



Relationships

What is friendship?

A relationship that has meaning for a person

The absence of meaningful relationships with other people results in people feeling lonely, worthless, hopeless, helpless, powerless and alienated

(Baumeister and Leary, 1995; Hartup and Stevens, 1997)

'Self-expansion'

Desire to 'overlap' with another person - insights into their experiences, feelings and knowledge – deepens own experience of life

(Aron, Aron and Norman, 2004)

The Propinquity Effect (proximity)

Proximity influences relationship formation and maintenance

Festinger, Schachter and Back (1950)

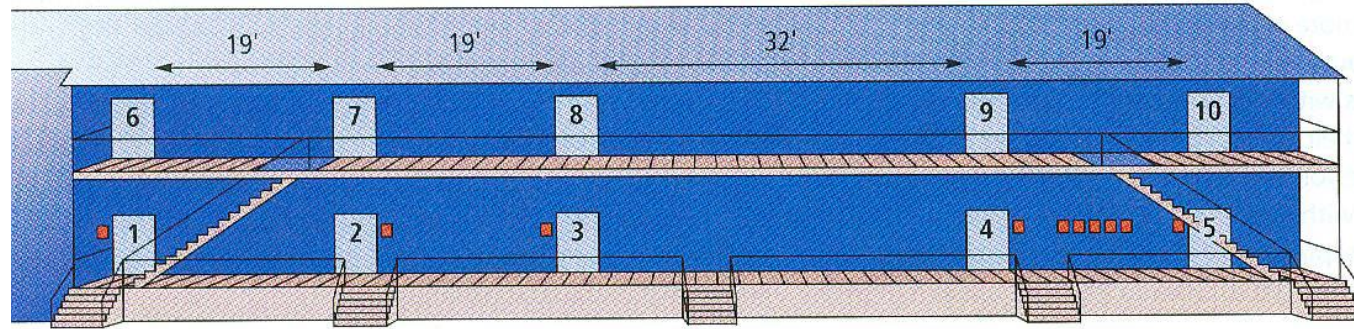
Westgate West - 17 two-storey buildings (10 apartments each)

Residents assigned to apartments at random

Asked - 3 closest friends in the entire housing project?

65% named friends living in the same building - even though other buildings close

Pattern of friendships **within** a building



41% of the next-door neighbours indicated that they were close friends

Only **22%** of those living two doors apart said they were close friends

And only **10%** of those living at opposite ends of the corridor reported being close friends

'Functional distance'

Occupants of apartments 1 and 5 - at the foot of the stairs – reported having more friends upstairs than other downstairs residents

Familiarity breeds content?

Mere exposure effect (familiarity)

Increased exposure = increased liking

(e.g. Moreland and Zajonc, 1982; Lee, 2001)

Moreland and Beach (1992) study of liking in college classrooms

But – if other person has qualities
you do not like –

increased exposure = increased disliking
(Swap, 1977)



Computers – long-distance propinquity

McKenna, Green and Gleason (2002) - Internet conversations

Attraction largely dependent on level and quality of conversation

Attraction in face-to-face interactions depended on other variables (e.g. physical attractiveness)



Cahn and Cheng (2004) Hong Kong
- rating on-line and 'real life' friends

Quality of offline relationships was higher than that of online ones when they had existed for up to a year

But - longer than a year - quality of both very similar

Similarity

Closed-field relationships – forced to interact with each other

Open-field relationships – free to interact or not

‘Birds of a feather flock together’ – **similarity**

‘Opposites attract’ – **complementarity**

Overwhelmingly similarity that draws people together

(e.g. Berscheid and Reis, 1998; Byrne, 1997; McPherson, Smith-Lovin and Cook, 2001)

Opinions and personality

If you know only that the person shares your opinions on several issues -
more likely to like the person

(e.g. Byrne and Newcombe, 1965)

Newcombe, 1961:

Students - friends with those who:

- were demographically similar
- were similar in attitudes and values



Boyden, Carroll and Maier, 1984, Martin and Anderson (1995)

Shared personality characteristics

Interpersonal style

Those whose interpersonal style and communication skills are similar to ours
(e.g. Burleston and Samter, 1996)

High skill people - social interaction complex and complicated

Low skill people - interaction as in a less complicated way
Less interested in the motivations or the personalities of the others

Interests and experiences

Situations you choose to be in - populated by like-minded people
(e.g. Kubitschek & Hallinan, 1998)

Why is similarity important to attraction?

