FEM 4103
PSYCHOLOGY OF SOCIAL AND 
INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR

FEM 4103 (UNIT 1-6/6)
BACHELOR SCIENCE (HUMAN DEVELOPMENT)

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MODUL PEMBELAJARAN : FEM 4103 PSYCHOLOGY OF SOCIAL AND INTERPERSONAL BEHAVIOR disediakan dalam bentuk bahan pengajaran dan penelajaran kendi di bawah program Pendidikan Jarak Jauh, Universiti Putra Malaysia. Sebarang pertanyaan dan cadangan untuk memperbaiki gaya penyampaian dan isi kandungan modul ini boleh dikemukakan kepada penulis dengan menggunakan alamat Pusat Pendidikan Luar.

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a. Course Information

Course Name: Psychology of Social and Interpersonal Behavior
(Psikologi Tingkah Laku Sosial dan Interpersonal)
Course Code: FEM 4103
Credit: 3 (3+0)
Summary: This course requires 3 hours of lecture per week and a total of 42 hours per semester. However, for long distance learning, students are expected to do self-learning. Students are encouraged to contact course instructor for further clarifications on any topics covered in this course.

b. Author Information

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c. **Course Objectives**

   Students will be able to:
   
   1. explain process and contexts of social and interpersonal behavior
   2. explain factors that affects the psychology of social and interpersonal behavior.
   3. analyse various forms of communication interactions and human behavior that contributes to social and interpersonal skills.

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d. **Course Synopsis**

This course discusses the psychology of social and interpersonal behavior. The influence of social and interpersonal relationships and the application of social and interpersonal skills in human interaction are also discussed.

(*Kursus ini membincangkan psikologi tingkah laku sosial dan interpersonal. Pengaruh hubungan sosial dan interpersonal serta aplikasi psikologi sosial dan kemahiran interpersonal dalam interaksi manusia turut dibincangkan.*)
e. **Course Content**

This course focuses on the influence of social and interpersonal relationships and the application of social psychology and interpersonal skills on how human acts and interacts in various situations. The contents of this course are organized according to 6 units (Table 1). Unit 1 examines social perception that includes impression formation, attribution and communication. Unit 2 is about the interpersonal relationships that discuss different types of relationships, social cognition and behavior, and the influence of affect on cognition. Unit 3 explains the aspect of attraction in social and interpersonal relationships. This unit also includes discussion on the need for affiliation and factors in attraction, and close relationships. Unit 4 covers social influence including social facilitation, compliance, conflict, prejudice and discrimination. Unit 5 discusses communication and interpersonal relationship, specifically marital relationships. Unit 6 is about prosocial behavior that highlights why, when and whom do people help; leadership and antisocial behavior that covers issues such as aggression and form of aggression in society.
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  • Helping others  
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f. **Course Evaluation**

   Students' performances in this course are based on the following evaluations:
   
   (i) **Course work**
       - Assignment 1  30%
       - Mid semester test  30%
   
   (ii) **Final examination**  40%

   **Total**  100%

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g. **Mid Semester Test**

   Students of FEM 4103 are required to sit for one mid term test. The test covers topics stated in FEM 4103 module. The test contains both the objective (can be in the form of multiple choices, true/false and/or matching) and structured (questions that need short answers or brief explanation of certain concept/ theory/ situation) questions. Mid semester test will cover unit 1 to unit 3 of the module. However, the final or latest information on the test will be informed to students through PPL websites and learning centres when the time comes. The marks for mid term test carry a total of 30% of the total marks.
h. Assignment

Students of FEM 4103 are required to prepare and submit one written assignment.

Assignment:

The assignment on psychology of social and interpersonal behavior is an individual assignment. Students are free to choose any of the following topics related to psychology of social and interpersonal behavior:

- Attitudes and behavior
- Factors that influence conformity and compliance
- Group influence on individual behavior
- Friendship
- Romantic relationships
- Aggression: its determinants, prevention and control
- Prosocial behavior
- Social causes of prejudice and discrimination

Based on the topic selected, students are required to write a 15-20 pages technical paper excluding bibliography and appendices. The assignment will be evaluated according to the following criteria:

- Introduction - 10
- Content - 40
- Organization of ideas/facts - 15
- Conclusions and/or recommendations - 10
- Language - 10
- Citation, references/bibliography - 15

Type your project paper using the following format:

- Font: Times New Roman
- Font size: 12
- Spacing: 1.5
- Margins: top – 1", bottom – 1", right – 1", left: 1.25"

The first assignment must be submitted 2 weeks after the date of the mid semester test. The marks for the assignment carry 30% of the total marks.
i. Final Examination
Final examination will cover topics from Unit 4 to Unit 6. The exam contains both the objective (can be in the form of multiple choices, true/false and/or matching) and structured (questions that need short answers or brief explanation of certain concept/ theory/ situation) questions. However, the final or latest information on the final examination will be informed to students through PPL websites and learning centers when the time comes. The marks for mid term test carry 40% of the total marks.

j. Main References


Additional References


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UNIT 1
SOCIAL PERCEPTION

How we come to understand other people? Every day we face many events where we present ourselves and try to shape others’ impressions. In order to understand other people, we observe others’ self-presentations and try to make sense of their motives and beliefs. It is through our perception that we come to understand people’s desires, emotions, intentions, traits, abilities and beliefs.

Objective

Students will be able to:

1. Describe perception and social perception.
2. Explain main processes in the formation of social perception.
3. Explain the relationships between communication and social perception.

Reading:


Content

Topic 1: Perception and Social Perception
Topic 2: Impression Formation
Topic 2: Attribution
Topic 3: Communication
Topic 1: Perception and Social Perception

What is Perception? Perception has been given various meanings that differ in degree of complexity from very simple to very complex definition. In the simplest way, perception is defined as the process of giving meaning to stimuli. It has also been defined as the process of by which a persons receive information through their five senses and assign meaning to it. Perception is viewed as a complex process by which people select, organize, and interpret sensory stimulation into a meaningful picture of the world. A more complex view defined perception as our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli. In general, there are three basic functions that are contained in the definition of perception, which are sensing the stimulus in the external world, selecting and attending to certain stimuli and not others, and finally, interpreting the stimuli and give meaning. Through the perceptual process, we gain information about properties and elements of the environment that are critical to our survival. Perception not only creates our experience of the world around us, but it also allows us to act within our environment.

What is social perception? Social perception is the study of how we form impressions of and make inferences about other people. It is not a single, instantaneous event. It is an ongoing process. Social perception allows us to study social behavior. Social behavior is behavior directed towards, or taking place between members of the same species. It involves an activity and has social meaning or social context. It has also been described as the process of communicating. Many social behaviors are communication to provoke a response or change in behavior without acting directly on the receiver.

Social perception is one important component of social competence and social success. This includes the ability to make friends and be accepted by peers. Weak or impaired social perceptions can have serious consequences such as misinterpretation, misreading, or leap into quick conclusions about others' behaviors.
For example, one might misread a colleague's teasing behavior as a threat and will react in an aggressive or violent manner.

Competency in social perception comprises three domains. First, is knowing that other people have thoughts, beliefs, emotions, intention and desires. Second, being able to 'read' other people inner states based on their words, behavior and facial expression. Third, is the ability to adjust one's actions based on those 'readings'. Competency in social perception leads to correct inferences about other people's inner state in order decide on how to behave socially.

Social perception is an ongoing process which can be classified into two areas, which are impression formation and attribution. The first step in making perception is forming an impression. The next is to understand what causes people to behave in certain particular manner and this is called attribution process.

- Perception is our sensory experience of the world around us and involves both the recognition of environmental stimuli and actions in response to these stimuli.
- Basic functions of perception include sensing the stimulus in the external world, selecting and attending to certain stimuli and not others, and finally, interpreting the stimuli and give meaning.
- Social perception is the study of how we form impressions of and make inferences about other people.
- Social perception is one important component of social competence and social success.
- Social perception is an ongoing process which can be classified into two areas, which are impression formation and attribution.
Topic 2: Impression Formation

We formed impression about others based on quick and rapid assessments of prominent and visible qualities and behaviors in others. The assessments are attained by attending to non verbal cues such as facial expression, body posture and trait. Impression formation is a dynamic and an integrative process. It is dynamic because we will continually update our judgments of a person in response to new information we receive. Impression formation is integrative because we do not interprete each bit of information we have about a person in isolation of its whole. We interprete specific information about a person within the contexts of all the information we know about that particular person.

Our impression of others is shaped by others' nonverbal behavior or nonverbal communication. Nonverbal communication is about receiving and sending information not by using words, but through people's outward appearance and nonverbal behavior such as body gestures and movements, expressions as well as vocal cues. We use people's outward (physical) appearance and nonverbal behavior to gain information about them.

Physical appearances and physical characteristics.
We form judgments based on clues such as attractiveness, facial type, clothing and wearing or type of eyeglasses.

Nonverbal behavior.
Nonverbal behavior is action separate from speech that refers how people communicate their feelings and intentions, intentionally or unintentionally without words. Examples of nonverbal behaviors are facial expressions, tone of voice, the use of touch and eye gaze.
Nonverbal behavior serves the following primary functions:

- to express emotion such as anger, happiness, bitterness, joy, fear or sadness,
- to convey attitudes such as 'I like your attitude',
- to communicate one's personality traits such as 'I'm outgoing', 'I'm a private person', and
- to facilitate verbal communication. For example, some people will lower their voice at the end of speech or presentation to indicate that they are done and its others turn.

Some nonverbal cues repeat or complement the spoken message. According to Charles Darwin, nonverbal communication is species specific and not culture specific. Information about one's inner state is revealed through the following nonverbal behavior:

- Facial expression of emotion.
- Eye contact and gaze.
- Body language.
- Touching.

_Facial expressions of emotion_

Darwin asserted that the primary emotions conveyed by the face are universal. Certain emotional expressions are inborn and therefore are understood through the world. Since nonverbal communications are species-specific, all human beings encode or express basic emotions in the same way. All human beings also, can decode or interpret similar emotions with equal accuracy. Darwin's belief is said to be true for six major emotional expressions: anger, happiness, surprise, fear, disgust, contempt and sadness. Research evidenced that people can accurately identify these basic emotions from facial expression. Research also shows that embarrassment is another emotional expression that is communicated with distinct and identifiable facial expressions. Acts of embarrassment include turn head, looking down, shift gaze and controlled smile. Shame and guilt are other emotions that are considered basic.
Our interpretations of others’ facial expressions sometimes may not be accurate. What are the factors that impinge on inaccurate decipher? Experts in social psychology have identified the following three (3) factors that decrease people’s decoding accuracy:

1. **Affect blends.**
   Affect blends occur when different parts of someone’s face registers a different emotion. Thus, we may misinterpret the real emotion that is being communicated by the person.

2. **People try to appear less emotional.**
   This happens when people try to hide their feeling such as hurt feeling so that others cannot detect what they feel in certain situation.

3. **Culturally determined rules about appropriate expressions.**
   Some behaviors are culturally determined. Culture may have social rules for when and how emotions are expressed. Males and females may have been socialized to express or not to express certain emotions. The cultural belief systems that emphasize individualism as opposed to collectivism may have shaped different norms of expressing emotion. Thus, the facial expressions may not convey the true emotions.

*Eye contact and gaze*

Eyes are regard as “windows to the soul”. If we cannot see one’s eyes, we are not certain of how he or she is reacting to a situation or phenomenon. We can learn about others and their feelings from their eyes. For example, high level of eye contact during an interaction can be interpreted as positive feelings or liking. Low eye contact may infer feelings such as discomfort, disliking or nervousness. If someone stares at us, we may perceive it as hostility.

*Use of Personal Space*

How people use personal space will also convey certain messages. If two people sit very close to each other, it may be interpreted as intimate emotions. If they sit far apart from each other, others may take it to mean unfriendliness, dislike or despise.
Body Language - Gestures of the Head, Hands and Arms.
Specific gestures of head, hands and arms have their common shared meanings.
For example, thumbs up means everything is okey or good.

Touching
Touching is the most intimate nonverbal cue. When touching is deemed appropriate,
it often produces positive feelings or reactions in the person being touched.

- Impression formation is a dynamic and an integrative process.
- We use people's outward (physical) appearance and nonverbal behavior
to gain information about them.
- Information about one's inner state is revealed through the following
nonverbal behavior such as facial expression of emotion, eye contact
and gaze, body language and touching.

