for names and addresses, the other half were anonymous.

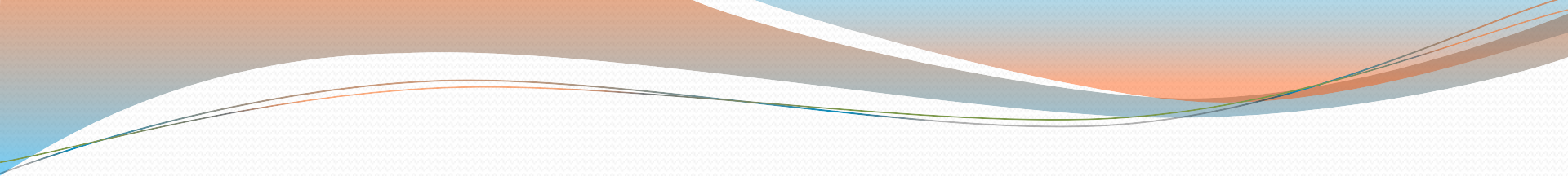
Some children were on their own, while others were in a crowd.

Whilst chatting to the children the women had to answer a phone call and left the children with strict instructions to only take one sweet each.

Results (Diener et al, 1976)



Children more likely to steal in groups when they were anonymous



Is de-individuation ever desirable?

- Deindividuation can be both desirable and undesirable (Spivey & Prentice-Dunn, 1990; Johnson & Downing, 1979)
- They found that de-individuation could lead to either pro-social or anti-social behaviour depending on situational factors
- When pro-social environmental cues were present (such as a pro-social model) de-individuated participants were more likely to behave altruistically.

Realistic Group Conflict

Robber's Cave experiment

- Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood and Sherif (1961)
- Eleven-year-old boys – teams Rattlers and Eagles
Series of competitions
Winning team to receive a trophy and prizes
 - Verbal taunts, then attacks on property of other team members
 - Abuse to outgroup members/praise to in group members
- Superordinate goals
Needed to work together to achieve desired goals
 - Cooperation
 - Decrease in tension
 - Friendships



Performance within groups

Social Facilitation

Early example of social facilitation:

Triplett (1898) - cyclists

Cycled faster when racing together or being paced, than when they were alone cycling against the clock



