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Faculty of Business and Economics

Social Psychology
for students of Management and Economics

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Authors of “Social Psychology for Students of Management and Economics”:

PhDr. Jana Dundelová, Ph.D. - Chapters 1 (Personality in social context), 2 (Social influence, groups and teams), 3 (Attitudes and attitude change), 4 (Communication), 5 (Presentation skills), 6 (Stress), 7 (Conflicts).

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Preface

Social psychology is a branch of psychology that studies individuals in the social context. In other words, social psychology is a discipline that uses scientific methods to understand and explain how the thought, feeling and behaviour of individuals are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of other human beings.

Social psychology studies a wide range of social topics, including group behaviour, social perception, leadership, nonverbal behaviour, conformity, aggression and prejudice. It is important to note that social psychology is not just about looking at social influences. Social perception and social interaction are also vital for understanding social behaviour.

Social psychology is often confused with **folk wisdom**, **personality psychology** and **sociology**. Unlike folk wisdom, which relies on anecdotal observations and subjective interpretation, social psychology employs scientific methods and empirical study of social phenomena. While personality psychology focuses on individual traits, characteristics and thoughts, social psychology is focused on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that the social environment and group interactions have on attitudes and behaviours.

Social psychology is an interdisciplinary domain that bridges the gap between psychology and sociology. During the years immediately following World War II, there was frequent collaboration between psychologists and sociologists. However, the two disciplines have become increasingly specialized and isolated from each other in recent years, with sociologists focusing on “macro variables” (e.g., social structure) to a much greater extent. Sociologists are interested in the institutions and cultures that influence how people behave. Social psychologists instead focus on situational variables that affect social behaviour. While social psychology and sociology both study similar topics, they are looking at these topics from different perspectives. Sociology tends to look at social behaviour and influences at a very broad-based level; social psychologists typically explain human behaviour as a result of the interaction of mental states and immediate social situations. In general, in the social context an individual is important for social psychologists and not for sociologists (they are concentrated on the society).

Understanding social psychology can be useful for many reasons. First, we can better understand how groups impact our choices and actions. Additionally, it also allows us to gain a greater appreciation for how our social perceptions affect our interactions with other people. Studying social psychology can enrich our understanding of ourselves and of the world around us.

Understanding ourselves and other people, anticipating their reactions and behaviour is a conscious or subconscious wish of every man. Whatever branch we work in, we cannot avoid meeting people and dealing with them - with our superiors and subordinates, with our collaborators, colleagues, with clients, customers, business partners. In addition, we have to cope with various situations; some of them have relatively algorithmic instructions for their solving while others need our improvising and intuition. Knowledge of psychology cannot provide - as many people wish, and as some pseudo-psychologists offer in their commercial activities - simple and universally applicable guidance that would bring us success, wealth, or everlasting happiness, but provides us tools for soft skills and for our personal growth and allows us to gain insight into possible solutions of problems and their consequences.

The textbook "Social Psychology for Students of Management and Economics" contains chosen topics from social psychology and provides theoretical knowledge, overview of famous theories, concepts and paradigms as well as their practical interconnection.

Chapters 1 (Personality in social context), 2 (Social influence, groups and teams), 3 (Attitudes and attitude change), 4 (Communication), 5 (Presentation skills) 6 (Stress), 7 (Conflicts) were written by PhDr. Jana Dundelová, Ph.D., and chapters 8 (Interpersonal behaviour), 9 (Culture in social context), 10 (Research in social sciences) by Mgr. Blahoslav Rozbořil, Ph.D.

It is important to add that lectures and seminars complete the information in the textbook and they are indispensable for successful passing exams.

Finally, I hope we have realized our objectives in writing this textbook, and I believe that for the students reading of "Social Psychology for Students of Management and Economics" will be a pleasant, rewarding and enriching experience as well as inspiration for their further study of psychology.

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1 Personality in social context

We do not live our lives in isolation but in a social world. We must gather and interpret information not only about objects and events but also other about other people and about ourselves. We would like to know and understand ourselves, other people and the whole world as well; we would like to predict our behaviour and actions of other people. For this explanation psychologists have developed a number of theories and concepts.