Topic 3: Attribution

What is attribution? Attribution is about how we answer the question “why”.
It is about how people explain things. As human beings, we have a strong need to
understand and explain our world. Attribution offers explanations about why things
happened and it explains causes behind other people’s behavior. Attribution is
defined as the process by which people use information to make inferences about
the causes of behavior or events. In simple term, it is the process of linking behavior
to its causes; they are intentions, dispositions and events that explain why people act
the way they do.

People broadly explore the causes of a given action or behavior using either:

1. The internal causes (states).
2. The external causes (factors).
Some experts categorize the causes as dispositional (internal) and situational (external). When we explain behavior using internal causes, it means that we give reasons to behavior that rest on personality traits and characteristics of the individual carrying out that behavior or who performed the behavior. An internal attribution asserts that the person is directly responsible for the event or behavior. In external attribution (situational attribution), reasons for behavior are rest on the demands or constraints of a given social setting. The behaviors of people under scrutiny are due to surrounding situations or an outside agent or force. In other words, an external attribution claims that something outside an individual that motivates the event or behavior. As an example, suppose you have a relative who graduated from college and is unemployed. How would you explain the cause of unemployment in the example given? You might argue that your relative is lazy and irresponsible. By this, you attribute internal causes to the situation. In contrast, you may give explanation that link the situation (unemployment) with unstable economy of the country or to discrimination against certain group of people. This means that problem is due to factors external to the person or nature of the surrounding situation.

What type of attribution we assign to behaviors will have its social consequences. When we assign the cause of negative behavior to internal factors, then the behavior is related to personal problems. Therefore, the solutions to overcome the problem will involve treating the individual. If the cause of negative behavior is assigned to external factors or situation, then the problem is a social or public issue that calls for changes in the social system.

According to theory of attribution by Kelley, the behavior of an individual varies in three ways. These three ways are consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness that can be either high or low. Consensus information accounts for whether other people behave the same as the person when they are faced with the same situation. High consensus is when many other people act the same way in a situation. This implies a situational attribution. Low consensus is when not many people act the same way in the same situation. This implies a dispositional attribution.

Consistency is information about the extent to which the behavior between one actor and one stimulus is the same across time and circumstances. In other words, it
accounts for whether the person always behaves the same way when they are faced with the same situation. High consistency indicates that the behavior happens often in the same situation. This results in a dispositional attribution. Low consistency indicates that the behavior varies from time to time in the situation. This results in a situational attribution.

Distinctiveness is information that refers to how the actor reacts or responds to other stimuli. Basically, it accounts for whether the person behaves this way only when in a certain situation. Distinctiveness is low when the reactions to different events are the same. It means that the same behavior is exhibited in many situations. This implies a dispositional attribution. High distinctiveness means that the behavior varies depending on the situation. This implies a situational attribution.

Information on consensus, consistency and distinctiveness are used in trying to explain why a certain events, behavior or actions occurred. Events, behavior or actions may be attributing to the person (internal/dispositional), the events (external/situational), or a combination of both. Attributions are influenced by the amount and type of information. Low distinctiveness, high consistency, and low consensus indicate that individual’s behavior stemmed from internal causes. High consensus, low consistency, and high distinctiveness imply that individual’s behavior is most likely due to external or situational factors.

The key for change is an internal attribution. When a person make an internal attribution, it is most likely that he/she will change attitudes and beliefs about him/herself. When external attribution is used to explain behavior, some problems may arise. A person may not be motivated to produce the desired behavior because of the belief that the behavior is control by external force. So he/she cannot do anything. In summary, attribution theory point out that people can create new attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors depending on the explanation they make.
Biases in Attribution

The attribution process is characterized by biases that cause judgmental errors. Sources of bias include:

- Fundamental attribution error
- The actor-observer hypothesis
- Self-serving bias

**Fundamental attribution error**
Fundamental attribution error is the tendency to explain other’s action in term of internal causes rather than external causes. Behavior is judged independent of context. The role of dispositional factor in behavior is overestimated, while the role of situational factor is underestimated.

**The actor-observer hypothesis**
Error in assigning causes of behavior may be due to differences in the attribution perspective of the actor and the observer. The actor often relates own behavior to situational influences. Observer on the other hand, explains behavior in term of dispositional characteristics. Why do these differences occur? One main reason for the difference is that both parties possess different information. The actor is more aware of own internal capabilities, thus focus on situational cues. On the other hand, observer focuses on actor’s behavioral cues. Thus, actor-observer hypothesis is the tendency for people to attribute their own behavior to external causes, while that of others to internal causes.

**Self-serving Bias**
Self-serving bias is the tendency to attribute success to internal causes but failures to external ones. In general, people have higher tendency to interpret their own behavior and its causes in positive terms. The explanation for making self-serving bias is that it basically helps people to enhance and protect their self-esteem and thus, look ‘good’ in the eyes of others.
• Attribution is the process of linking behavior to its causes - intentions, dispositions and events that explain why people act the way they do.

• The causes of behavior can be assigned to internal or external factors.

• The behavior of an individual varies according to its consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness.

• Sources of bias in attribution include fundamental attribution error, the actor-observer hypothesis and self-serving bias.

Topic 4: Communication

Our perception and attributions affect the way we communicate. Most people communicate best with others of similar culture. When we understand what and how body language and facial expressions communicate, we are more able to understand and empathize with colleagues and other people’s non-verbal language skills. Eventually, this will create a non-defensive environment, and a more healthy and productive relationships among individuals.

An insight into us can influence our style of communication as well as our perception of self and others. One way to gain insight and make people more aware of their invisible traits is by analyzing traits through the Johari Window. We can examine and analyze ourself through four windows:

1. The known self.
2. The hidden self.
3. The blind self.
4. The emotional self.

Windows 1 and 2 are the conscious side of self, while windows 3 and 4 are unconscious side of self. Windows 1 is the part of self that is known to us and
others. The part of which we purposely show other people and they see us how we want to be seen. The hidden self is the part of self that only we know about it and we do not show or share it with others. The blind self is the part of self that we do not know or have no idea about it, but other people can see and know about it. The emotional self is our past emotional experiences from our life. This is the part of self that motivates us to be ourselves.

We may have experienced tension and defensiveness in our communication with others; thus, misperceive many social situation and behavior. Problems due to misperceptions can be minimized by practicing good listening and talking skills. The followings are some of the ways that can enhance communication and help explore perceptions of one another:

- Be an attentive listener. When listening to other people, we have to put away our own agenda.

- Do not put our own interpretation into what other people say.

- Wait for our turn to talk and be patient while listening to others.

- Show empathy. There are always two sides of the behavior, opinions or situations. By being empathetic, we can see and feel how other people are feeling or experiencing and therefore understand them better.

- Without empathy, there will be a one-sided way of seeing and interpreting behavior, opinion or situation.

- Be sensitive to our nonverbal body language to avoid sending inappropriate messages and create tension in the relationship.

- Understand what makes us defensive. Defensiveness hinders open, clear and succinct communication that can lead to ‘misreading’ of the situation and inaccurate perceptions.
• Problems in communication contribute to misinterpretation and misperception of social behavior and social situations.

• The problems can be reduced by gaining insights of oneself. The Johari Window can aid a person to analyze his/her traits.

• Improved communication skills can help individual explore perceptions of one another and improve relationships.

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**Review Questions**

1. How do we understand other people?
2. Define perception and social perception.
3. Explain three domains of competency in social perception.
4. State and explain people's outward appearance and nonverbal behavior that are used to gain information about them.
5. What is attribution?
6. According to attribution theory, what are the causes of behavior?
7. How does individual behavior vary?
8. What are the common sources of bias in attribution?
9. Discuss ways that can enhance communication and help explore perceptions to improve social relationship and behavior.
Summary

Perception has been given various meanings that differ in degree of complexity from very simple to very complex definition. Perception creates our experience of the world around us and allows us to act within our environment.

Social perception allows us to study social behavior. Many social behaviors are communication to provoke a response or change in behavior without acting directly on the receiver. Weak or impaired social perceptions can have serious consequences such as misinterpretation, misreading, or leap into quick conclusions about others' behaviors. For example, one might misread a colleague's teasing behavior as a threat and will react in an aggressive or violent manner. Competency in social perception leads to correct inferences about other people's inner state. Social perception is an ongoing process that involves impression formation and attribution.

Impression formation is integrative because we interpret specific information about a person within the contexts of all the information we know about that particular person. Our impression of others is shaped by others' nonverbal behavior or nonverbal communication.

Attribution is defined as the process by which people use information to make inferences about the causes of behavior or events. The causes of behavior can be either internal states or external factors. What type of attribution we assign to behaviors will have its social consequences. The behavior of an individual varies in three ways: consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness. Attribution theory point out that people can create new attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors depending on the explanation they make.

Communication affects our perception and attributions. Thus, misperceptions and bias in attribution can be overcome by practicing good communication skills.
UNIT 2
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Interpersonal relationships addresses the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and behaviors of individuals in order to participate in positive, caring and respectful relationships in various contexts. Increased diversity and rapid changes in society make interacting with others continually more complex and challenging. Interpersonal skills are essentials to maintaining positive relationships, stable families, successful careers and strong communities. Positive interpersonal relationships fulfill personal needs, build trust, develop confidence and encourage cooperation. Interpersonal relationships are vital for optimal human growth and development. Interpersonal effectiveness helps strengthen families and increased quality of work life. Besides social perception, social cognition play a critical role in the way we behave and relate to other people. Thus, this topic focuses on types of interpersonal relationships, social cognition and the influence of affective and cognition on social behavior and relationships.

Objective
Students will be able to:

1. Explain different types of interpersonal relationships.
2. Explain relationship between social cognition and social behavior.
3. Analyze the influence of affect on cognition.

Reading:


Content

Topic 1: Types and Characteristics of Relationships
Topic 2: Social Cognition and Behavior
Topic 3: Affect and Cognition

**Topic 1: Types and Characteristics of Interpersonal Relationships**

Interpersonal relationships can be defined in terms of relational contexts of interaction and the types of expectations a person has toward one another. The various types of interpersonal relationships that we may encounter in our life are:

- Friendship.
- Family relationship.
- Romantic relationship.
- Professional relationships.

Friendship is defined as rule-governed relationship that a person enters into by choice. Healthy family interactions patterns establish roles and identities; and enable the growth of all individuals in the family. Romantic relationships are about the concept of passion, intimacy and commitment in interpersonal relationships. Professional relationships refer to interpersonal relationships established due to work situation or career need. People spend a large proportion of their day day at work place. Success in work or career is greatly affected by the ability of a worker to relate to others interpersonally.

The characteristics of interpersonal relationships are:

- Relationships in which people base their predictions of behavior on psychological data.
- Relationships are explanatory knowledge rather than descriptive knowledge.
- Relationships involve personally established rules rather than socially established rules.
Interpersonal relationships help individuals to alleviate loneliness, secure stimulation, gain self-knowledge, and enhance self-esteem. Interpersonal relationships has its disadvantages too. Among the disadvantages of interpersonal relationships are that it put pressure on individuals to reveal themselves to others; impose significant financial, emotional and temporal obligation; and may increased isolation from former friends.

Culture influences the belief we have about the relationships, the values and purposes they should serve, the choices involved in developing and dissolving the relationships, the rules that the relationships should follow and the role that are considered appropriate in relationships. Interpersonal relationships is also greatly affected by technology, especially in their development, maintenance and dissolution.

- Relational contexts of interaction and the types of expectations a person has toward one another define interpersonal relationships.
- The various types of interpersonal relationships that we may encounter in our life are friendship, family relationship, romantic relationship and professional relationships.
- Interpersonal relationships predict behavior based on psychological data, explanatory knowledge, and personally established rules.
- Culture and technology affect the development, maintenance and dissolution of interpersonal relationships.
Topic 2: Social Cognition and Behavior

Social cognition begins by social perception. Social cognition is the study of how people select, interpret and use information to make judgments and decisions. It broadly refers to those aspects of mental processing that are shaped by social interaction, real or imagined, and which in turn, influence subsequent social behavior. There are two kinds of social cognition:

1. One that involves automatic thinking.
2. One that involves controlled thinking.

Automatic thinking is the thinking that is non-conscious, unintentional, involuntary and effortless. For example, people automatically use schemas and judgmental heuristics. Schemas are cognitive structures that organize information around the theme or subjects. Schemas have a powerful effect on what we notice, think about and remember. In certain circumstances, for example, when applied to social groups such as gender or race, schemas are also referred to as stereotypes. Schemas are basic components of social thought.

Which schemas are applied in a given situation is determined by accessibility. Accessibility is the extent to which schemas and concepts are at the forefront of the mind and are likely to be used.