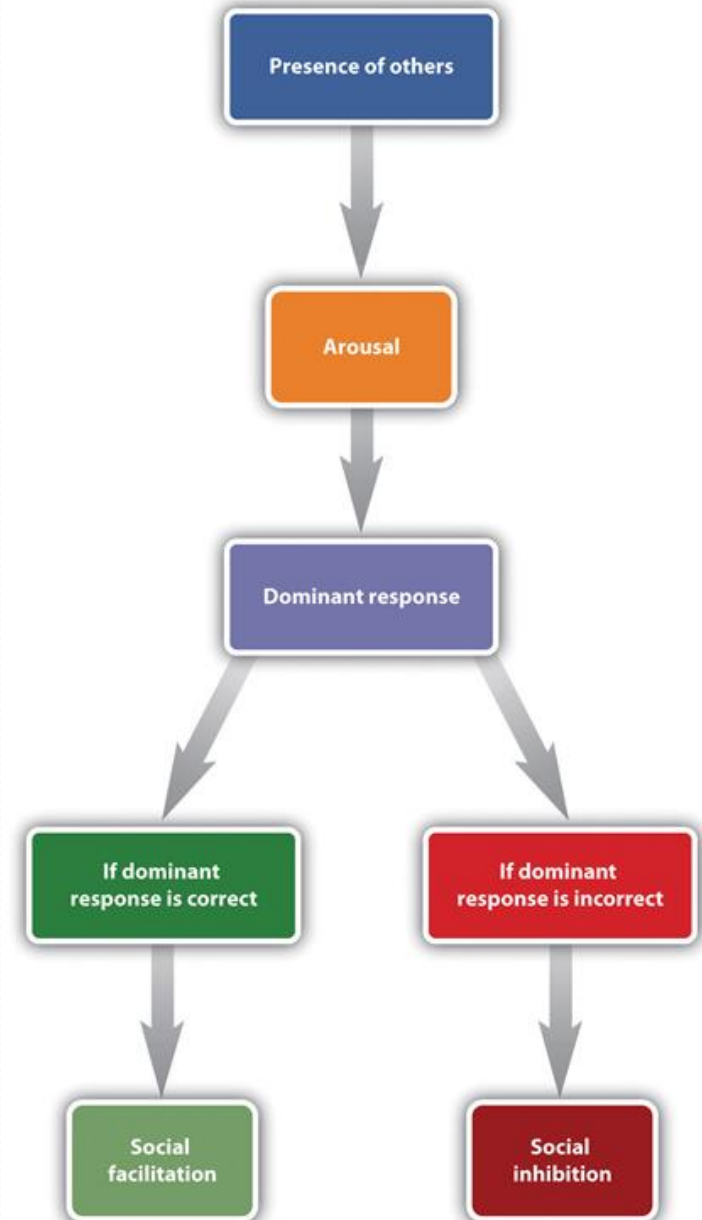
- Allport – 1920s



- 93% of participants could make more word associations in the presence of two other people than when alone
- Could produce more and better arguments against a passage of text they had read when with others
- Mere presence of others improves performance
- **But** - sometimes presence of others facilitates performance - sometimes it undermines it (*Pessin, 1933*)

Drive Theory (Zajonc, 1966)

- Increments in arousal increase the occurrence of **dominant responses**
- The dominant response can be either **correct or incorrect** for that particular task
- Whether correct or incorrect - people more likely to do it under pressure of being observed
- Also: *Matlin and Zajonc (1968); Geen and Gange (1977); Geen (1989)*



Evaluation Apprehension

- *Cottrell et al (1968); Bond (1982):*
 - Social facilitation only occurs when people believe their performances are being watched and judged by others
 - Chance of being watched and evaluated increases arousal and improves performance the most



Distraction-Conflict Theory

- *Baron (1986); Sanders (1983); Sanders, Baron and Moore, (1978)*
- Presence of others increases arousal - stems from conflict between two tendencies:
 - Pay attention to the task being performed
 - Direct attention to and audience or co-actors
 - Impair performance of difficult tasks
 - Improve the performance of easy tasks
 - Little reason to pay attention to others – no social facilitation
 - Reason to pay attention – social facilitation occurs

(Sanders, 1983)

Social Loafing

aka The Ringelmann Effect (Ringelmann, 1913)
Rope-pulling machine and blindfolded participants



Motivation to make an effort when collaborating with others is less than it would be when working alone or independently from others (*Karau and Williams, 1993*)

Additive tasks

Clapping and cheering – *Latane, Williams and Harkins (1979)*

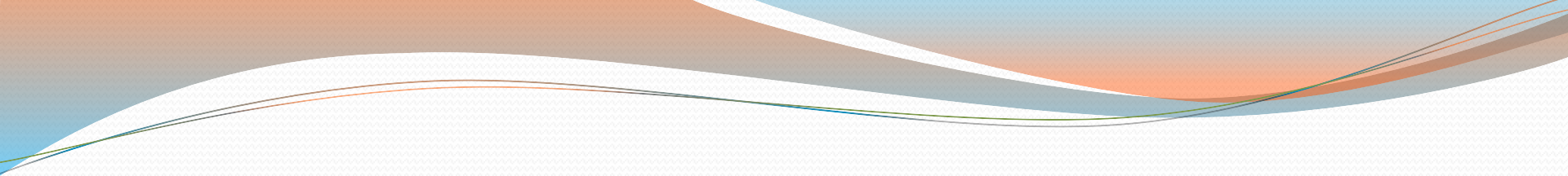
Males, females, adults and children (*Williams and Williams, 1981*)

Different cultures (*Yamaguchi, Okamoto and Oka, 1985*)

Wide variety of work conditions (*e.g. Harkins, 1987*)

Cognitive tasks as well as those involving physical effort

(*Williams and Karau, 1991*)



Social impact theory (Latane, 1981)

- As group size increases, each member feels less responsible for the task being performed
- Each exerts decreasing effort as group size increases
- Link – Diffusion of Responsibility (Darley and Latane, 1968)

Collective Effort Model (Karau and Williams, 1993)