1.1 Self-concept

The term **self-concept** is a general term used to refer to how someone thinks about or perceives themselves. The self-concept is the accumulation of knowledge about the self, such as beliefs regarding personality traits, physical characteristics, abilities, values, goals, and roles. Beginning in infancy, children acquire and organize information about themselves as a way to enable them to understand the relation between the self and their social world. This developmental process is a direct consequence of children's emerging cognitive skills and their social relationships with both family and peers. During early childhood, children's self-concepts are less differentiated and are centred on concrete characteristics, such as physical attributes, possessions, and skills. During middle childhood, the self-concept becomes more integrated and differentiated as the child engages in social comparison and more clearly perceives the self as consisting of internal, psychological characteristics. Throughout later childhood and adolescence, the self-concept becomes more abstract, complex, and hierarchically organized into cognitive mental representations or self-schemas, which direct the processing of self-relevant information.[1] For the self-concept is specific that we are objects and subjects at the same time (we study ourselves - it is "a schizophrenia like situation" that always attracted the interest of psychologists).

An old but famous and influential social psychological concept is the **looking-glass self** created by Charles Horton Cooley in 1902. According to this theory a person's self grows out of society's interpersonal interactions and the perceptions of others. The term refers to people shaping themselves based on other people's perception, which leads the people to reinforce

[1] Self-Concept. [cit. 2011-6-14]. Available from: http://social.jrank.org/pages/554/Self-Concept.html

other people's perspectives on themselves. People shape themselves based on what other people perceive and confirm other people's opinion on themselves. It also leads to expectancy effect. In hypothesizing the framework for the looking glass self, Cooley said that "the human mind is social". Beginning as children, humans begin to define themselves within the context of their socializations. The child learns that the symbol of his/her crying will elicit a response from his/her parents, not only when they are in need of necessities such as food, but also as a symbol to receive their attention.

Cooley's term "looking glass self" means that people see themselves as others see them, as if reflected in a mirror. According to this concept, in order to develop and shape behaviour, interactions with others must exist. People gain their identity and form their habits by looking at themselves through the perception of society and other people they interact with. This concept of self, created by others, is unique to human beings. It begins at an early age and continues throughout the entirety of a person's lifespan. A person will never stop modifying their "self" unless they become removed from society and cease social interactions.

According to Cooley, in his work *Human Nature and the Social Order* (1902), the "looking glass self" involves three steps:

1. To begin, people picture their appearance of themselves, traits and personalities.
2. They then use the reactions of others to interpret how others visualize them.
3. Finally, they develop their own self-concept, based on their interpretations. Their self-concept can be enhanced or diminished by their conclusions.

Cooley developed this concept in 1902, after extensive sociological testing of children in a controlled environment. Children were told to enter a room containing a bowl of candy and take only one piece. The children, unaware of being watched, took as much candy as they could. The experiment was then repeated, but this time the room the children entered was lined with mirrors so the children could see themselves. In almost all cases the children took only one piece of candy. In Cooley's interpretation, the children, by observing their own behaviour in mirrors, modified themselves out of guilt. Cooley believed that the images the children saw in the mirrors represented how they believed society saw them. Because they saw that others would see them as gluttons in the mirror, the children felt like gluttons and altered their behaviour.

In his attempt to illustrate the reflected character of the self, Cooley compared it to a mirror, or looking glass in which people study their reflection: As we see our face, figure, and dress in the glass, and are interested in them because they are ours, and pleased or otherwise with them according as they do or do not answer to what we should like them to be, so in imagination we perceive in another's mind some thought of our appearance, manners, aims, deeds, character, friends, and so on, and are variously affected by it.

The looking glass self is directly related to self-awareness and projection; human beings interpret the reactions of others that they socialize with in regards to appearance, speech, and project these interpretations unto themselves. One's self-awareness is thus heavily influenced by these social responses, and to some degree persons become reflections of what they see projected unto them by others – a summation of the symbolic interactions and exchanges between their selves and "the other".

When people receive a negative or condescending response to their appearance from a variety of persons they might socialize with, they might begin to view themselves as less physically attractive or appealing. When they receive a positive or encouraging response to their appearance or performance, they become more apt to engage in contextual social behaviour.

The concept of the "looking glass self" is undoubtedly Cooley's most famous, and is known and accepted by most psychologists and sociologists today.

Psychologists have developed many theories and conducted a lot of studies within self-concept (self-conception) and related terms (e.g. self-image, self-esteem, self-reflection, self-construction, self-evaluation and identity). To give an overview of them is far beyond of objectives of this textbook. Cooley's looking glass self is only one example of them.