- The need to be liked

People who are similar to us will also like us

(e.g. Aronson and Worchel, 1966; Condon and Crano, 1988)

- The need to be validated

Our own characteristics, opinions and beliefs

(e.g. Fehr, 2001; Reis and Shaver, 1988)

- The character conclusions we draw

Disagreement on important issues leads to repulsion

(Rosenbaum, 1986)

Gender and Friendship

- Are friendships between men less intimate than friendships between women?
- Men more dominant; women more agreeable

(Suh, Moscovitz, Fournier and Zuroff, 2004)

- Intimate self-disclosure: recognized by both men and women as indicative of intimacy, but men choose not to self-disclose during same-sex interactions
(Reis, Senchak and Solomon, 1985)
- Evolutionary theory:
 - Men - favour instrumental friendships – revolving around common activities rather than shared emotions
 - Women – establish network of nurturing relationships – children*(De Waal, 1983)*

Also

- Men – competitiveness – hiding weakness?

Reciprocal liking

Gold, Ryckman and Mosley (1984)

Woman expressed interest – maintained eye contact with them, leant towards them and listened attentively

The men expressed great liking for her
– even when she disagreed on important issues

Our beliefs about whether a person likes us can

- override other influential factors
- and powerfully influence our own feelings towards other person

(also: Berscheid and Walster, 1978; Kubitschek and Hallinan, 1998)

Twenge et al (1997) proposed that social exclusion causes a reduction of emotional reactions that make us feel close to others



Physical Attractiveness and Liking

Physical attractiveness has been shown to be a key determinant of our liking of other people

(Walster, Aronson, Abahams and Rottman, 1966)

Men pay more attention to physical attractiveness than women do

(Feingold, 1990)

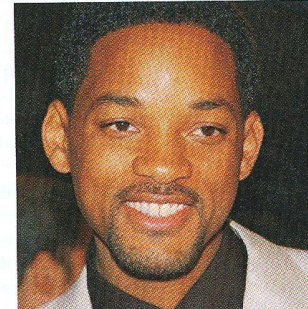
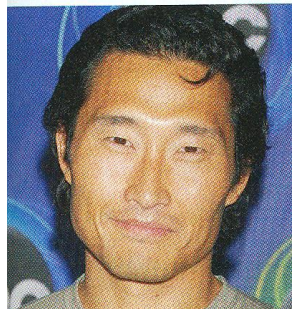
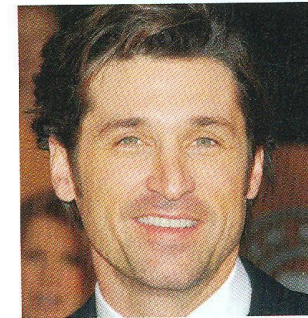
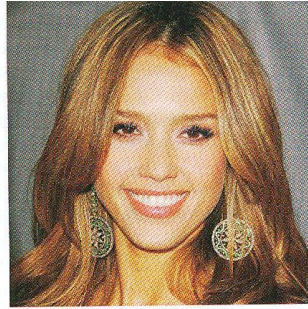
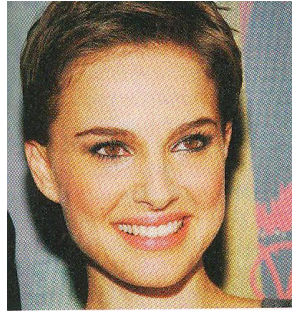
Both sexes rate physical attractiveness highly in a potential sexual partner as both see it a characteristic that triggers sexual desire

But

Men rate it higher than women do regarding a potential marriage partner

(Regan and Berscheid, 1997)

What makes a face attractive?



▲ These celebrities represent facial standards of beauty for men and women.

Media influence
(e.g. Fink and Penton-Voak, 2001; Tseélon, 1995)

Cunningham (1986) Men - attractiveness of women

High attractiveness ratings were for those with:

prominent cheekbones and narrow cheeks
large eyes
small nose
small chin
high eyebrows
large pupils
big smile



Cunningham, Barbie and Pike (1990) Women – attractiveness of men :

prominent cheekbones
large eyes
big smile
large chin



Familiarity of faces

Merged photographs of faces - results in a face that is seen as familiar

Preference for these faces



If you mix the left picture with the one in the middle, the result is an intermediate between the two faces (see right picture).