- Motivation decreases because people realise their contributions can not be evaluated on an individual basis
- **Expectancy Valence Theory** - individuals will only work hard on a task if certain conditions exist:
 - Person believes that working hard will lead to better performance (*expectancy*)
 - Believes that better performance will be recognised and rewarded (*instrumentality*)
 - The rewards available are rewards they value and desire (*valence*)

- Links are weaker when people work in groups (*Karau and Williams, 1993*)

Expectancy

- Increased effort might not yield better results, as in groups there are other factors in play

- **Instrumentality**

- We won't necessarily be rewarded for our personal efforts – we're likely to share any praise or reward



Reduction of social loafing

- Limit the scope of the project – break projects into smaller components
- Keep groups small
- Increase peer evaluations

(Aggarwal and O'Brien, 2008)

Social loafing is weakest when individuals:

- Work in small groups
- Work on tasks which they are personally interested in or those that are important to them
- Work with others they respect
- Believe their contributions to the group effort are unique, rather than redundant
- Expect their co-workers to perform poorly
- Belong to a individualistic culture

Studies: reducing social loafing

- Anger and resentment *(Yamagishi, 1988)*
- Make each effort recognisable *(Williams, Harkins and Latane, 1981)*
- Increase group members commitment *(Brickner et al, 1986)*
- Improve importance or value of the task *(Karau and Williams, 1993)*
- Make individual contributions unique *(Weldon and Mustari, 1988)*
- Strengthen group cohesiveness

Values, personality, gender and culture

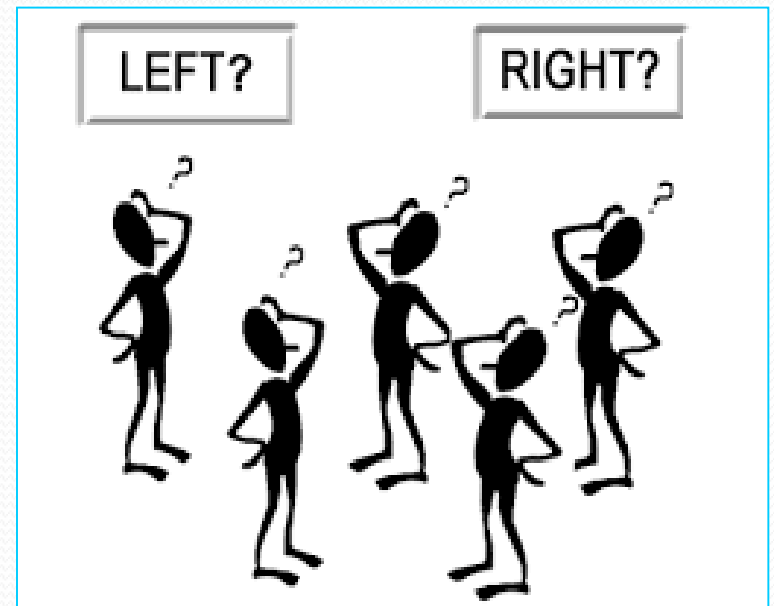
- Less loafing when the group is valued *(Karau & Williams, 1997)*
- Narcissists are less likely to loaf *(Woodman et al., 2011)*
- Western cultures tend to loaf more *(Karau & Williams, 1993)*
- Women loaf less than men *(Karau & Williams, 1993)*
- People also tend to compensate for the anticipated loafing of others

Group size and leadership

- As group size increases so does loafing
- Slater (1958) found greatest group size satisfaction was 5, then competition increases
- Kerr (1982) as group size increases, the individuals motivation and performance decreases. The sucker effect
- Leadership style changes as groups get larger:
 - Groups over 30 were made more demands, the leaders were more influential, they spoke more, were less tolerant and made decisions without consultation.

Group decision making

- How do groups make decisions and solve problems?
- Do groups make more risky decisions?
- Do they generally make good or bad decisions?



Group Positioning

Adoption of extreme positions in groups

Tendency to shift towards a more extreme position than it actually started out with
(e.g. Burnstein, 1983).