Schemas are accessible through priming. Priming is the process by which recent experiences or exposure to stimuli such as people, ideas or mere words, increases the accessibility of a schema, trait or personality. Schema influences the interpretation of new information. For example, if we are exposed to different lists of words, the most recent exposure has the highest chance of accessibility. Priming effects occur even when people are not consciously aware that they have been exposed to relevant prior information. Schemas affect our behavior because we act on the basis of our schema.
How people define social situation and how they behave are influenced by self-fulfilling prophecy. Self-fulfilling prophecy is the tendency for people to act in a way that is consistent with their expectations, beliefs, or cognitions about an event or behavior, thereby increasing the likelihood that the event or behavior will occur. It makes schemas come true by unconsciously treat others in such a way that makes them act consistently with our schemas. It is responsible for turning cognition into reality. It is also an inclination to act as if our expectations were true. Self-fulfilling prophecy operates in a variety of contexts.

**Mental Strategies and Shortcuts: Heuristics**

Heuristics originates from Greek word which means 'to discover'. It is the rule of thumb or mental shortcuts people follow in order to make judgments quickly and efficiently. In daily interpersonal relationships, heuristic helps people deal with the large amount of information they face.

People rely on different type of heuristics to make judgment about social behavior, event or situation. The different types of heuristics are:

1. The availability heuristics.
2. The representativeness heuristics.
3. The anchoring and judgment heuristics.

The availability heuristics is a search bias. It is about asking judgment based on the ease of which we can think of something. It refers to how quickly examples come to our mind. The availability heuristic has a strong effect on how we view the world. It is a false consensus bias assuming that others agree with us. Its strength of association depends on repetition. This type of heuristic is used in judging stereotyping of person or frequency of various events.

The representativeness heuristics are used to classify people or situation on the basis of their similarity to a typical case. People make judgments about probability, that is, how likely is that A belongs to group x? Example. A is intelligent, quiet and nerd. The more similar the person is to the prototype, the more likely he/she belongs
to that group. By using this heuristic, we may overlook other important information, thus jump into wrong conclusion.

We use an initial piece of information as an anchor or starting point for subsequent thoughts on certain things. This initial information is the anchoring and adjustment heuristics. When using this type of heuristic thinking, people have the tendency to be biased towards the starting value in making judgments.

What is prototype? It is an abstract set of features commonly associated with members of a category. In simple language, it is an averaged idea of a concept.

**Controlled Thinking**

Controlled thinking is thinking that is conscious, intentional, voluntary and effortful. In this type of thinking, people can turn on and off this type of thinking at will. People are fully aware of what they are thinking. Controlled thinking is difficult to do when people are unmotivated or preoccupied.

**Schemas**

Schemas are mental templates by which we organize our world. It is the glue that holds all the bit of information together. Schemas can be categorized into several types. They are:

- Person schemas
- Self schemas
- Group schemas
- Role schemas
- Event schemas
Person schema

Person schema is a cognitive structure that describes the personalities of other individuals. Person schemas can be very specific and pertain to particular individual, and very abstract and focus on relations among personality traits. Person schemas organize our conceptions of others’ personalities that enable us to develop expectations about others' behaviors.

Self schema

Self schema is a cognitive generalization about oneself that is derived from past experiences. It has similar meaning to self-concept. Like other types of schemas, it affects the processing of information, which in turn, leads to biases in what we attend to, remember, and prepared to accept as true for ourselves. Different and distinct self schema determines whether a person is high or low in self complexity.

Group schema

It is a schema concerning the members of a particular social group or social category. It is similar to stereotype, a set of characteristics attributes to all members of some specified group or social category.

Role schema

Role schema relates to specific social roles. It indicates what attributes and behaviors are typical of persons occupying a particular role in a group. Observers might use role schemas to understand and to predict the behavior of the role occupant.

Event schema

Event schema is also referred to as scripts that are what is expected to happen in a given setting... It is a schema regarding important, recurring social events. It specifies the activities that constitute the events and the predetermined order of the
events. Once established, scripts save us a great deal of mental effort. This because it will tells us how to behave, what to expect, how other person would likely to behave and, what will happen in what order things happen in specific situations.

Schemas exert effects on three basic processes: attention, encoding, and retrieval. Attention determines what information people notice. Encoding is the process through which information people notice get stored in the memory. Retrieval is the process through which people recover information from memory in order to use it in some manner.

**Schema Based Error**

Schemas provide frameworks for organizing and interpreting new incoming information. However, sometimes schemas lead us seriously astray, and this is known as schema based error. Schema based error is due to:

- Illusory correlations – it is an overestimation of the relationship between two variables. People use infrequent events in order to explain the whole group. Stereotypes assume a correlation between a person’s group memberships and their characteristics. Persistent stereotypes can lead people to see correlations that are not there.

- Biased perceptions – is a positive or negative biases due to a person’s group, whether in-groups and out-groups. People assume that those in their groups are similar to them and therefore better. While those in the out-groups are perceived as different and therefore more negatively.

- Person prototypes – is central examples of certain types of people. People can expect some logical role in social behavior.

- Selectivity – people pay attention or select to attend to schema consistent information. Sometimes people have trouble remembering information that is not consistent with their schema for the individual or for the category. Instead
of recalling information about the individual, they may recall information about the category and assume that it is accurate.

- Social cognition broadly refers to those aspects of mental processing that are shaped by social interaction, real or imagined, and which in turn influence subsequent social behavior.

- Two kinds of social cognition are one that involves automatic thinking and one that involves controlled thinking. Automatic thinking is non-conscious, unintentional, involuntary and effortless thinking. Controlled thinking is thinking that is conscious, intentional, voluntary and effortful.

- People automatically use schemas and judgmental heuristics.

- Schemas are basic component of social thought and have a powerful effect on what we notice, think about and remember. Schema is accessible through priming.

- People rely on different types of heuristic to make judgment.

- Schemas exert effects on attention, encoding, and retrieval processes.

- Schemas sometimes lead us seriously astray.
Topic 3: Affect and Cognition

Emotions are multi-component responses to challenges or opportunities that are important to the individual’s goals, particularly social ones. It is important in people’s lives. Human created words for important things. Thus most important emotions have been identified in most human languages. Emotion is prototypes in everyday language.

What are typical emotions? Typical emotion is based on production norms that take into account how many people list an emotion as an example. Then the example is given ratings for typicality from typical to atypical. Some examples of emotion from cross-cultural study of production norms are: 1) Canada: happiness, anger, sadness, love, fear, hate, joy. 2) England: happiness, sadness, anger, depression, hate, love, joy.

Emotions differ from moods. Emotions are intentional and object-directed, and have a known cause. It is much more intense than moods. Moods are not intentional. Moods can have causes that we do not know. Intentionality, known causality and intensity distinguishes emotions and moods.

Components or Aspects of Emotion

There are various aspects of emotions such as conscious experiences and feelings; behavior; facial expression; peripheral physiological changes, and central nervous changes. Emotion can also be discussed according to its different types: emotional syndromes, emotional schemas, emotional states, and emotional responses.

- Emotional syndromes are states of affairs recognized in ordinary language by such abstract terms as anger, fear, and love. People encode a lot of knowledge in ordinary language. The meaning of emotion depends on culturally specific beliefs and rules about the nature of emotion. Emotions are typically considered subjective phenomena, in the mind of the individual.
Emotional schemas are the cognitive structure that helps mediate emotional experiences on any given occasion. Emotional syndromes are the experiences of individual, the relevant beliefs and rules must be internalized. The internalized representation of an emotional syndrome is an emotional schema. There are no two individuals who will experience an emotional syndrome in exactly the same way.

Emotional states are temporary (episodic) dispositions to respond consistent with emotional syndromes, as syndromes are schematized (understood) by the individual. When relevant emotional schemas are activated, a person “becomes emotional” (is in an emotional state).

Emotional responses are what a person thinks, feels and does when in an emotional state. Physiological and expressive reactions are common emotional responses. Instrumental act (goal directed, purposeful behavior) is also important. Emotional responses are complex; they are not simply things that happen to a person. More fundamentally they are things a person does (actions) but for which the person disowns responsibility.

Perspectives and Theories of Emotion

William James’ perspective

William James described emotion as "... bodily changes follow directly the perception of the exciting fact .... And feeling of the same changes occur, is the emotion". There is a close correspondence between emotions and peripheral physiological changes. Each emotion is associated with specific peripheral physiological response pattern.

Sigmund Freud: The psychoanalytic perspective

The psychoanalytic perspective argued that strong negative emotional events can have long-lasting effects on physical and mental health. These effects may occur even when people forget or actively repress memories of the negative event.
- **Philosophical Perspectives**

  Shakespeare wrote "... there is nothing either good or bad but thinking makes it so." Emotion researchers often talk about stimuli. However, stimuli are not intrinsically good or bad. It requires an evaluation or a comparison to some internal comparison standard.

- **The Literacy Approach: George Eliot**

  Emotions provide important answers to fundamental questions such as "who am I" and "what should I do". Emotions are like a compass.

- **The Two-Factor Theory of Emotion (Stanley Schachter)**

  This theory proposed that understanding emotional states requires two steps of self-perception process. First, people must experience physiological arousal. Second, people must seek appropriate explanation or label for it. People use information in the situation to help us make attribution about why people feel aroused. Sometimes the most plausible explanation is not the right explanation. So people end up experiencing a mistaken emotion.

- **Cognitive Appraisal Theories of Emotions**

  According to the cognitive appraisal theory, it depends on the way in which you interpret or explain the event, in an absence of any physiological arousal. In interpreting the event, two kinds of appraisal are important:

  1. People view of whether the event has good or bad implications for you.
  2. People view of what caused the event.

  Arousal does not always come first. The cognitive appraisal alone is sufficient cause of emotional reactions.
Influence of Affect on Cognition

There is often a good match between moods, thoughts and judgments of other people. Affect can have other effects on cognition. Good mood can sometimes increase creativity. However, people's thought can influence their reactions to emotion-producing events. Expectancies can influence people reactions to new events and stimuli.

Affect influences cognition through two mechanisms. First, affect tend to prime related cognitive categories, which are to interpret new information and relate it to existing knowledge. Second, affect as information (heuristic cue). People try to apply as little cognitive effort as necessary.

- Emotions are multi-component responses to challenges or opportunities.
- Emotion and mood is distinguished from each other on its intention, known causality, and intensity.
- Emotions are categorized according to its type or component: emotional syndrome, emotional schema, emotional states, and emotional responses.
- Various perspectives or theories explain the concept of information, its processes and effects on health and behavior.
- Affect influence cognition through priming and heuristic cue.
Review Questions

1. What is the meaning of interpersonal relationships?
2. Explain the advantages and disadvantages of interpersonal relationships.
3. How does culture influence people's interpersonal relationships?
4. State and explain two kinds of social cognition.
5. What are the different types of heuristics that people usually use to make judgment about social behavior, event or situation?
6. List and explain different types of schemas that hold bits of information together.
7. Describe factors that lead to schema based error.
8. How do emotions differ from mood?
9. Explain the cognitive appraisal theory of emotion.
10. Explain two mechanisms how affect influences cognition.

Summary

The various types of interpersonal relationships in people's life are friendship, family relationship, romantic relationship and professional relationships. Interpersonal relationships help individuals to alleviate loneliness, secure stimulation, gain self-knowledge, and enhance self-esteem. Culture and technology influence interpersonal relationships in various ways.
Social cognition is the study of how people select, interpret and use information to make judgments and decisions. Social cognition involves automatic thinking or controlled thinking.

Schemas are cognitive structures that organize information around the theme or subjects. Schemas have a powerful effect on what we notice, think about and remember. Accessibility determines which schemas are applied in a given situation. Schemas are accessible through priming. How people define social situation and how they behave are influenced by self-fulfilling prophecy. Self-fulfilling prophecy is responsible for turning cognition into reality.

People rely on different type of heuristics to make judgment about social behavior, event or situation. Controlled thinking is thinking that is conscious, intentional, voluntary and effortful. Schemas are mental templates by which we organize our world. Sometimes schemas lead us seriously astray, and this is known as schema based error.

Emotions are multi-component responses to challenges or opportunities that are important to the individual’s goals, particularly social ones. Emotion is prototypes in everyday language. Emotions differ from moods. Intentionality, known causality and intensity distinguishes emotions and moods. Emotion can also be discussed according to its different components or types: emotional syndromes, emotional schemas, emotional states, and emotional responses.