1.2 Social perception

Social perception is the process of forming impressions of individuals. The resulting impressions that we form are based off of information available in the environment, our previous attitudes about relevant stimuli, and our current mood. Humans tend to operate under certain biases when forming impression of other individuals.

It allows us to determine how people will affect our personal lives. While social perceptions can be flawed, they help people to form impressions of others by making the necessary information available to assess what people are like. Missing information is filled in by using an **implicit personality theory**: If a person is observed to have one particular trait, we assume that he or she has other traits related to this observed one. These assumptions help us to "categorize" people and then infer additional facts and predict behaviour.

The concept **"self-perception"**[2] was introduced by psychologist Daryl J. Bem (1967). The theory suggests that people infer their own attitudes, opinions, and other internal states partly by observing their behaviour and the circumstances in which that behaviour occurs. An example is of a man who is asked whether he likes brown bread and who replies: "I must like it; I'm always eating it". This would be the same response that his wife would give if she were asked to answer for him. According to the theory, introspection is a poor guide to one's internal states, because internal cues are weak and ambiguous, and a person is in the same position as an outside observer, who relies on outward behaviour in interpreting another's internal states.[3]

Self-perception is interlinked with social perception. Both are influenced by self-motives. Just as you prejudge the people you meet across in society, you are being judged by them. And it is human nature to want to put off a good impression on people.

Fritz Heider (1958) argued that, as an active perceiver of the events, the average person continuously or spontaneously makes causal inferences on why the events occur. Eventually, these inferences become beliefs or expectations that allow the person to predict and understand the events that they observe and experience. As such, attribution theory is concerned with how individuals interpret events and how these interpretations relate to their subsequent behaviour.

The two main types of attributions are **internal** and **external attributions**. When an internal attribution is made, the cause of the given behaviour is assigned to the individual's personality, attitudes, character or disposition. When an external attribution is made, the cause of the given behaviour is assigned to the situation in which the behaviour was seen (that the individual producing the behaviour did so because of the surrounding environment or the

[2] A theory of self-perception was proposed to provide an alternative interpretation for several of the major phenomena embraced by Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance (see below). */author's note/*

[3] Of course introspection has an irreplaceable role in psychology but we must be aware of its limitation. */author's note/*

social situation). These two types of attributions lead to very different perceptions of the individual engaging in a behaviour (personal are internal attributions and situational are external). Attributions are also sources of many bias and errors in perception and interpretation of reality (see below).

1.3 Errors in social perception

Bias and errors in attributions (Aronson, 2004)**:**

Fundamental attribution error

This error explains a tendency to overestimate the extent to which a person's behaviour is due to internal, dispositional factors and to underestimate the role of situational factors.

One plausible reason for this error relates to the perceptual and cognitive salience of the actor as opposed to the situation: that is, observers focus their attention on actors, while the situational causes of the actor's behaviour are less salient and may be unknown.

Spotlight effect

People tend to assume their features and behaviours are more salient to others than what they generally are. This is termed the spotlight effect, the tendency to believe that other people are paying closer attention to one's appearance and behaviour than they really are.

Actor/observer difference

Tendency to see other people's actions as internally caused, while focusing more on the role of situational factors when explaining one's own actions - even when explaining the same actions. A widespread explanation for the actor/observer difference is based on similar perceptual-cognitive factors as that noted for the fundamental attribution error.

Correspondence bias

The correspondence bias is the inclination to conclude that people's behaviours match their personalities; that is, a bias not only to infer internal causes for behaviour, but to conclude that those internal causes are stable personality characteristics of the actor.

Dispositional attributions

Error in attribution involves attributions not to individuals but to whole groups of individuals. The tendency to make dispositional attributions of casualty and correspondent inferences with respect to groups of people leads to the assumption that whole groups have similar dispositions or personality characteristics.

For example, the assumption of positive characteristics causing the behaviour of members in favoured in-groups, and negative characteristics causing the behaviour of disfavoured out-groups has been labelled the ultimate attribution error.

Self-serving attributions

Self-serving attributions are explanations for one's own successes that credit internal, dispositional factors and explanations for one's failures that blame external, situational factors.