People are attracted to faces that are similar to their own



Assumptions about attractive people

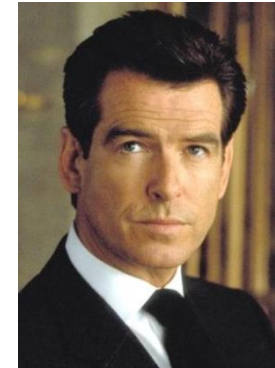
Tendency to attribute positive qualities to attractive people

Attractive people - more sociable, extraverted and more popular than less attractive people? (*e.g. Feingold, 1992b*)

More sexual, happier and more assertive?



'What is beautiful is good'



Individualistic and collectivist cultures

(Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani and Longo, 1991)

Traits Shared in the Korean, American, and Canadian Stereotype

sociable	extraverted	likable
happy	popular	well-adjusted
friendly	mature	poised
sexually warm and responsive		

Additional Traits Present in the American and Canadian Stereotype

strong	assertive	dominant
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Additional Traits Present in the Korean Stereotype

sensitive	empathic	generous
honest	trustworthy	

Sources: Eagly, Ashmore, Makhijani, & Longo (1991); Feingold (1992b); Wheeler & Kim (1997).

Physical Attractiveness and Health outcomes

Badr and Abdallah (2001): Facial physical attractiveness and health status of premature infants in hospitals in Beirut

Physical attractiveness - significantly predicted health outcomes

- The more attractive the infant:
 - the quicker he/she put on weight
 - the less time in hospital
- Neonatal nurses response to the 'prettier' babies:
 - played with them for longer periods
 - held them longer
 - spent longer feeding them



Theories of Attraction



Socio-biological Theories

- The idea behind this theory is **adaptation**, individuals who have adaptive behaviours would live long enough to pass on those traits to their offspring.
- Adaptive traits are those that promote survival of the individual and usually results in successful reproduction, therefore their genes will not die out
- What characteristics would you consider preferable in a partner according to the socio-biological approach?

- Both males and females will seek partners with whom they feel they will have the best reproductive success
- Selection of mates – related to estimations of whether others have good genes (*Langlois, 2000*)
- Men tend to prefer younger women as this is a sign of fertility

- Cultural ideas regarding female fertility
 - e.g. body shape, such as large hips and breasts (for childbearing and rearing)



- Women tend to prefer men who appear physically strong and virile – most likely to father children and to pass on adaptive traits

- Family relationships also explained by socio-biological approach
- One of the ways an individual can help to ensure the survival of his/her genes
 - protection of relatives for their reproduction
- Our children share 50% of genes from each parent
 - much evolutionary evidence to explain effort in care of own young.
 - also protection extended to close relatives

This is called **Kin Selection**

- Research:

Fellner & Marshall (1981)

- 86% of individuals willing to donate kidney to own children
- 67% would donate to their parents
- 50% would donate to their siblings

Socio-biological approach

Evaluation:

- ✓ Explains:
 - the special bonds we share with our families
 - why we invest so much time and energy caring for our young



- X Does not explain:
 - homosexual relationships
 - voluntarily childless relationships
 - attachment to other species

- X Focuses less on non-sexual relationships
i.e. friendship



Reinforcement-Affect model

- *Byrne and Clore (1970)*

Theory based upon key idea - we form friendships and relationships because of the reinforcements we receive

- What might these be?

Foa (1975)

- rewards include sex, status, love and money
- worthwhile as meet our various social needs

- *Byrne (1971)* - classical conditioning an important function of relationship formation

Salivation produced by the dogs in Pavlov's experiment synonymous to:

- positive feelings when someone expresses similar attitudes to ours
- negative affect when someone expresses dissimilar attitudes



- Consider the needs being met in the following relationships:

Best friend, Parent/child, Lover

Reinforcement Theory

Evaluation:

- ✓ This is a good account for friendships, we like others who are reciprocal with their feelings (friendliness, co-operation) but...
- X Long term relationships?
- X Parents and children?
- X Are individuals who are selfish...only concerned with their own feelings?
- X Reinforcement depends largely upon context e.g. prostitution satisfies sexual needs, but that does not necessarily translate to attraction
- X Individualist vs. collectivist societies

Economic theories: Exchange & Equity

- The term **economic** conveys a trading of one item for another.