Theories explain the meaning of emotion, its processes and roles in social and interpersonal relationships. People’s thought can influence their reactions to emotion-producing events; while expectancies can influence people reactions to new events and stimuli. Affect influences cognition through priming of related cognitive categories and heuristic cues.
UNIT 3
ATTRACTION IN VARIOUS CONTEXTS

Interpersonal attraction is the desire to approach another individual. The attraction process is influenced by personal characteristics of the individual, situational factors, and also the characteristics of other people. Besides analyzing the influences of attraction, this unit will also discuss the origins of attraction such as the need for affiliation, the need to belong, attachment and loneliness. The unit also discusses close relationships (such as building relationships, intimacy, sexuality and relationships, and love relationships) and relationships as interpersonal processes.

Objective

Students will be able to:

1. Describe the origins of interpersonal attraction (the need for affiliation and belongingness) and loneliness.
2. Explain influences of interpersonal attraction and theory of attraction.
3. Analyze close relationships and relationships as an interpersonal process.

Reading:


Content

Topic 1: The Need for Affiliation and Belongingness
Topic 2: Influences of Interpersonal Attraction
Topic 3: Theory of Attraction
Topic 4: Close Relationships.
Topic 5: Relationships as an Interpersonal Process

**Topic 1: The Need for Affiliation and Belongingness**

Most people find companionship to be central and essential components of life. People forced to live alone, typically will feel extreme apathy and a sense of withdrawal. The longer the isolation, the more they think and dreams about other people. Why physical isolation from other people so unpleasant? The presence of others fulfills one fundamental need – the need for affiliation.

Based on a study by Schachter, affiliation needs could be aroused by fear. In the original, now classic study, carried out by social psychologist Stanley Schachter (1959), most participants who were in this high-fear situation chose to wait others. In contrast, in a control condition in which participants were threatened with a mild, relatively painless shock, most participants chose to wait by themselves. There are two explanations for Schachter’s findings:

1. Participants expecting a strong shock may have anticipated that the presence of other people could directly reduce their anxiety by offering comfort, consolation and reassurance.

2. Second explanations relate to social comparisons processes. Social comparison is the need to evaluate one’s own behavior, expertise, abilities & opinions by comparing them with those of other people.

According to social comparison theory, people are dependent on others for information about the world around them. They use the behavior and views of others to evaluate their own. People need to do this, because the objective reality of a situation is often ambiguous or simply unknowable.
Social comparison processes may have led fearful participants to attempt to understand and control their own emotions by comparing themselves with others in their own situation. By seeking out the company of others, participants may have tried to understand and control their own emotions and feelings.

The need for affiliation is the desire to seek relationships with other people. Although the strength of this need varies from one person to the next and from one situation to another, everyone holds to some degree a basic desire to forge associations with others. However, people don’t indiscriminately pursue relationships with others. Specifically, participants who thought that they would receive a severe shock were likely to choose to affiliate with others, but only if they knew the others were also expecting to be shocked. Misery does not just love any company, but only miserable company.

People seek out others who are in a similar situation because others help clarify the situation they face. In simple terms, the presence of others provides information about what to expect, and others do not always have to feel miserable themselves to provide useful information. In some instances, the level of misery is so strong that people avoid the presence of others. When people are deeply stressed, they fear that exposure to the unhappiness or depression of others will increase their own unhappiness. When emotions are so strong as to be unambiguous, there is little need to obtain additional information about situation. Consequently, at times of deep emotional turmoil, people may forgo contact with others.

People also may avoid contact with others because of their social anxiety. Social anxiety is the experience of negative emotions revolving around interactions with others. Individuals who experience social anxiety are so fearful of the possible consequences of being with people, such as rejection, that they sometimes avoid contact with others. People’s avoidance of social contact may cause them to be seen by other people as aloof, unpleasant, and socially inept - and others actually do begin to reject them.

The need for belongingness is the need to establish and maintain at least a minimum number of interpersonal relationships. The need for belongingness broadens the
concept, suggesting that people are motivated to maintain a minimum quantity of ongoing relationships. The need for belongingness has two essential components:

1. To experience belongingness, people require relatively frequent interactions and personal contacts with others individuals.

2. A sense of belongingness occurs when relationships are stable, when they are likely to continue into the future, and when the parties involved genuinely like one another.

The importance of belongingness is illustrated by the consequences that befall those who are deprived of stable, positive relationships. People who lack belongingness suffer from a higher incidence of both physical and mental disorders, experiencing problems that range from poorer health and adjustment to a higher rate of criminal activity to suicide.

**Attachment: The Roots of Affiliation and Belongingness**

Attachment is the positive emotional bond that develops between a child and a particular individual.

- Attachment serves two primary functions (Philip Shaver et al.):
  - It provides children with a sense of security based on the presence of the person with whom they are attached.
  - The attached person can provide information about the situation.

- Three major styles of attachment have been found in infants:
  - Secure attachment – characterizes a positive, healthy relationship between a child and an adult, based primarily on trust in the adult's comfort and love.
  - Avoidant attachment – characterizes relationships in which the child appears relatively indifferent to caregivers and avoids interactions with them.
  - Anxious-ambivalent attachment – is seen in children who show great distress when separated from their caregivers, but who appear angry on their return.
The type of attachment style that people develop during infancy may well determine their behavior with others for the rest of their lives. What is your attachment style? Which of these three statements best describes you?

1. I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them & having them depends on me. I don’t often worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me. (secure)

2. I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others. I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close. (avoidant)

3. I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I often worry that my partner doesn’t really love me or won’t want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and these desires sometimes scare people. (anxious-ambivalent)

Loneliness: Alone in a Social World

What is loneliness? It is the inability to maintain the level of affiliation one desires. It is a subjective state. People can be alone and does not feel lonely; people are in a crowd and feel lonely. Loneliness occurs only when the actual level of affiliation does not correspond to the desired level. There are two forms of loneliness: emotional isolation and social isolation. Emotional isolation is when a person feels a lack of deep emotional attachment to one specific person. Social isolation is when a person who suffers from a lack of friends, associates, or relatives. Loneliness is attributed to either:

- Unstable, controllable factors.
- Stable, uncontrollable shortcomings.
Topic 2: Influences of Interpersonal Attraction

1. Situational influences

   **Proximity/propinquity.** The degree to which people are geographically close to one another. Who are/were your closest friends? People who lived close to you. Proximity provides the opportunity for friendship to develop – but does not ensure that it will do. Why the link between proximity – liking? People can obtain social rewards at a relatively little cost from those nearby.

   **Familiarity.** The propinquity effect is due to familiarity – the mere exposure effect. The mere exposure effect – repeated exposure to certain stimulus increases the positivity of its evaluation. Exposure leads to liking. Why? Encountering familiar stimulus is favorable; the higher the exposure to something, the more people learn about it. Too much exposure also leads to decreased attraction.

2. Other people's personal characteristics

   **Similarity.** Similarity between two people can kindle personal attraction. High attitude similarity, high attraction. The most critical factor underlying the relationship: proportion of agreements.

   **Value similarity.** Value similarity enhances liking. People like others who have personalities relatively similar to their own. An alternative assumption is dissimilarity of personality lead to increased interpersonal attraction. This is in with need complementary analysis, people are attracted to others who have significantly different personalities, but whose need complement their own.

   **Reciprocity of liking.** The social psychological finding which states that you like those who like you.
Personal qualities. People with positive qualities are liked more than those with disagreeable qualities. The qualities most valued in friends are warmth and affection, the ability to keep confidences, loyalty and supportiveness.

Physical attractiveness and liking. Physically attractive people are liked more, and more consistently. The matching hypothesis suggests that we are ultimately attracted to others whose level of physical attractiveness is similar to our own.

Topic 3: Theories of Attraction

Learning Approaches

People like someone who provides rewards, dislike those who punish. Liking follows the basic principles of classical and operant conditioning. Reinforcement-affect model: the positive emotions people experience in the presence of someone who is rewarding lead to attraction, whereas negative emotion lead to reduction in attraction.

Cognitive Approaches

Cognitive approaches consider how people’s thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and perception determine their liking for others. Comparison level theories suggest that attraction to others is based on comparison of a relationship to some hypothetical baseline. Equity theory suggests that people take into account not only their own outcomes, but also the outcomes that are perceived to be attained by others. Balance theory proposed that people strive for consistency or balance in their likes and dislikes.
Topic 4: Close Relationships

Building Close Relationships

Close relationships or intimate relationships are characterized by at least one of three factors - emotional attachment, need fulfillment and interdependence (Sharon Brehm 1992). Emotional attachment relates to typically positive feelings for another person. Need fulfillment partners help fulfill significant psychological or physical needs. Interdependence is the degree of influence two people have over each other and the quantity of activities in which they jointly engage. People involved in a relationship affect each other.

Levels of relatedness
Relationships should be discussed based on their underlying level of relatedness, not just on specific types (George Levinger 1974). Basic level of relatedness: unilateral awareness, surface contact, and mutuality. Unilateral awareness is the level at which individuals view the outward characteristics of others. Second level is after surface contact, people involved are aware of each other. Third level, relationship at this stage (mutuality), becomes truly personal. Interactions are no longer fixed within a restricted role relationship. During the course of relationships, there may be a transformation from exchange relationships to communal relationship. Communal relationship occurs most often with romantic partners, friends and family members.

Intimacy: Opening up to others
Intimacy differentiates various types of relationships. The status in which a person communicates important feelings and information to another through a process of self-disclosure. Self-disclosure enhances the sense of intimacy in relationships. People felt understood and cared for by the partner in the relationship. There are descriptive self-disclosure and evaluative self-disclosure. Descriptive self-disclosure occurs when people share facts about their lives. Evaluative self-disclosure occurs
when a person communicates information about personal feelings. Different types of self-disclosure occur in different contexts and result in different degree of intimacy. Self-disclosure increases as partners become better acquainted. Self-disclosure reaches its highest level as soon as 6 weeks into the development of new relationships, then level off. In some cases have negative consequences.

Reciprocity of self-disclosure

As an intimacy between two people deepens the recipients of intimate information responds in kind. An attempt to match the level of self-disclosure provided by new acquaintances. However, precise reciprocity is less likely to occur. People within relationships jointly determine their own specific level of reciprocal self-disclosure. Disclosure of information leads the partners in a relationship toward greater levels of intimacy.

Stages of relationships

Partners interact with each other more frequently and for longer periods of time in an increasing variety of settings. The two individuals increasingly seek out each other’s company. As people open up to each other more and more, they disclose secrets. Then, the goals of the relationships become compatible and people show greater similarity in their reactions to situations. At this stage, people begin to sense that their own psychological well-being is tied to the success of the relationships, viewing it as unique, precious and irreplaceable.

Sexuality and relationships. Sexuality may be an important component of relationships.

Questions

1. Explain the differences between exchange and communal relationships.
2. Explain how the norms of reciprocity affect the level of intimacy?
3. How would you characterize the type of self-disclosure that predominates at the beginning of a relationship?
Love Relationships

A good definition of love must encompass passionate feelings and deep, long-term devotion. Companionate love is the feelings of intimacy and affection we feel toward someone that are not accompanied by passion or physiological arousal. Passionate love involves an intense longing for another person, characterized by the experience of physiological arousal. Triangular theory of love (Sternberg) stated that love consist of three basic ingredients: intimacy, passion & commitment. Intimacy refers to feelings of being close to and bonded with a partner (closeness, affection, and connectedness). Passion refers to the ‘hot’ parts of the relationship – sex, physical closeness and romance. Commitment is to love your partner (short term decision) and to maintain that love and stay with your partner.

The role of culture

Culture plays a role in how people label their experiences and in what they expect in close relationships. Romantic love is an important, even crucial, basis for marriage in individualistic society. In collectivistic society, the individual in love must take into account the wishes of family and other group members.

Topic 5: Relationships as an Interpersonal Process

Relationships are always in a state of flux, continually going through stages of change and maintenance, growth and retreat. People engage in this process through communication – as they define and redefine their relationships, they share their understanding of the relationship with their partners. Ongoing communication about one’s feelings and needs creates the sense of mutually shared relationships. Similarity and physical appearance shape how people behave and think when they are in relationships. This approach is called relational dialectics. Relationships are characterized by tension between opposite but related forces: Autonomy/ connection, novelty/ predictability, openness/ closeness. Constant change results from the tension between these forces.
Ending Intimate Relationships

How romantic relationship dies? Let us look at the process of breaking up. Research findings showed that people had ended relationships in the following ways:

- Positive tone – telling the partner you care about him/her, but ....
- Verbal de-escalation – telling the partner you no longer feel in love.
- Behavioral de-escalation – avoiding the contact with the partner.
- Negative identity management – telling the partner you should both start dating other people.
- Justification – telling the partner that the relationship isn’t meeting your needs.