People tend to make attributions in line with "bad things happen to bad people" and "good things happen to good people" in order to protect their self-esteem and prevent feeling vulnerable. This is often referred to the **just-world hypothesis** (or just-world phenomenon), that explains the tendency for people to want to believe that the world is fundamentally just. As a result, when they witness an otherwise inexplicable injustice, they will rationalize it by searching for things that the victim might have done to deserve it. This deflects anxiety of offenders, and lets them continue to believe the world is a just place, but often at the expense of blaming victims for things that were not, objectively, their fault. It can result in attacks on defenceless civilians during wars and on escalation of absurd violence.

Another theory entails the need to protect one's own sense of invulnerability. This inspires people to believe that rape, for example, only happens to those who deserve or provoke the assault. This is a way of feeling safer. If the potential victim avoids the behaviours of the past victims then they themselves will remain safe and feel less vulnerable.

Defensive attributions are one type of self-serving attribution; they involve explanations for actions or outcomes that are made to avoid feelings of vulnerability and mortality.

Unrealistic optimism is a form of defensive attribution in which people think that positive events are more likely to happen to them than to their peers, and that negative events are less likely to happen to them than to their peers.

Various explanations have been offered for prevalence of self-serving biases. One is a general motivational desire to maintain self-esteem.

Another concerns self-presentation in social relations, suggesting that we exercise self-serving attributions in order to maintain the perceptions others have of us. And a third explanation stress a cognitive view - people have information about their own behaviours in other situations in which they have had positive outcomes, this may lead to positive outcomes being expected and negative outcomes being unexpected.

Other common errors in social perception:

Bias and errors in social perception should be taken into account in HR management (e.g. during evaluation of employees, within recruitment and assessment centres).

Human performance is largely a qualitative phenomenon and cannot be precisely measured quantitatively. Performance appraisal is a critical HR process yet often yields unnerving experience for both employees and their supervisors. Being aware of these pitfalls can make the process more objective and could also reduce the unpleasantness that is caused as a consequence of a poorly administered performance appraisal.[4]

Halo effect

Halo effect occurs when a observer attaches too much significance to a single factor of performance and gives similar ratings on other performance elements. Thus overall evaluation is significantly influenced by a single factor. Such a perception undermines the importance of other elements and leads to an unbalanced performance assessment of the individual.

For example, we are more likely to perceive a beautiful person as being good (i.e. possessing desirable personality traits such as kindness, sociability, intelligence) than less attractive people.

In-group bias or in-group favouritism

In this perception bias we tend to favour members of our in-group over those we perceive as out-group members.

[4] Malik, Muhammad Iqbal: Rating Errors in Performance Appraisal. [cit. 2011-6-16].
Available from: http://www.letsstartthinking.org/HR/performance-appraisal-rating-errors.asp

Black sheep effect

When someone in our group does something bad, we may feel bad (possibly because we know that other people are likely to judge us based on the behaviour of our group members). Under certain circumstances, we may treat or evaluate an offending in-group member more negatively than a similarly negative out-group member.

Strictness, leniency and central tendency bias

People differ in their tendency to evaluate people or performance. Some supervisors are very strict or conservative in their ratings and generally give low scores in their evaluations. This tendency may make high performers attain somewhat average ranking and average performers appear as poor performers. Evaluators with such tendency are known to have a strictness bias.

On the other hand, some supervisors demonstrate a leniency bias and rate their subordinates very liberally which may make even average performers seem like star performers, attaining very high performance scores.

And yet, others "play safe" by rating around the golden mean - the average. This may be done to avoid the necessity to justify scoring across the two extremes as some systems expect managers to specify additional comments as they give too high or too low ratings to employees. This rating error is known as the central tendency bias.

Recency Bias

Performance appraisal involves assessment of employee performance for a specific period - quarterly, annually etc. People may not perform uniformly throughout that period. We all face highs and lows and demonstrate variance in performance due to numerous factors. It is therefore very important to review performance demonstrated throughout the period under consideration.

Often however, recent events tend to overshadow the overall performance. People do have "short memories". Thus a person who has worked very hard and excelled throughout the year, but for some inadvertent reasons had faced performance issues in the last weeks or month may at times get a poor appraisal from the supervisor, showing a recency bias.

Contrast Effect

When supervisors rate employees one after another, rating of an exceptional performer or a very poor performer could affect the subsequent ratings of other individual(s). This phenomenon is known as the contrast effect. For example, let's suppose that a supervisor has

just rated an outstanding performer and is now evaluating an individual who is also a good performer but there seems to be a contrasting difference between the abilities and output of the two individuals. This significant difference in performance or employee competencies could lead the supervisor to rating the second individual as an average or below-average performer.