Relationships are concerned with '**give and take**'

Social Exchange Theory

Relationships operate by a marketplace cost-benefit model

Found way into complex theories of social exchange

(e.g. Thibaut and Kelley, 1959)

Positive/negative feelings depend on:

- perception of the rewards they are likely to receive from the relationship
- perception of the costs they incur
- perception of what kind of relationship is deserved and probability that could have better relationship

Comparison level

What we expect the outcome of the relationship to be in terms of costs
and rewards

(Kelley and Thibaut, 1978; Thibaut and Kelley, 1959)

- High comparison level
 - expect more rewards and relatively few costs
 - more likely to become dissatisfied with a relationship
- Low comparison level
 - more likely to be satisfied with a relationship because we expect them to be difficult and costly
- Comparison level for alternatives
 - What's the likelihood we can find a better replacement?

Equity Theory

Social exchange theory - ignores notion of fairness, or equity

Try to achieve same balance in terms of equal costs and benefits

(e.g. Homans, 1961; Walster, Walster and Berscheid, 1978)

Equitable relationships - happiest and most stable

Inequity - more of a problem for the under-benefited one

(e.g. Buunk and Schaufeli, 1999)

Early evidence supporting Equity Theory

Hatfield et al (1979)

Newlyweds - asked whether they believed they were receiving more or less than the amount they were contributing

Also rated their contentment, happiness and anger, guilt

Results:

- Those believing they were 'under benefited' had the lowest overall satisfaction and levels of experienced guilt
- Those believing they were 'over benefited' (also felt guilt) scored second overall
- The **equitable** had **highest** levels of satisfaction

Evaluation of Equity Theory

- ✓ More credible than exchange theory as it considers the rewards/costs of both parties
- × A fundamental supposition that individuals are self seeking in their relationships.

This may have validity in some cultures, such as individualists, but not collectivists

Interdependence Theory

- Interpersonal association in which two people consistently influence each other's lives (Holmes, 2002)
- Family members, friends, romantic partners
- Thoughts and emotions often focused on each other
- Sense of commitment to the relationship (Fehr, 1999)

“Quality ties to others are universally endorsed as central to optimal living”

(Rhyff and Singer, 2000, p.30)

Communal relationships

- Personal responsibility for the needs of the other person
- Family, friends, romantic partners
- Benefits provided to the other to display concern and respond to the other's needs
 - With no expectation of reciprocity in the future

Mills and Clark (1994, 2001):

- More attention was paid to needs of the other resulted in more talk about emotional topics – what makes them happy or sad

Individual differences in 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.

What is love?

Companionate v. passionate love

Qualitatively very different

Definition of love must include:

- passionate feelings of romantic love
- deeper feelings of devotion and contentment of longer lasting relationships

(e.g. Hatfield, 1988)

Companionate love

- consists of feelings of intimacy and affection
- not accompanied by passion or physiological arousal

Non-sexual relationships, or sexual relationships that no longer induce the levels of passion they once did

Passionate love

- involves an intense longing for another person
- physiological arousal, a feeling of shortness of breath and an increased heartbeat when in the presence of the person concerned

(Regan and Berscheid, 1999)

Reading:

Baron, R. A., Byrne, D. (2009). *Social Psychology (12th edition)*. Boston: Pearson. (Chapter 7)

Gross, R. (2010). *Psychology: The science of mind and behaviour* (6th ed). London: Hodder Education. (Chapter 28).

Hogg, M. A., & Vaughan, G. M. (2008). *Social Psychology*. Harlow, Essex: Pearson Prentice Hall. (Chapter 13)

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Plus other social psychology literature on the subject of 'Relationships'

Pro-social behaviour



The Story of Wilson Ross

Wilson Ross was driving his van when he was struck from behind. He lost control, causing his van to flip over. As the van caught fire, he was suspended upside down by his seat belt. As he dangled helplessly, Jackson Stallcup stopped his truck and risked his own life in an effort to save Ross. Stallcup freed Ross just seconds before the van exploded

(Taylor et al., 2006)



Pro-social behaviour :

Has positive social consequences

Contributes to the physical or psychological well being of another person

Helping behaviour:

Pro-social behaviour defined as an *intentional* act that benefits another living being.

Altruistic behaviour (Altruism)

Subcategory of helping behaviour

An act which is motivated by the desire to benefit another rather than oneself

Does altruism exist?