Relationships dissolution is a process with many steps. There are four steps of dissolution (Duck 1982):

- Intrapersonal phase: thinks a lot about how he or she is dissatisfied with the relationship.
- Dyadic phase: the individual discusses the break-up with the partner.
- Social phase: the break-up is announced to other people.
- Intrapersonal phase: the individual recovers from the break-up and forms an account of how and why it happened.

There are four types of behavior that occur in troubled relationships:

1. Exit – actively harming or terminating the relationship (e.g. abusing the partner, threatening to break up, actually leaving).
2. Voice – actively & constructively attempting to improve conditions (discussing problems, trying to change, going to a therapist).
3. Loyalty – passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve (hoping things will improve, praying, being supportive instead of fighting).
4. Neglect – passively allow condition to deteriorate (refusing to deal with problems, ignoring partner or spending less time together, putting no energy into the relationship.)
A powerful variable that predicts the breaking up experience is the role each partner plays in the decision to terminate the relationship as: breakees, breakers, or mutual. Breakees — miserable, reported high level of loneliness, depression, unhappiness and anger. Breakers — the least upsetting, stressful and painful. Mutual — experience more stressful situation compared to breakers.

Summary

The presence of others fulfills one fundamental need — the need for affiliation. According to social comparison theory, people are dependent on others for information about the world around them.

The need for affiliation is the desire to seek relationships with other people. People seek out others who are in a similar situation because others help clarify the situation they face. People also may avoid contact with others because of their social anxiety. People’s avoidance of social contact may cause them to be seen by other people as aloof, unpleasant, and socially inept.

The need for belongingness is the need to establish and maintain at least a minimum number of interpersonal relationships. People who lack belongingness suffer from a higher incidence of both physical and mental disorders, experiencing problems that range from poorer health and adjustment to a higher rate of criminal activity to suicide.

Attachment is the positive emotional bond that develops between a child and a particular individual and it serves two primary functions (Philip Shaver et al.): It provides children with a sense of security based on the presence of the person with whom they are attached; the attached person can provide information about the situation.

Loneliness occurs only when the actual level of affiliation does not correspond to the desired level. There are two forms of loneliness: emotional isolation and social
isolation. Loneliness is attributed to either unstable, controllable factors or stable, uncontrollable shortcomings.

Attractions are influenced by situational influences and other people’s personal characteristics. Learning approaches noted that people like someone who provides rewards, dislike those who punish. Cognitive approaches consider how people’s thoughts, beliefs, attitudes and perception determine their liking for others. Comparison level theories suggest that attraction to others is based on comparison of a relationship to some hypothetical baseline. Equity theory suggests that people take into account not only their own outcomes, but also the outcomes that are perceived to be attained by others. Balance theory proposed that people strive for consistency or balance in their likes and dislikes.

Close relationships or intimate relationships are characterized by at least one of three factors - emotional attachment, need fulfillment and interdependence (Sharon Brehm 1992). A good definition of love must encompass passionate feelings and deep, long-term devotion. Commitment is to love your partner (short term decision) and to maintain that love and stay with your partner.

Culture plays a role in how people label their experiences and in what they expect in close relationships. Similarity and physical appearance shape how people behave and think when they are in relationships. Relationships are characterized by tension between opposite but related forces.

Research findings showed that people had ended relationships in the positive tone, verbal de-escalation, behavioral de-escalation, negative identity management, and justification.

Relationships dissolution is a process with four steps: intrapersonal phase, dyadic phase, social phase, and intrapersonal phase. There are four types of behavior that occur in troubled relationships: exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. A powerful variable that predict the breaking up experience is the role each partner plays in the decision to terminate the relationship.
UNIT 4
SOCIAL INFLUENCE

All human beings are subject to social influence on a daily basis in their thoughts, actions and behaviors. People are influenced by their parents, friends, organizations, political institutions, and significant others. Thus, social influence examines the effect of other people on the cognitions and behaviors of any given individual. Basically, it analyses the process that causes human to change. The change is neither invariably positive nor negative. However, the right or positive influence usually moves people in positive directions.

Objective

Students will be able to:

1. Describe the concept of social facilitation, deindividuation and bystander intervention.
2. Explain the differences between conformity, compliance and obedience in people’s behavior.
3. Analyse people’s social and interpersonal behavior in relation to conflict, prejudice and discrimination.

Reading:


Content

Topic 1: Social Facilitation and Deindividuation
Topic 2: Bystander Intervention
Topic 3: Conformity, Compliance and Obedience.
Topic 5: Conflict, Prejudice and Discrimination.

Topic 1: Social Facilitation and Deindividuation

Social Facilitation

Social facilitation refers to any change in performance that occurs when others are present. Norman Triplett (1898) observed the performance of bicycle racers. He noted that racing time were significantly faster for rides made during competition with other riders than when a lone rider tried to beat the best time established for a track. He theorized that the presence of others acted to release riders’ extra energy and caused them to pedal faster. Triplett also conducted a laboratory experiment on children to prove his theory. He found that children wound the fishing reel faster when they worked with other people than when they did alone. Triplett’s findings suggested clear principle that the presence of others leads to improvements in performance.

After Triplett, more studies were conducted on social facilitation which found that there are exceptions to the above findings. On some tasks, the present of others seemed to lead to reduction in performance. One example is an observation on performance in solving math problems.

Robert Zajonc (1965), a social psychologist, proposed a theory the presence of other people raises our general level of emotional arousal, as indicated by increase in heart rate, perspiration and hormonal activity. Higher arousal leads to better performance of well-learned or naturally dominant behavior, and thus social facilitation effect (Parfitt et al 1995). In complex tasks or poorly learned behavior, higher arousal leads to decline in performance. The mere presence of others will cause either increases or decreases in performance, depending on whether the
behavior in question is well learned or poorly learned. Zajonc’s theory is summarized in diagram 4.1.

Aiello and Douthitt (2001) identified three possible factors that may explain why we are aroused when in the presence of other people. The factors are evaluation apprehension, distraction and the mere presence.

Evaluation apprehension
Nicholas Cottrell (1972) tested the influence of evaluation apprehension on performance. He concluded that it is not the mere presence of others that leads to improved performance, but the presence of others produces arousal because we are apprehensive about how they are appraising us – concept of evaluation apprehension (EA). Evaluation apprehension focuses on the presence of others lead to the inference that the audience is evaluating us, circumstances that are definitely physiologically arousing. In line with this reasoning, researchers proposed that social facilitation should occur only when others are paying attention to us. When others are present but are not paying attention, they are not able to evaluate our performance. In this situation, social facilitation effects should be reduced. Explanations for social facilitation are based on psychological mechanisms that are
not unique to humans and dependent on their more sophisticated cognitive abilities. Summary of evaluation theory is shown in diagram 4.2.

Diagram 4.2: Evaluation Apprehension Theory

**Distraction-conflict theory**

Social facilitation effects occur because the presence of others is distracting, and our attention becomes divided between the task at hand and the others who are present. This divided attention (conflict) overloads the cognitive system and thus leads to higher physiological arousal.

When the task is simple, the interference due to distraction is minimal. Therefore, the increase in arousal is strong enough to overcome the distraction and produced superior performance. When the task is difficult, the increase in arousal is not large enough to overcome the distraction caused by the presence of others, and performance declines.
**Mere presence**

Zajonc asserted that some arousals are produced merely with the presence of others. This occurs even when evaluation apprehension and distraction do not exist.

**Social impact theory**

This theory states that the likelihood that a person will respond to social influence will increase with strength, immediacy and the number of the group. Strength refers to how important the influencing group of people is to the person. Immediacy refers how close the group is to you (in space and time) at the time of influence attempt. Number refers to how many people there are in the group. Increasing the number has a decreasing incremental effect.

**Social Loafing**

As more people work on a task, each one expends less effort. This phenomenon is known as social loafing. Social loafing represents the decrease in individual effort that occurs when people engaged in shared group activity. There are different explanations to social loafing:

1. Participants in a group effort may perceive others in the group as being less motivated or less skilled than they are. This may lead them to reduce their own output.
2. Group participants choose goals that are less ambitious when others are present than when they are alone. Because of their lowered goals, they may expend less effort.

3. Perceptions of the participants. Participants perceive that when they are in a group, their own effort is less closely linked to any potential outcomes than when they are alone. Thus, she/he has less reason to expend much energy on the task.

4. Cultural factors may also explain social loafing. People from eastern cultures are somewhat less susceptible to social loafing than those from western cultures. The reason is the emphasis on group and social orientation versus individualism.

**Deindividuation**

Individuation means taking action on the basis of awareness of one's own distinct feelings, views and preferences. Individuation is high when familiarity is high. People behave in accordance with their self-concept and the expectation of others.

Deindividuation means getting lost in the crowd. It also refers to a breakdown of self-awareness. People's feelings of self-consciousness and distinctiveness are reduced. When in crowd, normal constraints on behavior of people are loosened, leading to an increase in impulsive and deviant acts. Getting lost in a crowd can lead to an unleashing of behaviors.

Deindividuation leads to impulsive acts, why?

* It makes people feel less accountable for their actions.
  * It reduces the likelihood that any individual will be singled out and blamed.
* It increases obedience to group norms.
  * Thus, it does not always lead to aggressive behavior.
  * It depends on the norms of the group.
Social facilitation is any change in performance that occurs when others are present. However, on certain tasks, the present of others may reduce performance.

- Higher arousal leads to better performance of well-learned behavior.
- In complex tasks, higher arousal reduce performance.
- Evaluation apprehension suggested that the presence of others lead to the inference that other people are evaluating us, and this circumstance is physiologically arising.
- Distraction also effects social facilitation.
- Social impact theory noted that as the strength and frequency increase, people are more likely to will respond to social influence.
- Social loafing is a decreased in individual effort that occurs when people engaged in shared group activity.

Topic 2: Bystander Intervention

It is a psychological phenomenon where persons are less likely to intervene in an emergency situation when others are present than when they are alone. The greater the number of bystanders who witness an emergency, the less likely any one of them is to help. Solitary individuals will typically intervene if another person is in need of help – bystander intervention.

Help is less likely to be given if more people are present. How people decide whether to intervene in an emergency? John Darley and Bibb Latane' (1968), did a study on the bystander effect in the laboratory. The study found that how long the subject waits before alerting the experimenter varies inversely with the number of other subjects. In some cases, the subject never told the experimenter.
Diagram 4.4 illustrates Latane’ and Darley’s (1970) bystander intervention decision tree that include the following components:

- Notice the event.
- Interpret the event as an emergency.
- Assume responsibility.
- Know appropriate form of assistance.
- Implement decision.

Why people are less likelihood to help or intervene? Some of the reasons are:

1. Distract, in a hurry.
   - People in a rush – pay less attention to what’s going on, and fail to notice.
   - How hurry people are make more difference than what kind of person they are.

2. Pluralistic ignorance.
   - Interpret event as non-emergency.
   - Bystander assumes that nothing is wrong in an emergency because no one else looks concerned.
   - Use other people (group) to define reality – how other people are responding to the event.

3. Diffusion of responsibility.
   - Each of bystander’s sense of responsibility to help decreases as the number of witnesses increase.
   - The presence of others – no individual bystander feels a strong personal responsibility to take actions.
4. Lack of knowledge/ lack of competence.
   - What form of help is appropriate.
   - Don’t know what form of assistance to give, unable to help.

5. Danger to self, legal concerns, embarrassment.
   - Not qualified.
   - Make matters worse by helping.
   - Put yourself in danger.

**Topic 3: Conformity, Compliance and Obedience**

**Conformity**

Conformity is about changing one’s beliefs or behavior to be consistent with standards. Compliance is doing what we are asked to do even if we prefer not to. Obedience to authority means complying with a person or group perceived to be a legitimate authority. In order to understand conformity, one must understand the cultural context. Individualistic cultures emphasize freedom and independence, so “conforming” means loss of control. Collectivist cultures emphasize ties to the social group, so “conforming” means maturity and inner strength.

Why do people conform? Basically, people do conform for two reasons:

1. **Informational Influence**
   - The desire to be right
2. **Normative Influence**
   - The desire to be liked
1. **Informational Influence**

Others' behavior often provides useful information for conformity.

- Trust in the group affects conformity.
- Task difficulty affects conformity.
- Conformity due to informational influence affects both public behavior and private beliefs.

2. **Normative Influence**

The desire to be accepted and to avoid rejection from others leads us to conform. Conformity due to normative influence generally changes public behavior but not private beliefs.