Personal Bias

Personal beliefs, attitudes, assumptions, experiences, preferences and lack of understanding about a person, class or a phenomenon can lead to an unfair evaluation which is off from reality. We all suffer from these shortcomings, consciously or unconsciously, while making everyday judgments about people, things, events etc.

It is especially important to be aware and sensitive to possible biases, prejudices and stereotypes while making judgments about employee performance. While many of the prejudices operate covertly and unconsciously, others strike us through conscious thoughts and feelings. Understanding common biases and being on guard while appraising can significantly raise the objectivity of the evaluation process.

Examples of personal bias include a bias against a race, ethnicity, religion, age, sex, or assuming that certain type or class of people are not suitable to perform a specific job or function etc.

If you believe for instance, that women are emotional and men are rational, then chances are that you would not employ a female worker for a role that involves making objective decisions. Similarly, an assumption that young workers are faster and more efficient than old workers would make it more probable to give a higher efficiency rating to a younger worker than an old worker.[5]

1.4 Selected theories of personality

Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organized set of characteristics possessed by a person that uniquely influences his or her cognitions, motivations, and behaviours in various situations. The word "personality" originates from the Latin *persona*, which means mask. Significantly, in the theatre of the ancient Latin-speaking world, the mask was not used as a

[5] Malik, Muhammad Iqbal: Rating Errors in Performance Appraisal. [cit. 2011-6-16].
Available from: http://www.letsstartthinking.org/HR/performance-appraisal-rating-errors.asp

plot device to *disguise* the identity of a character, but rather was a convention employed to represent or *typify* that character.

Freud's Personality Theory

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) developed his ideas about psychoanalytic theory from work with mental patients. He was a medical doctor who specialized in neurology. He spent most of his years in Vienna, though he moved to London near the end of his career because of the Nazis' anti-Semitism.

Freud believed that personality has three structures: **the id, the ego,** and **the superego**. The id is the Freudian structure of personality that consists of instincts, which are an individual's reservoir of psychic energy. In Freud's view, the id is totally unconscious; it has no contact with reality. As children experience the demands and constraints of reality, a new structure of personality emerges - the ego - the Freudian structure of personality that deals with the demands of reality. The ego is called the executive branch of personality because it uses reasoning to make decisions. The id and the ego have no morality. They do not take into account whether something is right or wrong. The superego is the Freudian structure of personality that is the moral branch of personality. The superego takes into account whether something is right or wrong. Think of the superego as what we often refer to as our "conscience."

Freud considered personality to be like an iceberg; most of personality exists below our level of awareness, just as the massive part of an iceberg is beneath the surface of the water. Freud believed that most of the important personality processes occur below the level of conscious awareness. In examining people's conscious thoughts about their behaviours, we can see some reflections of the ego and the superego. Whereas the ego and superego are partly conscious and partly unconscious, the primitive id is the unconscious, the totally submerged part of the iceberg. How does the ego resolve the conflict among its demands for reality, the wishes of the id, and constraints of the superego? Through defence mechanisms, the psychoanalytic term for unconscious methods the ego uses to distort reality, thereby protecting it from anxiety.

In Freud's view, the conflicting demands of the personality structures produce anxiety. For example, when the ego blocks the pleasurable pursuits of the id, inner anxiety is felt. This

diffuse, distressed state develops when the ego senses that the id is going to cause harm to the individual. The anxiety alerts the ego to resolve the conflict by means of defence mechanisms. Repression is the most powerful and pervasive defence mechanism, according to Freud; it works to push unacceptable id impulses out of awareness and back into the unconscious mind. Repression is the foundation from which all other defence mechanisms work; the goal of every defence mechanism is to repress, or push threatening impulses out of awareness. Freud said that our early childhood experiences, many of which he believed are sexually laden, are too threatening and stressful for us to deal with consciously. We reduce the anxiety of this conflict through the defence mechanism of repression.[6]

Type A and Type B personality theory

During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behaviour patterns. They theorized that intense, hard-driving Type A personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease because they are "stress junkies". The Type A is ambitious, aggressive, business-like, controlling, highly competitive, impatient, preoccupied with his or her status, time-conscious, and tightly-wound. People with Type A personalities are often high-achieving "workaholics" who multi-task, push themselves with deadlines, and hate both delays and ambivalence. Many successful business and political leaders have Type A personalities.