The Murder of Kitty Genovese

At 3am on a night in 1964, Kitty Genovese was murdered in the respectable Kew Gardens area of New York City. The murderer took half an hour to accomplish the act, leaving the scene and returning to finish off killing his victim, who, crawling toward her apartment door, repeatedly screamed that she was being murdered and pleaded for help. Two weeks after the event, The New York Times carried the horrifying news that 38 neighbours of Kitty Genovese had witnessed the event from their windows. Only one person phoned the police

"We thought it was a lover's quarrel!"

"Frankly, we were afraid,"

"I didn't want my husband to get involved."

"We went to the window to see what was happening, but the light from our bedroom made it difficult to see the street."

"I was tired."

Recently this version of events has been challenged – but the incident did spur psychological research



The murder of Kitty Genovese spurred the interest of psychologists

Why do some people help and others do not?

What makes a person help?

What deters a person from helping?



<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KIvGIwLcIuw>

The Biological approach

Campbell (1975)

Krebs and Miller (1985)

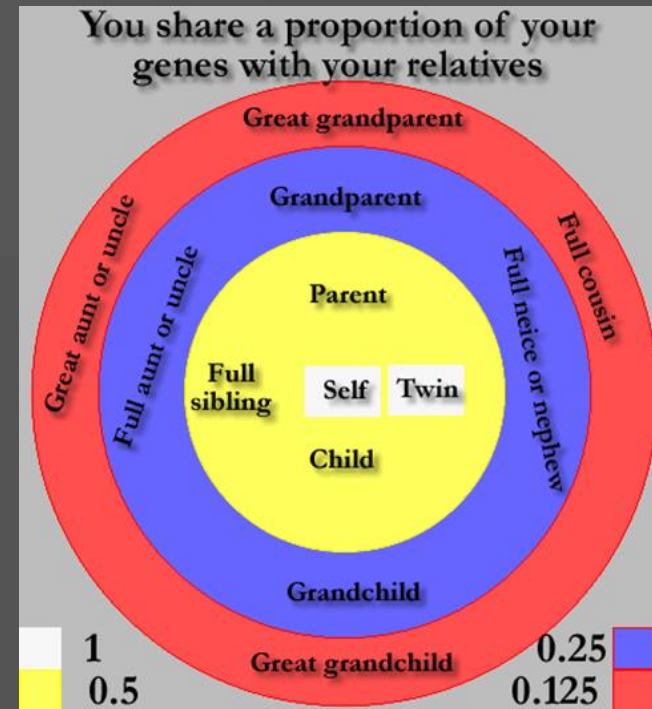
Altruism might be a trait that has evolutionary survival value

Kin Selection - behaviours that help genetic relatives are favoured by natural selection

But:

Few strong studies with humans have supported the biological explanation of helping behaviour

Lack of consideration of social learning



Social Learning approach

Pro-social behaviour originates in the socialisation process

Classical conditioning

Operant conditioning

Observational learning

Attribution processes

Just-world hypothesis

(Lerner and Miller, 1978)



Social norms

- The **reciprocity** norm (Gouldner, 1960)

We should help those who help us.

- The **social responsibility** norm (Berkowitz, 1972b)

Help should freely be given to those in need without regard to rewards

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=2OdKow7IAuw>

Exchange Perspective

We look to maximise benefits and minimise costs

Help is rewarding because ...

- We may need help in future (reciprocity)
- It relieves distress of seeing someone suffer
- We get positive feedback

(Piliavin, Piliavin and Rodin, 1969)

Costs and Rewards

A 'victim'

A model

Two women observers

Victim with the cane helped in 62 of the 65 trials.

'Drunk' was helped on 19 of 38 trials



- If 'ill', more likely to be helped than if 'drunk'
- Race of victim had little effect on the helping
- Expected diffusion of responsibility effect did not occur