**Compliance**

Compliance is a change in behavior due to a direct request from another person. Mindless conformity operates on automatic pilot. People obey internalized social norms without deliberating on their actions. In most cases, the social norms we follow automatically lead to appropriate behavior. However, without careful
monitoring of what we are doing, we can end up following the wrong social norms and behave inappropriately.

Compliance can be accomplished through positive moods, reciprocity and giving reasons. People are more likely to comply when they are in a good mood. This is often true for prosocial compliance. People who are in good moods are usually active, tend to have pleasant thought and memories and less likely to analyse events critically.

Favors or good deep must be reciprocated. If you are nice to me, I’ll be nice to you. Based on this reciprocity norm, people will usually do others favors or give gifts before they request for others’ compliance. Giving reasons will result in compliance. This is because people would want an explanation for behaviors that counter the standard social norms.

**Compliance strategies**

There are various techniques proposed by social psychologists to secure compliance especially in sales:

*The-Door-in-the-Face technique.*

- A technique to get people to comply with a request, whereby people are presented first with a large request, which they are expected to refuse, and then with a smaller, more reasonable request, to which it is hoped they will agree/comply.

- This technique usually works. Why?

- Reciprocity norms: a social norms stating that receiving anything positive from another person requires you to reciprocate (or behave similarly) in response.

- Charity often follows this technique. Disadvantaged is it is short-lived.
The-Foot-in-the-Door technique.
- A technique to get people to comply with a request, whereby people are presented first with a small request, to which they are expected to comply, followed by a larger request, to which it is hoped they will also comply.
- Effective for long-term compliance and it does not invoke reciprocity norms. However, it triggers a kind of informational social influence – people gain information by complying with the first request.

The That’s-Not-All technique.
- A customer is offered a deal at an initial, often inflated price; then offer an incentive, discount or bonus to clinch the deal.

The Low-Ball technique.
- First make a reasonable request, initial agreement is reached; then reveal additional costs.
- Why? The original deal was not approved by the manager.

Obedience

Obedience is based on the belief that authorities have the right to make requests. People are more likely to obey if:

- they receive benefits from belonging to the group.
- people feel fairly treated.
- people trust authorities' motives.
- people identify with the group.

Persuasive communication

Persuasive communication is a communication such as speech or television advertisement that advocates a particular side of an issue. What makes a persuasive communication effective? Holland, Janis and Kelly (1953) conducted experiments on conditions under which people are most likely to be influenced by persuasive
communications – Yale attitude change approach. They studied “who says what to whom”, looking at the source of the communication, the communication itself, and the nature of the audiences. **Who** is the speaker - credible, attractive speakers; **what** does the speaker delivers – two sided message, superficial message; **whom** – who is the audience? Are they low in intelligence, distracted audience, or impressionable ages of 18 to 25?

**Theory of persuasive communication.**

**Elaboration Likelihood Model.**

There are two ways in which persuasive communication can cause attitude change. First is the central route to persuasion. Persuasion can lead to attitude change when people are motivated and have the ability to pay attention to the arguments in the communication. Second is the peripheral route to persuasion. This is when people do not pay attention to the arguments but are instead swayed by surface characteristics. Attitude change via the central route is more lasting and more resistant to attack.

**Emotional influence on the route to persuasion**

- People in a positive mood vs. people in a negative mood.
- Fear-arousing communication can cause lasting attitude change if a moderate amount of fear is aroused and people believe they will be reassured by the content of the message.

**Topic 4: Conflict, Prejudice and Discrimination**

**Conflict**

Why people are in conflict with each other? One main reason is incompatibility in term of goals. One interesting kind of conflict is social **dilemma**. It is the conflict in which the most beneficial action for an individual will, if chosen by most people, have harmful effects on everyone. A commonly studied social dilemma is **prisoner’s dilemma** (Diagram 4.5). We face many conflicts in everyday life. To
overcome conflict, people must trust each other because lack of trust escalates competitive moves. Element of trust is important to find a solution desirable to all parties involved in the conflict. Conflict, though common, is not inevitable. People can adopt cooperative response to ensure positive outcomes for both sides.

### Diagram 4.5: Prisoner's Dilemma

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Your Friend's Options</th>
<th>Option X</th>
<th>Option Y</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Option X</td>
<td>You win $3</td>
<td>You win $6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Your friend wins $3</td>
<td>Your friend loses $6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option Y</td>
<td>You lose $6</td>
<td>You lose $1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Your friend wins $6</td>
<td>Your friend loses $1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Prejudice and Discrimination**

Prejudice and discrimination are present in all societies of the world. It refers to hostile or negative attitude toward a distinguishable group of people based solely on their group membership. The assessment is unrelated to qualities of particular individuals. Prejudice can also be positive. Cognitive framework that maintains prejudice is called stereotype. It is an oversimplification that we employ in an effort to make sense of the complex social environment in which we live. Stereotypes increase the chance that discrimination will occur.

Discriminations are the behavioral manifestation of stereotypes and prejudice which is negative (sometimes positive) actions taken toward members of a particular group because of their membership in that group. However, the presence of prejudice does not always lead directly to discrimination because of the law, strong social norms/standards, or the target is not present. Prejudice refers to negative attitude, while discrimination refers to negative behavior.
Sources of Prejudice

The root of prejudice can be categorized into social and motivational sources. The social sources include social inequalities, socialization, and institutional supports. The motivational sources are frustration, aggression, and social identity.

Review Questions

1. Explain the situation in which the mere presence of others will either increase or decrease performance?

2. How does evaluation apprehension explain a person’s arousal in the presence of other people?

3. Explain the assertion by social impact theory on social influence.

4. What is social loafing and what are the different explanations to social loafing?

5. Why does deindividuation leads to impulsive acts?

6. Explain the bystander intervention decision tree in an emergency situation.

7. Why people are less likely to intervene in an emergency situation?

8. Why do people conform?

9. Define compliance. What are some of the ways to gain compliance?

Describe prejudice and discrimination
Summary

Social facilitation is about change in performance during the presence of others. Presence of others will usually improve performance but there are exceptions where it also reduces performance. Evaluation apprehension focuses on the presence of others lead to the inference that the audience is evaluating us, circumstances that are definitely physiologically arousing. Divided attention (conflict) overloads the cognitive system and thus leads to higher physiological arousal.

The decrease in individual effort that occurs when people engaged in shared group activity is known as social loafing. Perceptions of the participants, lowered goals and cultural factors may explain social loafing.

Deindividuation refers to a breakdown of self-awareness that can lead to impulsive acts. When people are in crowd, their self-consciousness and constraints on behavior are loosened.

The likelihood to help in an emergency is reduced when the number of people who are witnesses increase. People do not help when they are in a hurry, ignorant, diffuse about responsibility, lacking in skills, and help may cause danger to self.

Conformity is about behavior so that it is consistent with standards. People conform for informational influence and normative influence. Persuasive communication advocates a particular side of an issue.

Incompatibility in term of goals induces conflict. Prejudice refers to negative attitude towards people based on their group membership. Stereotype maintains prejudice. Behavioral manifestation of stereotypes is discrimination.
UNIT 5
COMMUNICATION AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP

How we come to understand other people? It is through communication and interpersonal relationships. Interpersonal communication refers to communication with another person. This kind of communication is subdivided into dyadic communication, public communication and small-group communication. The unit of analysis for interpersonal communication and relationship is the dyad or the relationship itself. This unit focuses on interpersonal communication and relationship in marriage.

Objective

Students will be able to:

1. Describe the importance of and various perspectives on interpersonal communication and relationships.
2. Explain the relationships between attachment style and close relationships in adults.
3. Analyse processes and challenges of relationships in early adulthood and marriage.

Reading:


Content

Topic 1: Interpersonal Communication
Topic 2: Close Relationships and Attachment.
Topic 3: Marital Relationships.

Topic 1: Interpersonal Communication

Interpersonal communication encompasses speech, non verbal communication, unconscious communication, summarizing, paraphrasing, listening, and questioning. When one declares one's conversational intent and inviting consent from one's prospective conversation partner, it is called initiating. The process of managing the flow of information back and forth between partners in a conversation by altering roles of speaker and listener is known as turn-taking.

Having good interpersonal communication skills support processes such as:

- Parenting
- Intimate relationship
- Management
- Selling
- Counseling
- Coaching
- Mentoring and co-mentoring, which is mentoring in groups
- Conflict resolution

Interpersonal Perspectives

There are four specific perspectives from which to study interpersonal communication:

1. Relational (Qualitative)
   It describes communication in which the roles of sender and receiver are shared by two people simultaneously in order to create meaning.

2. Situational (Contextual)
It is a communication that occurs between two people in specific context.

3. Quantitative

Quantitative perspective explain dyadic interactions, including impersonal communication.

4. Functional (Strategic)

It refers to communication for the purpose of achieving interpersonal goals.

Topic 2: Close Relationships and Attachment

Attachment is the strong emotional bond that develops between infant and the caregiver. Attachment is considered as the basis for all other relationships in one's life. People develop certain expectations about current relationships based on the relationship they had with their primary caregiver when they were infants. Attachment is an inborn adaptive response and children develop different attachment style depending on their caregiver’s response during their interactions.

During interactions with their parents or caregivers, children will develop beliefs about human relationships. The beliefs can be either optimistic or pessimistic. An optimistic belief is the children’s belief that people can be trusted and they are worthy of others’ love. The pessimistic belief is when children feel they are not worthy of others’ love and attention and others are not reliable. Attachment style consists of cognitive representations of what constitutes love and intimacy.

There are different types of attachment styles. The secure attachment style is characterized by trust, a belief that one is worthy and well liked and a lack of concern of being abandoned. The insecure attachment style can be divided into avoidant attachment style and anxious or ambivalent attachment style. The avoidant attachment is characterized by suppression of attachment needs because an attempt to be intimate or close has been denied. A child who falls under this category usually will face difficulty to establish intimate relationships. The anxious or ambivalent child concerns that others will not reciprocate his/her desire for intimacy. This concern will result in anxiety that is higher than the average levels.
Childhood attachment style will influence close or intimate relationships in adults. Attachment style is determined by two basic attitudes. First is one's self-esteem — that is to what extent the self-esteem is positive or negative. Second is the extent of positive attitude (the degree to which one perceive others as trustworthy) or negative attitude ((the degree to which one perceive others as untrustworthy)

There are four adult attachment styles — secure, preoccupied, dismissing-avoidant, and fearful avoidant. Adults with secure attachment style have high self-esteem and belief in trustworthiness. Therefore, they experience lower anxiety and lower tendency to avoid social relationships. Securely attached adults can handle relationship conflicts constructively and can become close to others more easily. Adults with preoccupied attachment are low on avoidance and high on anxiety. They have positive expectations of others but negative view of themselves. Preoccupied attached adult will seek relationships but fear that their motivations will not be reciprocated.

Adults who are dismissing-avoidant attached avoid other people because they have little trust in them. Dismissing-avoidant adults have positive self-esteem and therefore they experience much less interpersonal anxiety. However, they lack self-insight and thus find it difficult to trust others, feel uncomfortable becoming close with others and tend to withdraw from relationships when there are conflicts. Adults with fearful avoidant attachment style do not trust others and have very negative perceptions on self. So, when in interpersonal setting they experience a great deal of anxiety. They also expect to be rejected by others.

- During interactions with their parents or caregivers, children develop optimistic or pessimistic beliefs about human relationships.
- Attachment style consists of cognitive representations of what constitutes love and intimacy.
- There are four adult attachment styles which are secure attachment, preoccupied attachment, dismissing-avoidant attachment, and fearful avoidant.
Topic 3: Marital Relationships

What makes people happy? Is it money? Or material objects? According to research findings, happiness in young adulthood is usually derived from feelings of independence, competence, or self-esteem (Sheildon et al, 2001). All these are psychological needs. Which psychological needs are important for happiness is influenced by culture. Collective and individualistic culture emphasizes different values.

During early adulthood, romance, love, marriage and children are often the focus of life. This is the time when the development and course of relationships are emphasized. How do intimate relationships developed? According to Erik Erikson, the search for intimacy is critical issue of the young adult period. Erikson regards young adulthood as the time of the INTIMACY-VERSUS-ISOLATION STAGE, which is the period of postadolescence into the early 30s that focuses on developing close relationships with others.

To Erikson, intimacy comprises several aspects such as:

- A degree of selflessness
- Sacrificing one’s own needs to those of another
- Joint pleasure from focusing not just one’s own gratification but also on that of one’s partner
- Deep devotion, marked by efforts to fuse one’s identity with the identity of the partner.