Type B personality is almost the opposite of Type A. People with Type B personalities are generally patient, relaxed, easy-going, less competitive, and lower in risk, and at times lacking an overriding sense of urgency. Type B may delay the work they have to the last moment and they usually don't get stressed that easily. Because of these characteristics, Type B individuals are often described as apathetic and disengaged by individuals with Type A or other personality types.

Dr. Redford Williams, cardiologist at Duke University, refuted Friedman's theory that Type A personalities have a higher risk of coronary heart disease; however, current research indicates that only the hostility component of Type A may have health implications. Type A/B theory has been extensively criticized by psychologists because it tends to oversimplify the many dimensions of an individual's personality.[7]

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[6] Freud's Personality Theory. [cit. 2011-6-20]. Available from: http://www.essortment.com/all/freudpersonalit_rkjd.htm

[7] Personality types A, B and C and Disease. [cit. 2011-6-21]. Available from: http://www.psychtreatment.com/personality_type_and_disease.htm

Type C personality

Type C (or cancer-prone personality) can be characterized as someone who responds to stress with depression and a sense of hopelessness. Type C personality people are perfectionists and tend to take everything seriously. They dress very neatly and work very dedicatedly. They have a tendency to go deep into details of things and are always striving for accuracy in whatever they do.

They are very consistent and follow all the rules and procedures in both work and life in general. This trait in them makes them very dependable as they do not rush things, and because they always check a thing inside out before proceeding further. Type C people are deep thinkers, who like to know each and every detail of how and why certain things work. Type C people are very patient and do not rest unless and until they get at the bottom of things. This personality trait makes them ideal for technical jobs or jobs that involve numbers such as an accountant or an engineer. One of the peculiar type C personality traits is that these people are unable to express their motions, feelings or needs to other people. These people are true introverts and you will never find them showing their anger or being over ecstatic about anything. In fact these people often ignore and deny their feelings and maintain a kind of a rational, no nonsense and unemotional outward demeanour all the time. Type C personality people lack assertiveness. When faced with an opposition, they are unable to hold on to what they stand for. They are much more likely to conform to the wishes of other people. They have a tendency to please other people, even if it means that they hurt themselves in the process.[8]

Type C individuals, since they deny their feelings and can not stand up for themselves, tend to suffer from stress and depression more than any other personality type. Apart from cancer also other health problems are related to Type C personality: e.g. rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, multiple sclerosis, lupus and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Clearly, most of these are autoimmune disorders. Researches show that due to the strong mind body connection in humans, when an individual with type C personality suppresses his wishes and does things only for others repeatedly, the immune system responds by attacking the self, instead of defending it. A type C personality can never say no to others, becomes stressful because of this, and ends up with many illness and diseases.

[8] Type C Personality. [cit. 2011-6-23]. Available from: http://www.buzzle.com/articles/type-c-personality.html

There are many problems with overemphasizing personality type without considering various other factors and their effect on the disease process. Taken to an extreme, some individuals may even feel guilty in considering that their personality type may be responsible for their disease, which may only add to their problems. If personality type does have some effect on the disease process, it is probably related more to the weakening affect on the immune functioning through an individual's response to stress. This can then undermine the body's defences and make an individual more vulnerable to infection.[9]

Type D personality

Type D personality, a concept used in the field of medical psychology, is defined as the joint tendency towards negative affectivity (e.g. worry, irritability, gloom) and social inhibition (e.g. reticence and a lack of self-assurance). The letter D stands for "distressed". Type D personality, first defined in the 1990s, is characterized by feelings of negativity, depression, anxiety, stress, anger, and loneliness. Type D personalities sweat the small stuff and often expect the worst. They have trouble making friends and often have low self-esteem.

They are tense, chronically angry, and overreact to stressful situations; they also tend to conceal their feelings from others out of fear of rejection. Individuals with a Type D personality have the tendency to experience increased negative emotions across time and situations and tend not to share these emotions with others, because of fear of rejection or disapproval. Johan Denollet, professor of Medical Psychology at Tilburg University in The Netherlands, developed the construct based on clinical observations in cardiac patients, empirical evidence, and existing theories of personality. The prevalence of Type D personality is 21% in the general population and ranges between 18 to 53% in cardiac patients.[10]

Behaviour probably plays a role too, since Type D's are less likely to exercise, quit smoking, and are rather bad at "complying with treatment programs". And because they're typically tense and insecure in social situations, Type D's may also shy away from seeking

[9] Type C Personality. [cit. 2011-6-23]. Available from: http://www.buzzle.com/articles/type-c-personality.html

[10] Type D' Personality: How Distress Affects Your Health [cit. 2011-6-21]. Available from: http://health.usnews.com/health-news/family-health/heart/articles/2010/09/14/type-d-personality-how-distress-affects-your-health

medical care or prefer not to discuss worrisome symptoms with their doctors. Type D has also been addressed with respect to common somatic complaints in childhood.