Costs and Rewards Theory

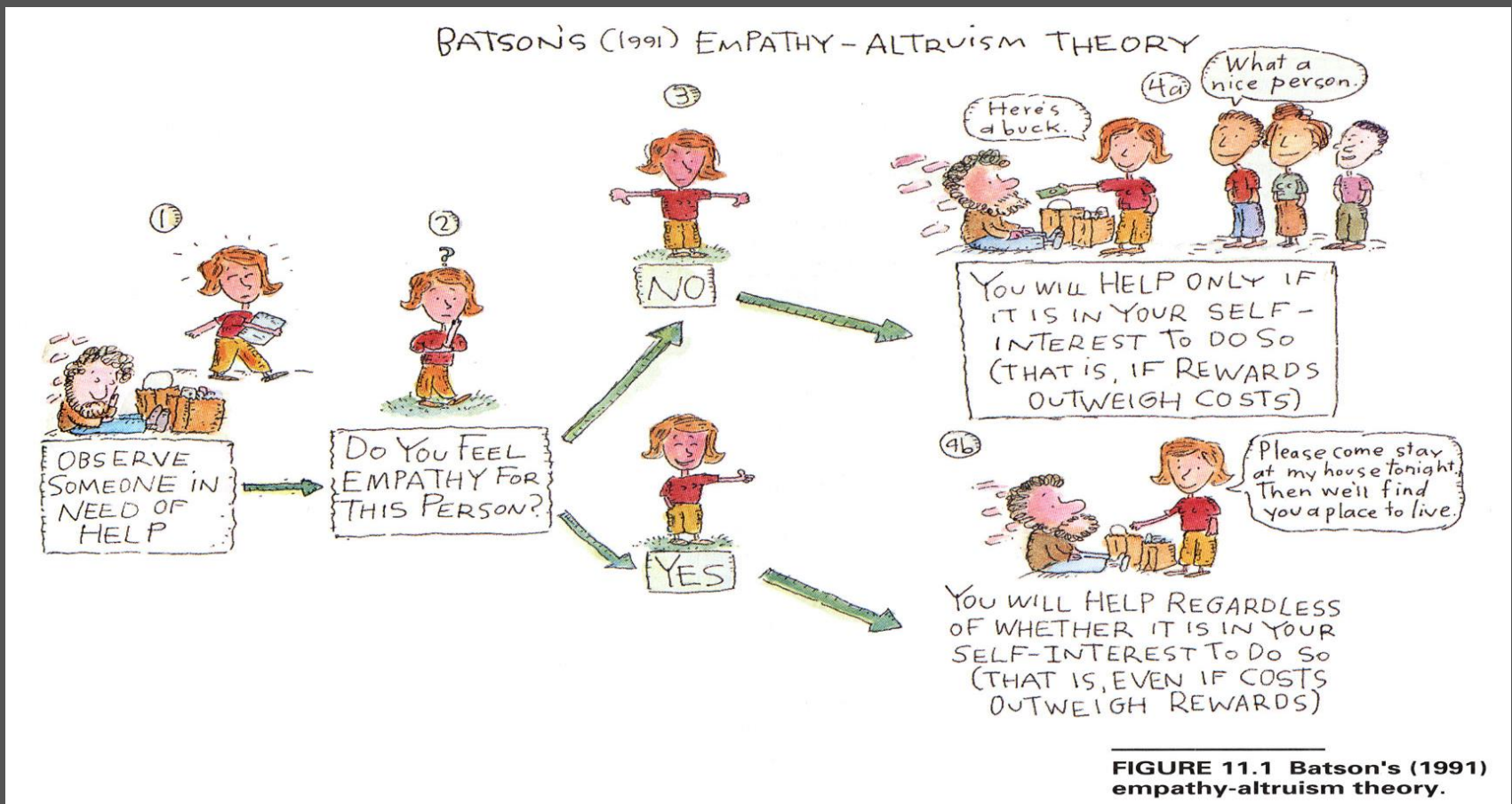
	FOR HELPING	FOR NOT HELPING
COSTS	Short-term loss of time (e.g., late to appointment)	Loss of self-esteem
	Long-term loss of time (e.g., court appearance)	Social disapproval from witnesses who helped
	Potential injury to self, immediate (e.g., in assault case)	Legal liability (in some states, person who knows first aid must help or risk suit)
	Legal liability if injured person further hurt by self	Not helping promoted, increasing the likelihood oneself will not be helped
	Person who was aided becomes dependent on self	
	Potential injury to self, long-term (e.g., assailant seeks revenge)	
REWARDS	Improved self-esteem	Avoidance of short-term time loss
	Social approval by witnesses	Avoidance of long-term time loss
	Avoidance of legal liability for failure to help	Avoidance of injury to self, immediate
	Helping behavior promoted	Avoidance of injury to self, long-term
	Monetary rewards available in some cities	Avoidance of dependency by victim
	Favorable publicity for self in some cases	Avoidance of liability for further harming victim
	Criminals brought to justice in some cases	

TABLE 11.1 The costs and rewards of helping. While we typically think of helping behavior in terms of its rewards, costs too are involved. Piliavin, Rodin, and Piliavin (1969) have outlined the costs and rewards of *helping* versus the costs and rewards of *not helping*. According to social exchange theory, we help only when the perceived rewards outweigh the perceived costs. (Adapted from Piliavin, Rodin, and Piliavin, 1969)

(Piliavin, Rodin, and Piliavin, 1969)

Does Pure Altruism Exist?