Erikson suggests that those who experience difficulties during this stage are often lonely and isolated, and fearful of relationships with others. Their failure may stem from an earlier difficulty to develop a strong identity. The theory proposed by Erikson is an extremely influential theory because of its emphasis on examining the continued growth and development of personality throughout the lifespan.
An **intimate relationship** is an interpersonal relationship with a great deal of physical or emotional intimacy. It is usually characterized by romantic or passionate love and attachment. Sexuality may or may not be involved. Love is an important factor in intimate relationships. Research has established that love is more that just liking a lot, and is distinct from sexual attraction. Typically love in relationships is divided into two types: passionate and companionate.

Passionate love is intense longing, and is often accompanied by physiological arousal (shortness of breath, rapid heart rate). Companionate love is affection and a feeling of intimacy not accompanied by physiological arousal.

How do people make relationship choices? As women and men move through early adulthood, they encounter significant developmental challenges in their lives such as building careers, families, and relationships. One of the primary developmental concerns young adults face is whether and when to marry.

Most relationships develop in a surprisingly regular progression. It begins with two people interact with each other more often and for longer periods of times. These two people increasingly seek out each other’s company. They start to open up more and more and begin to share physical intimacies. Now the individuals in the relationship are more willing to share positive and negative feelings, criticize and praise. They begin to agree on the goals they hold for the relationship. Their reactions to situations become more similar. They begin to feel their psychological well-being is tied to success of relationship, viewing it as unique, irreplaceable, and cherished. Then finally, they begin to see themselves as a couple rather than separate individuals.

Bernard Murstein theorized his views on the development of relationships. His Stimulus-Value-Role (SVR) theory asserts that relationships proceed in a fixed order of three stages that are stimulus, value, and role:

- The stimulus stage is the beginning when relationships are built on surface, physical characteristics such as the way a person looks.
- The value stage occurs between the second and seventh encounter and is characterized by increasing similarity of values and beliefs.
The role stage is built on specific soles played by the participants (e.g. boyfriend/girlfriend).

Selecting a partner: what matters

- Emphasis on love ......
- Levine (1983): would you marry someone that you don't love? Why?
  - No – college students in US, Japan and Brazil. US – love as a major factor.
  - Yes – college students in Pakistan and India. Other cultures – love may be secondary, though important characteristics.

What else matters?

- Emotional maturity, health, similar education (Buss 1990).
- US: love and emotional maturity
- China: good health (men) and emotional stability and maturity (women)
- South Africa: emotional stability (men) and dependable character (women)

Gender differences in preferred characteristics

- Men: physical attraction
- Women: ambition, industriousness
- Evolutionary explanation ......
- Critics: similarities across cultures relating to gender differences – gender stereotyping, not evolution.

Identifying general qualities valued in a spouse

Louis Janda and Karen Klenke-Hamel (1980) proposed a model of spouse selecteion. According to them people use increasing stringent filter when seeking for mate. First they filter broad determinants of attractiveness. Then they work to specifics, such as residential proximity, similarity/complementary, interpersonal attractiveness, compatibility. Then finally the process end in marriage.

What determines compatibility in marriage?

- Homogamy
- Marriage gradient
Some people choose to cohabitate rather than marry. Why?
- Couple living together without being married?
- Persons of the opposite sex sharing living quarters; tend to be young (<25 years)
- Not ready for a lifelong commitment.
- Some feel that cohabating increases their chances of a happy marriage. This is incorrect! Past studies indicate that the chances of divorce are slightly higher for those who have cohabitated.

Marital conflict
Nearly half of newly married couples experience a significant degree of conflict. This is because idealism fades with the realities of day-to-day life. Couples have difficulty making transitions from children to adults.

What makes marriage works?
John Gottman highlighted aspects that make marriage works such as the following:

- Affection displayed towards spouse
- Amount of negativity communicated to the spouse
- Expansiveness or expressiveness in communicating information about the relationship.
- A sense of “we-ness” – perceiving oneself as an interdependent couple
- Social homogamy (similarity in leisure activity & role preferences)

John Gottman also noted that half of all marriages end in divorce. Can divorce be predicted? Certain factors very accurately predict a later divorce:

- Husbands were low in affection, “we-ness”
- Husbands were high in negativity & disappointment
- Wives: low “we-ness” * & high disappointment
- Spouse habitually attributes negative events to their partner.

He also noted that the best single predictor of divorce was the degree of disappointment the husband felt about the marriage. Divorce has its roots in early
adulthood and the early years of marriage. Most divorce occurs during the first 10 years of marriage.

**Marital satisfaction**

- Sometimes marital satisfaction takes a dive after a new baby
  - Wives have more responsibilities
  - Husband feel they take second fiddle to baby
- Some couple feels greater satisfaction after having a child.
  - Especially true for couples with realistic expectations about the responsibilities involved in childrearing.

**Review Questions:**

1. What are aspects of intimacy proposed by Erikson?
2. Define intimate relationships. How do people make relationship choices?
3. Explain Bernard Murstein’s theory on the development of relationships.

**Summary**

Having good interpersonal communication skills support processes such as parenting, intimate relationship, management, selling, counseling, coaching, mentoring, and conflict resolution. Interpersonal communication can be examined from various perspectives such as relational (qualitative), situational (contextual), quantitative, and functional (strategic).

Attachment is the strong emotional bond that develops between infant and the caregiver. It is the basis for all other relationships in one’s life. Attachment is an inborn adaptive response and children develop different attachment style depending
on their caregiver’s response during their interactions. During interactions with their parents or caregivers, children will develop beliefs about human relationships. The beliefs can be either optimistic or pessimistic.

The secure attachment style is characterized by trust, a belief that one is worthy and well liked and a lack of concern of being abandoned. The avoidant attachment is characterized by suppression of attachment needs because an attempt to be intimate or close has been denied. The anxious or ambivalent child concerns that others will not reciprocate his/her desire for intimacy.

Attachment style is determined by two basic attitudes - self-esteem and attitude (positive and negative). Childhood attachment style will influence close or intimate relationships in adults. There are four adult attachment styles – secure, preoccupied, dismissing-avoidant, and fearful avoidant.

The search for intimacy is the critical issue of the young adult period. Erikson regards young adulthood as the time of the intimacy versus isolation stage. Intimacy comprises several aspects such as a degree of selflessness, sacrificing one’s own needs to those of another, joint pleasure from focusing not just one’s own gratification but also on that of one’s partner, and deep devotion. Those who experience difficulties during this stage are often lonely and isolated, and fearful of relationships with others.

An intimate relationship is an interpersonal relationship with a great deal of physical or emotional intimacy. It is usually characterized by romantic or passionate love and attachment, and may not involve sexuality.

Most relationships develop in a surprisingly regular progression. Bernard Murstein Stimulus-Value-Role (SVR) theory asserts that relationships proceed in a fixed order of three stages that are stimulus, value, and role:

Homogamy and marriage gradients determine compatibility in marriage. Some people choose to cohabit rather than marry.
Nearly half of newly married couples experience a significant degree of conflict because idealism fades with the realities of day-to-day life. John Gottman highlighted aspects that make marriage work such as the following affection displayed towards spouse, amount of negativity communicated to the spouse, expansiveness or expressiveness in communicating information about the relationship, a sense of “we-ness” — perceiving oneself as an interdependent couple, and social homogamy (similarity in leisure activity and role preferences).

Sometimes marital satisfaction takes a dive after a new baby. Some couple feels greater satisfaction after having a child. This is especially true for couples with realistic expectations about the responsibilities involved in childrearing.
UNIT 6
ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOR AND INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Helping is a prosocial behavior. People everywhere in the world provide comfort and aid to those in need. People's willingness to help is not limited to life threatening situations only. People help in all kind of situations. The question is why people help? When and to whom they extend their help? In group relationships, people accept influence from those they believe to have greater power and ability. Leaders are among those who have power and abilities to influence others. Leaders influence their followers through various styles. People can also behave aggressively. What leads to aggression? What forms of aggression exists in society? This unit focuses on helping, leadership and aggression in interpersonal relationships.

Objective

Students will be able to:

1. Explain why, when and whom do people help?
2. Explain the different types of leadership’s style and the theory of leadership.
3. Analyse theories of aggression and forms of aggression in society.

Reading:


Content

Topic 1: Helping Others
Topic 2: Leadership
Topic 3: Aggression and Forms of Aggression

Topic 1: Helping Others

Prosocial behavior is a voluntary behavior that is carried out for the benefit of others. Helping is prosocial. There are two basic forms of helping actions, and each with a different motive. The two forms are egoistic helping and altruistic helping. In egoistic helping, the person who helps wants something in return. The ultimate goal of helping is to enhance own welfare. Help that is given without expecting anything in return is called altruistic help. In this situation, the ultimate goal of the person who helps is to ease another’s burden.

Why do people help? Theories such as social exchange, social norms and evolutionary explain why people help others. The social exchange theory asserts that human interactions and transactions aim to maximize one’s rewards and minimize one’s costs. Rewards as motivation can be internal or external. Rewards are external when we give with the hope to get something in return. We give to get. Reward is internal when you feel good when do good. Helping will increase self-worth and self-satisfaction. People also extend help as a way to relieve guilt. When our misdeeds are known to public, we try to restore our image by offering helpful behaviors.

Social norms or social expectations move people to help. Social norms prescribe proper behavior. There are two social norms that motivate people to help, which are the reciprocity norm and social responsibility norm. The reciprocity norm promotes mutual helping. We help those who help us. The social responsibility norm is the notion that people will extend help to those in need. This norm requires people to help.
People also help because of devotion to kin. According to the principle of kin selection, people will show preferences for helping blood relatives because this will increase the odds that their genes will be submitted to subsequent generation.

**When do people help?**

When number of bystanders increase, anyone bystander is less likely to help in an emergency. This means that the presence of other people decreased people tendency to help. Please refer unit 4, topic 2 on bystander effect for further elaboration on the relationship between number of bystanders and the tendency to help in an emergency situation. Observing prosocial models also encourage helping. After observing others do good deed, people will have higher tendency to act the same. Time is another important that determine whether people will help. Those who perceive to have more time are more likely to give help compare to those who think they have no spare time or in a hurry. Another important factor is similarity.

**Who do people help?** People are more willing to help needy persons who have similarities with them. Similarity can be in the form such as physical appearance, race, and beliefs. People tend to be more emphatic and more helpful toward others who are perceived as similar to them. The cause of victim’s trouble is another important factor that determines whether they deserve help. If the trouble is due to external factor that is uncontrollable, then people are more willing to help. However, people will not help if they think that the problem is due to internal factors. The norm of social justice move people to help deserving others.

**Topic 2: Leadership**

A person who exerts the influence, direct and energizes the group is the leader. Leadership is influencing human behavior, regardless of the goals by power. By power, influence is presented in stronger mode. Power is the ability to get what we want. As what we want is often constrained by other people, the use of power often includes changing or influencing what others think, believe and do. Power is at the heart of all techniques of changing minds. We have to understand the power we have as well as the power of other people. We must beware of sleeping dragons:
because many people will only use their power when aroused. The most effective power is that used so subtly that people do not realize it is being used. Power does not have to be used directly. Threats are often effective, especially when accompanied by displays of power.

- There are two basic forms of helping actions that is egoistic helping and altruistic helping.
- Social exchange, social norms and evolutionary theories help explain why people help others. Number of bystanders, observing prosocial models, and spare time determine helping behavior. People will help similar and deserving others.

**Styles of Leadership**

Leaders have different ways of influencing their members. How they lead is related to their leadership styles. There are many styles of leadership, among them include the following:

1. Supportive leadership
2. Directive leadership
3. Participative leadership
4. Achievement-oriented leadership

1. **Supportive Leadership**

   - Considering the needs of the follower, showing concern for their welfare and creating a friendly working environment.
   - This includes increasing the follower’s self-esteem and making the job more interesting.
   - This approach is best when the work is stressful, boring or hazardous.
2. Directive Leadership

- Telling followers what needs to be done and giving appropriate guidance along the way.
- This includes giving them schedules of specific work to be done at specific times.
- Rewards may also be increased as needed and role ambiguity decreased (by telling them what they should be doing).
- This may be used when the task is unstructured and complex and the follower are inexperienced.
- This increases the follower's sense of security and control and hence is appropriate to the situation.
- Telling followers what needs to be done and giving appropriate guidance along the way.
- This includes giving them schedules of specific work to be done at specific times.
- Rewards may also be increased as needed and role ambiguity decreased (by telling them what they should be doing).

3. Achievement-oriented Leadership

- Setting challenging goals, both in work and in self-improvement (and often together).
- High standards are demonstrated and expected.
- The leader shows faith in the capabilities of the follower to succeed.
- This approach is best when the task is complex.