However, much more research needs to be done to understand the effect of personality type on physical health.

Big five personality model

Some personality researchers have proposed that there are five basic dimensions of personality. Evidence of this theory has been growing over the past 50 years, beginning with the research of D. W. Fiske (1949) and later expanded upon by other researchers including Norman (1967), Smith (1967), Goldberg (1981), and McCrae & Costa (1987).

The "big five" are broad categories of personality traits. While there is a significant body of literature supporting this five-factor model of personality, researchers don't always agree on the exact labels for each dimension. However, these five categories are usually described as follows:[11]

1. **Extraversion:** This trait includes characteristics such as excitability, sociability, talkativeness, assertiveness, and high amounts of emotional expressiveness. Example of items for this dimension:

    - I feel comfortable around people.
    - I start conversations.
    - I talk to a lot of different people at parties
    - I am the life of the party.
    - I don't mind being the centre of attention.

2. **Agreeableness:** This personality dimension includes attributes such as trust, altruism, kindness, affection, and other prosocial behaviours. Example of items for this dimension:

    - I make people feel at ease.
    - I sympathize with others' feelings.
    - I take time out for others.

[11] CHERRY, Kendra: The Big Five Personality Dimensions. [cit. 2011-6-25]. Available from: http://psychology.about.com/od/personalitydevelopment/a/bigfive.htm

- I am interested in people.
- I feel others' feelings.
- I have a soft heart.

3. **Conscientiousness:** Common features of this dimension include high levels of thoughtfulness, with good impulse control and goal-directed behaviours. Those high in conscientiousness tend to be organized and mindful of details. Example of items for this dimension:

    - I like order.
    - I pay attention to details
    - I am always prepared.
    - I am exacting in my work.
    - I follow a schedule.

4. **Neuroticism:** Individuals high in this trait tend to experience emotional instability, anxiety, moodiness, irritability, and sadness. Example of items for this dimension:

    - I get upset easily.
    - I have frequent mood swings.
    - I often feel blue.
    - I worry about things.
    - I am easily disturbed.
    - I change my mood a lot.
    - I get irritated easily.
    - I get stressed out easily.

5. **Openness:** This trait features characteristics such as imagination and insight, and those high in this trait also tend to have a broad range of interests. Example of items for this dimension:

    - I spend time reflecting on things.
    - I use difficult words.
    - I have a rich vocabulary.
    - I have a vivid imagination.

- I have excellent ideas.

The Big Five model is a comprehensive, empirical, data-driven research finding. Identifying the traits and structure of human personality has been one of the most fundamental goals in all of psychology. The five broad factors were discovered and defined by several independent sets of researchers. The most frequently used measures of the Big Five comprise either items that are self-descriptive sentences or, in the case of lexical measures, items that are single adjectives. The data were processed with factor-analysis in order to find the underlying factors of personality. Researches have demonstrated that these five groupings of characteristics tend to occur together in many people. For example, individuals who are sociable tend to be talkative. These dimensions represent broad areas of personality but critics argue that there are limitations to the scope of Big Five as an explanatory or predictive theory. It is argued that the Big Five Model does not explain all of human personality.

1.5 Temperament

Temperament is an aspect of personality that concerned with emotional dispositions and reactions and their speed and intensity; the term often is used to refer to the prevailing mood or mood pattern of a person. The notion of temperament in this sense originated with Galen, the Greek physician of the 2nd century AD[12], who developed it from an earlier physiological theory of four basic body fluids (humours): blood, phlegm, black bile, and yellow bile. According to their relative predominance in the individual, they were supposed to produce, respectively, temperaments designated sanguine (warm, pleasant), phlegmatic (slow-moving, apathetic), melancholic (depressed, sad), and choleric (quick to react, hot tempered).