This is called **group polarisation**



Main effects of group polarisation



Initial leaning or preference of the group - strengthened during group deliberations

Also individual members also show such a shift to group's extreme views

‘Groupthink’ (Janis, 1982)

Assumption that the group cannot be wrong

- Convinced most extreme views are correct
- Assume all members support decision strongly - any contrary information can be rejected

Collective state of mind - groups unwilling/unable to change course of action - even when external information suggests decision was poor

Norms actively prevent members from considering alternative courses of action

TABLE 10.2 Symptoms of groupthink

Illusion of invulnerability	Excessive optimism that encourages the group to take risks and not consider the dangers
Belief in morality of the group	The group assumes its inherent rightness and ignores challenges or concerns about the consequences of its decisions
Collective rationalization	The group explains and justifies its assumptions and decisions as a way of discounting challenges
Stereotyped view of the outgroup	The group has a negative view of the other group, or 'enemy', which makes conflict resolution difficult
Pressure for dissenters to conform	Group members who raise doubts about the group's decision are put under pressure to conform
Self-censorship	Group members withhold opinions that deviate from the group's consensus
Illusion of unanimity	The consensus opinion within the group is assumed to be unanimous
Self-appointed 'mindguards'	Group members who protect the group's decision and the group's leader from opposition

Reading

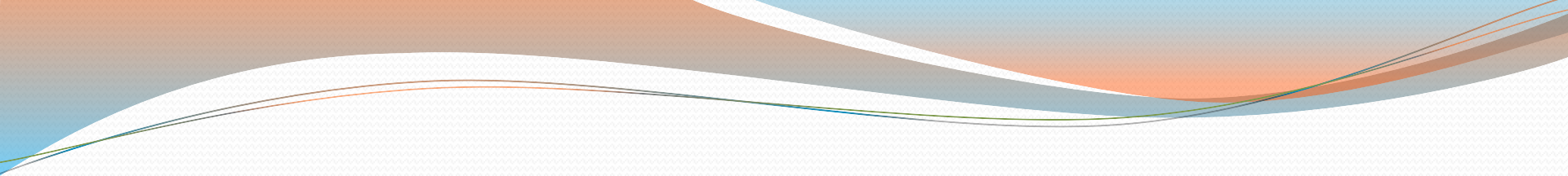
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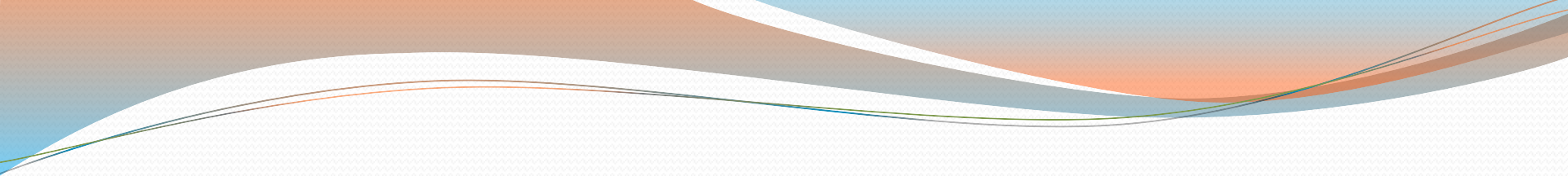
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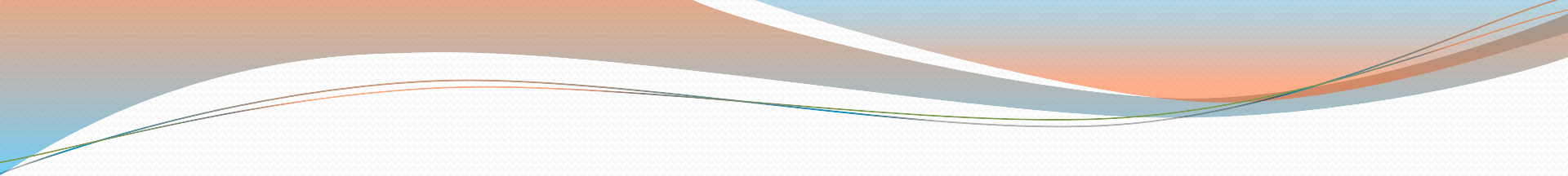
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