5. Participative Leadership

- Involvement in decision-making improves the understanding of the issues involved by those who must carry out the decisions.
- People are more committed to actions where they have involved in the relevant decision-making.
- People are less competitive and more collaborative when they are working on joint goals.
When people make decisions together, the social commitment to one another is greater and thus increases their commitment to the decision.

Several people deciding together make better decisions than one person alone.

A participative Leader, rather than taking autocratic decisions, seeks to involve other people in the process, possibly including subordinates, peers, superiors and other stakeholders.

Often, however, as it is within the managers' whim to give or deny control to his or her subordinates, most participative activity is within the immediate team.

The question of how much influence others are given thus may vary on the manager's preferences and beliefs, and a whole spectrum of participation below (see Table 6.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not participative</th>
<th>Highly participative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Autocratic decision by leader</td>
<td>Leader process decision, listens to feedback, then decides</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Task vs. Person Preference**

The standard situation is manager motivating their people. Do they focus more on what is to be done, or do they spend more time on the softer people stuff, making sure they are happy, etc? This task-people question also applies to both entire organizational cultures an individual people doing their job. Although people can swing between task and people, the best place is often a balance between the two.
Task focus

People with a task focus put getting the job done as the highest priority, before any people considerations. People are seen purely as a means to getting the job done and any human considerations are generally viewed as a waste. Meeting with others are brief and business-like. Detailed work plans are drawn up. There is general belief that without close attention people will get distracted, work slowly and otherwise act inefficiently. Subordinates are thus motivated with clear objectives and regular reviews. This is largely based on a view or ‘rational man’ that people are relatively simple and that motivating them correctly is simply a matter of processing the right buttons.

People focus

Attention here is paid to the emotional well-being of other people. There is a general belief that if the people are happy then they will they optionally motivated to do the work they are given. In addition, it is assumed that they will also think intelligently about the work and, with a minimum guidance, will plan, monitor and improve much of what they are doing. The role of the manager is thus seen more as being to motivate and support people. In Transactional analysis terms, this is about being a nurturing parent rather than a controlling parent.

There is also an underlying belief in such principles as intrinsic motivation and empowerment. People are seen as being basically good and caring, and also too complex for simple behavioral techniques to work. The basic manager-worker division (although there is much less of a division here) is ‘I guide and support, you think and do’. Motivation is based around identity and social exchanges that created loyalty and other emotional ties. People are seen as generally selfish and lazy. The manager-worker division is quite clear: you think-they do. Motivation is based around control and the simple exchange of money for compliance.

Leadership Theories

This section discusses leadership theories to further enhance understandings leadership. The focus of the discussion is on trait theory, path-goal theory, and expectancy theory of leadership.
**Trait theory**

People are born with inherited traits. Some traits are particularly suited to leadership. People who make good leaders have the right (or sufficient) combination of traits. Early research on leadership was based on the psychological focus of the day, which was of people having inherited characteristics or traits. Attention was thus put on discovering these traits, often by studying successful leaders, but with the underlying assumption that if other people could also be found with these traits, then they, too, could also become great leaders.

Stogdill (1974) identified the following traits and skills as critical to leaders:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptable to situations</td>
<td>Clever (intelligence)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alert to social environment</td>
<td>Conceptually skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious and achievement-oriented</td>
<td>Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>Diplomatic and tactful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>Fluent in speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive</td>
<td>Knowledgeable about group task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependable</td>
<td>Organized (administrative ability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant (desire to influence others)</td>
<td>Persuasive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic (high activity level)</td>
<td>Social skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant of stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to assume responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Maccall and Lombardo (1983) researched both success and failure, identified four primary traits by which leaders could succeed or 'derail':

+ Emotional stability and composure:
+ Admitting error:
Good interpersonal skills:

Emotional stability and composure
A leader must be calm, confident and predictable, particularly when under stress.

Admitting error:
A leader must own the mistake, rather than putting energy into covering up.

Good interpersonal skills:
A successful leader is able to communicate and persuade others without resort to negative or coercive tactics.

Intellectual breadth:
A successful leader is able to understand a wide range of areas, rather than having a narrow (and narrow-minded) area of expertise.

Path-goal theory
The path-goal theory of leadership was developed to describe the way that leaders encourage and support their followers in achieving the goals that have been set by making the path they should take clear and easy.

In particular, leaders:
- Clarify the path so subordinates know which way to go.
- Remove roadblocks that are stopping them going there.
- Increasing the rewards along the route.
- Leaders can take a strong or limited approach in these.
- In clarifying the path, they may be directive or give vague hints.
- In removing roadblocks, they may scour the path or help the follower move the bigger blocks.
- In increasing rewards, they may give occasional encouragement or pave the way with gold.
This variation in approach will depend on the situation, including the follower's capability and motivation, as well as the difficulty of the job and other contextual factors.

**Expectancy Theory**

As we constantly are predicting likely futures, we create expectations about future events. If things seem reasonably likely and attractive, we know how to get there and we believe we can 'make the difference' then this will motivate us to act to make this future come true.

Motivation is thus a combination of:

- **Valance**: The value of the perceived outcome (What's in it for me?)
- **Instrumentality**: The belief that if I complete certain actions then I will achieve the outcome. (Clear path?)
- **Expectancy**: The belief that I am able to make the complete actions. (My capability?)

### Leaders have different ways or styles of influencing their members.

Different styles of leadership include supportive leadership, directive leadership, participative leadership and achievement-oriented leadership.

### There are four primary traits that determines the success or failure of a leader: emotional stability and composure, admitting error, good interpersonal skills, and intellectual breadth:

- Trait theory, path-goal theory, and expectancy theory of leadership explain the nature and style of leadership.
- The common leadership styles are supportive leadership, directive leadership, participative leadership, and achievement-oriented leadership.
Topic 3: Aggression and Forms of Aggression

Aggression is a verbal or physical act intended to harm or injure others either people or property. Baron and Byrne (1994) defined aggression as the intention infliction of some form of harm on others. In general, any intentional behavior aimed at causing either physical or psychosocial pain to another person is aggressive.

Types of Aggression

Aggression can be divided into hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. Hostile aggression is an act of aggression stemming from feelings of anger and aimed at inflicting pain. It is emotional in nature and its primary purpose is to do harm. It is generally provoked by pain or upset. Anything that increases emotional arousal will increase the likelihood of hostile aggression. Hostile impulses are particularly likely to lead to deadly behaviors in the presence of facilitating stimuli (such as weapons).

Instrumental aggression is an act of aggression as a means to some goal other than causing pain. It is not necessarily caused by anger or emotion. Instrumental aggression is molded by environmental rewards and social learning.

Theories of Aggression

There are many theories as to what causes us to act aggressively. This section focuses on two categories of of theory: biological and social theories of aggression.

Biological theories

Biological theories emphasize genetic predetermining of aggression. The psychodynamic theory and evolutionary approach results that aggression is innate. Psychodynamic theory proposed that people have two opposing instincts, an instinct for life and an instinct for death. An instinct for death leads to destructive behavior. Initially the destruction was toward self. Later the aggressive act is redirected to others. The need to release the natural build up tension and to restore the energy is the reasons behind the aggressive acts. This approach is not supported by concrete evidence.
The evolutionary approach argues that aggressive behavior is to ensure genetic survival. This is evident in animals. For human, it is believed that aggressive behavior is used to secure social life and economic advantage. This theory has been developed long time ago but it is very difficult to prove it.

**Social theories**

Frustration-aggression hypothesis asserts that aggression is the result of frustration. When people are blocked from achieving their goal, they get frustrated. Frustration can then lead to aggression. Frustration can be increased when it is unexpected or when people are nearer to their goal when it is blocked. Frustration is likely to be less when it is understandable, legitimate or unintentional.

Cue-arousal theory says that although frustration leads to anger, it doesn’t necessarily lead to aggression. Aggressive behavior would only occur if there are appropriate cues in the environment.

Excitation-transfer theory suggests that arousal from one situation can be carried over to another situation. The residual arousal from the earlier event can trigger aggressive act in another situation.

Social learning theory proposed that a person’s aggressive act in one specific situation depends first, on their experiences of aggression. The experience can be direct or indirect. Second, it depends on the outcome of aggressive behavior. Based on the observed experiences and the outcomes of aggression, people will decide the consequences of aggressive act. If the experience and the outcomes were positive, people will have higher tendency to imitate the behavior.

**Factors that Influence Aggression**

*Deindividuation.* When people are in a large group or crowd, they tend to lose a sense of their individual identity and take on the identity of the group. This can make them commit acts of aggression and violence that they wouldn’t normally commit.

*Environmental stressors.* Studies have found that many environmental factors increase aggression. When the temperature rises people tend to feel more disposed
to aggressive behavior. Heat leads to physiological arousal, irritation and discomfort. All these can spark aggression.

Crowding. A higher density of people can results in higher levels of aggression. This theory links to deindividuation. When our personal space is invaded, we feel stress, irritated and frustrated. These feelings will lower the threshold for aggressive outbursts.

Noise. Noise is any unwanted sound that causes a negative effect. It can cause aggression when it is too loud or unpredictable. Noise increases the feelings of stress and physiological arousal. Thus, it may leads to aggression.

Is there a gender difference on aggression? Archer and McDaniel (1995) compared the male and female responses to conflict scenario in 11 countries and found that young men showed a greater tendency toward violent solutions to conflict than did young women.

Forms of Aggression in Society

Domestic violence refers to verbal and physical aggression towards any member of one’s family. Physical proximity of family members increases the chances that they become the target of other family members who are under stress and frustration. Stress, financial difficulties, illness and alcohol or drug abuse provokes one to act violently towards a partner or their children. People who experienced family violence are more likely to repeat similar act toward family members. Thus, abuse and violence is passed from generation to another.

Sexual aggression is the availability of pornographic material such as magazine, film, and internet websites that is of sexual nature. Exposure to pornographic material may increase tolerance for sexual aggression and actual aggression toward others. These materials bring about rape myth. Rape myth is the inaccurate belief that women secretly enjoy being sexually assaulted.

The third form of aggression in society is terrorism. Relative deprivation and and a perceived lack of procedural justice leads some people leads some people to voice their dissatisfaction through acts of terrorism. Terrorism can not be eradicated
through fighting individual terrorists, but broad societal change may be more effective.

### Review Questions:

1. What is prosocial behavior?
2. Discuss theories that explain why do people help others?
3. When and who do people help?
4. Differentiate four styles of leadership.
5. Explain primary traits that determine successful leader.
6. What are the focus of trait theory, path-goal theory and expectancy theory in explaining leadership?
7. Explain two types of aggression.
8. Discuss the biological and social theories of aggression.
9. Discuss factors that contribute to aggression.
10. What are some of the forms of aggression in society?

### Summary

There are two basic forms of helping actions - egoistic helping and altruistic helping. The social exchange theory asserts that human interactions and transactions aim to maximize one’s rewards and minimize one’s costs. Helping will increase self-worth and self-satisfaction. People also extend help as a way to relieve guilt.

Social norms or social expectations move people to help. There are two social norms that motivate people to help, which are the reciprocity norm and social responsibility norm. People also help because of devotion to kin.
This means that the presence of other people decreased people tendency to help. Observing prosocial models also encourage helping. Time and similarity determine whether people will help others. People are more willing to help needy persons who have similarities with them. The cause of victim’s trouble is another important factor that determines whether they deserve help. The norm of social justice move people to help deserving others.

Leadership is influencing human behavior, regardless of the goals by power. As what we want is often constrained by other people, the use of power often includes changing or influencing what others think, believe and do.

There are many styles of leadership such as supportive leadership, directive leadership, participative leadership, and achievement-oriented leadership. People with a task focus put getting the job done as the highest priority, before any people considerations. On the other hand, people focus pay attention to the emotional well-being of other people.

According to trait theory, people are born with inherited traits and some traits are particularly suited to leadership. The path-goal theory describes the way that leaders encourage and support their followers in achieving the goals that have been set. Expectancy theory asserts that people create expectations about future events. This expectation will motivate them to act to make this future come true.

Aggression is a verbal or physical act intended to harm or injure others either people or property. Aggression can be divided into hostile aggression and instrumental aggression. Aggression can be explained by using biological and social theories.

Factors that influence aggression include factors such as deindividuation, environmental stress, crowding, and noise. Young men showed a greater tendency toward violent solutions to conflict than did young women.

Domestic violence and abuse, sexual aggression, and terrorism are some of the forms of aggression in society.