- Batson (1991)
 - helping reflects both self-serving and selfless goals



Characteristics of person in need

More likely to help those who:

- We perceive as being similar to us
- Less able to help themselves
- We are physically attracted to

Less likely to help those who:

- We see as unattractive
- Those we see as responsible for their own plight

Men are more likely than women to help a member of the opposite sex - but women willing to help other females



<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6QcLs98NeJY>

Characteristics of helper/ Individualistic Approach

Good moods

- less preoccupied with self
- more sensitive to the needs of others

Good news, pleasant smells, music

Cunningham (1979) - more likely to help (and leave bigger tips) on a pleasant day

Baron (1997) - more likely to provide help to a stranger when in the presence of fresh cookies

But – if helping is likely to spoil our good mood, we might not help (Isen, 1984)

Bad moods

- inner-focused
- less concerned about the welfare of others, help less (Wyatt, 1978)

■ Mood management:

Cialdini et al. (1987)

Negative-state relief model/hypothesis - helping may relieve a bad mood

e.g. if the bad mood is guilt and helping can relieve that – we might help

Alcohol

Consumption of alcohol – reduces inhibitions and awareness of potential dangers

Fear of embarrassment

Less likely to help

Need for approval

If people have a high need for approval their more likely to help in front of others

Characteristics of the situation

Stimulus overload (Milgram, 1970) - urban-overload hypothesis

- people in cities more likely to keep to themselves to avoid being overloaded by information
- not due to their upbringing

Time pressure

Good Samaritan study

- Darley & Batson (1973)
 - seminary students give speech about Good Samaritan OR summer job
 - either a few minutes late (or on time)
 - as they reach building, they see someone slumped in the doorway

- RESULTS
 - on time, 45% helped
 - few minutes late, only 10% helped
 - speech content had no effect

Gender

- Males more likely to help when
 - victim is a stranger
 - in the presence of an audience
 - there is potential danger
 - victim is female
- Females more likely to help when ...
 - victim is a friend
 - help involves caretaking

Bystander effects - Decision Model (Darley and Latané)

- Might not notice the situation
- Might not interpret as emergency (ambiguity)
- Might expect someone else to take responsibility
- Might not be trained or competent
- Might be against our interests to help

Noticing the Situation

- Clark & Word (1972)
 - man falls off a ladder. For some participants, the man cries out



- having a cue (i.e., noticing situation) affected behaviour
- Without cue, 35% help
- With cue, 100% help

Is It An Emergency?

- Darley & Latané (1968)
 - students doing study in lab
 - an apparent emergency – smoke
 - few people took action → did not perceive event as emergency
 - interpreted as leaky air con., chemistry lab, steam pipes, truth gas!



Taking Responsibility

- Moriarity (1975)
 - while at beach, woman near you goes for a swim
 - she asks you to watch her belongings (or not)



- when watching belongings, 95% intervene
- control condition, 20% intervene

Weighing Costs and Benefits

- Shotland & Straw (1976)

- male participants witness staged fight
- condition 1 – F says “Get away from me ... I never saw you before in my life”
- condition 2 - “Get away from me, I don’t know why I married you”

- RESULTS

- 3x as much intervention in condition 1

How Can I Help?

- Cramer et al. (1988)
 - more likely to help if feel competent
 - high competence participants (nurses) helped more than low competence participants after hearing person fall from ladder

Latane and Darley's cognitive model (1968)

Kitty Genovese murder

Witnesses may not have helped because answer was 'no' at any of these stages

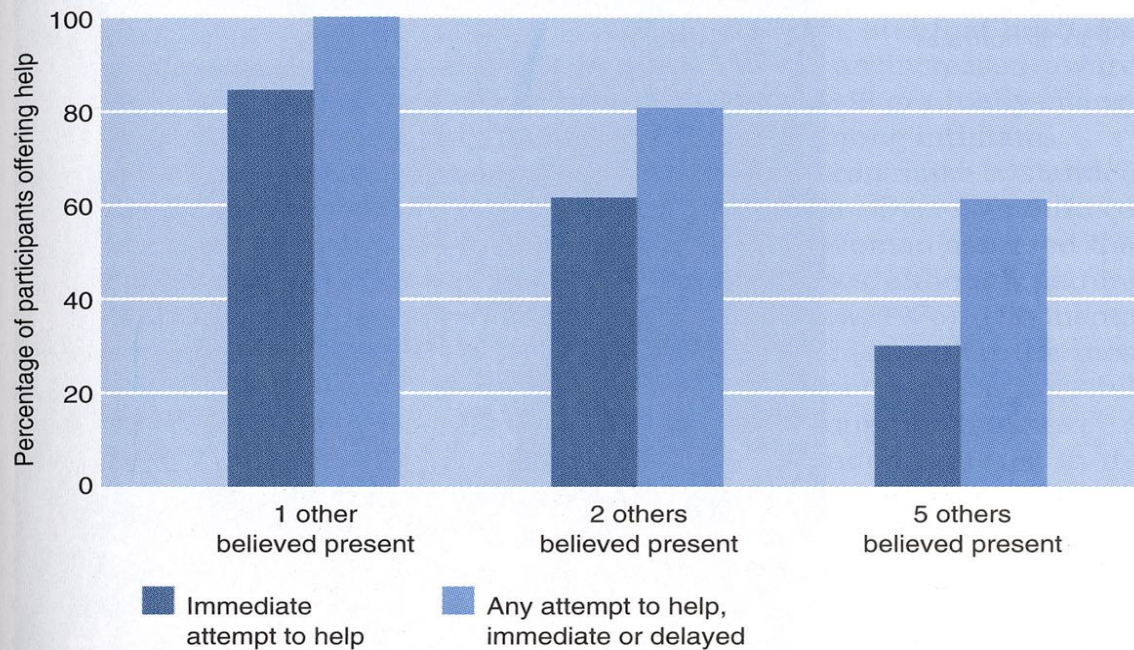
Because there were so many possible witnesses people did not help

Diffusion of responsibility

One person present = 100% responsibility to help

Two people – 50%

FIGURE 14.1 Diffusion of responsibility: Lost in the crowd



■ In this experiment, participants heard another participant having a "seizure" in what they believed was a group of two, three, or six people. (They actually heard recordings of other voices.) The more people participants believed to be present, the less likely the real participants were to help. (Data from Darley & Latané, 1968.)

Lady in distress (Latane and Rodin, 1969)

Male subject filling out questionnaire

Heard woman in another room struggle to open a filing cabinet

Loud crash followed by a cry of pain, and moans and groans

Alone – helped 70% of the time

In pairs – only 40%

With a passive confederate who suggested that the situation wasn't critical – only 7%

Pluralistic ignorance

We look to others to make up our minds about helping.

The presence of others can provide us with information as to whether to help

<http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=OSsPfbup0ac>

Piliavin et al (1981) – Arousal-Cost model

3 stages:

1. Physiological arousal
2. Labelling the arousal – what kind of arousal?
3. Evaluating the consequences (costs/benefits)

The greater the victim's need, the greater the costs of not helping
(Piliavin et al, 1981)

That was then....this is now.....

- 'As horrific as the accounts were of the rape and ultimately fatal beating of a 23-year-old student on a bus in New Delhi, they were made worse in some ways by her male companion's depiction of what happened after the two of them were thrown off the bus.
- As reported in an Indian newspaper, when the rapists dumped the bleeding and naked bodies of their victims onto the roadside, they both waved and called to passersby, but no one stopped. "They slowed down, looked at our naked bodies and left," the man said. "My friend was grievously injured and bleeding profusely. Cars, [autorickshaws] and bikes slowed down and sped away. I kept waving for help. The ones who stopped stared at us, discussing what could have happened. Nobody did anything."

This event occurred on 16th December **2012**

Quoted from http://www.huffingtonpost.com/peter-occhiogrosso/kitty-genovese_b_2424893.html

Reading

Gross, R. (2010). *Psychology: The science of mind and behaviour* (6th ed). London: Hodder Education. (Chapter 30).

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