More recent theories emphasize the influence of the endocrine glands on emotional reactivity. Modern psychology attributes primary importance to the activity of the autonomic nervous system, particularly its sympathetic branch, in emotional reactivity: autonomic over-responsiveness is intimately linked with neurotic dispositions.

Hans Eysenck (1916 - 1997) used four temperaments from ancient times but of course he did not accept the theory of body fluids but he suggested two main dimensions of temperament: neuroticism and extraversion-introversion.[13]

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[12] abbreviation AD, anno Domini = in the year of our Lord (po Kristu, našeho letopočtu)
[13] HANS EYSENCK. [cit. 2011-6-26]. Available from: http://webspace.ship.edu/cgboer/eysenck.html

When Eysenck combined the two dimensions neuroticism and extraversion he get **four temperaments**:[14]

1. Choleric

The choleric is enthusiastic, has very high aspirations and craves for success. The choleric must be first in everything and have the best of everything. They are extremely ambitious, having a keen intellect, a strong will, strong passions; they tend to dominate others becoming their superior and making them subservient.

Negatives of this temperament:

The choleric is commonly prideful, full of him/her, thinking highly of his/her great qualities and even considers his/her faults worthy of praise. Also, is stubborn and has an opinion on everything. The choleric believes he/she is always right. The choleric is confident, believes others are weak, ignorant, incompetent and slow. Upon humiliation the choleric feels hurt resulting in anger, deceit, and judgments towards others.

Positives of this temperament:

The choleric possesses a sharp, keen intellect and will combine with great enthusiasm. He/she is very successful in his/her profession, working diligently in spite of obstacles. Choleric are brief, precise, and sure in their speech.

2. Sanguine

They are easily excited by external influences, reacting quickly, although the impression is often short-lived. There is somewhat of a superficiality, or better said, lack of depth in the sanguine personality. The sanguine commonly follows others and has little stability as a result. They are fickle in ideas, opinions, and resolutions. Changes moods often (from laughter to tears in a matter of seconds) are also common. The sanguine rarely internalizes his/her focus and instead devotes attention to the external (his/her appearance, and of others, to beautiful faces, fashions and manners). The sanguine is full of optimism.

Negatives of this temperament:

Typical negatives are vanity and self-complacency, loving the appearance of his/herself and the praise of others. The sanguine is very inclined to flirt, and has a great degree of jealous tendencies. The sanguine cannot be left alone. There is a cheerfulness and love of pleasure that accompany the desire to always have someone around to enjoy life with. The sanguine

[14] Four Temperaments: Take the Test & Discover your Temperament. [cit. 2011-6-28]. Available from: http://hubpages.com/hub/Four-Temperaments-Take-the-Test--Discover-your-Temperament

decision are likely to be the wrong decisions, their undertaking fail easily since they believe success is inevitable and will therefore take it for granted, they are unstable, and they have little understanding of themselves since they rarely internalize conflict.

Positives of this temperament:

Everyone loves and knows the sanguine. He/she has the most friends and easily makes new friends. This is the extrovert of the four temperaments. The sanguine is extremely friendly, pleasant, and willing to accommodate. They often entertain others; they are compassionate towards others, and are graced with the gift of calling others out on their faults without bringing humiliation or displeasure. They are very virtuous, rarely show resentment or defiance and Wish the best for everyone.

3. Melancholic

Like the sanguine, the melancholic is also easily excited by things. However, unlike the sanguine, the initial reaction of excitement is weak, but the impression remains long and grows stronger by subsequent impressions of a similar nature. A person of this temperament is inclined to deep, thoughts and reflection, dwelling the past, looking ahead to the future, is very profound, finds meaning in just about everything, and is not satisfied with the superficial. The melancholic is driven by laws and principles. The melancholic is most comfortable alone, and in silence. He/she is very introspective and always sees life from a serious perspective, often feeling burdened and brought down by temporal affairs. Melancholies are commonly passive, reserved, irresolute, despondent, lacking courage, slow in thought and speech. Melancholies despise the lime-light, and would rather withdraw and let others receive recognition, even when they are praise worthy.

Negatives of this temperament:

They easily fall into mental distress and this can be extremely intense. The melancholic, more than any other temperament, has keen awareness of moral right and wrong, and has a deep longing for morality. They are inclined to despair, intense expressions of grief, and occurrences of depression. This can result in self-pity, and he/she may become a burden to friends and family. He/she can also lose confidence in others, specifically superiors; there is a loss of trust and respect when the melancholy becomes aware of a fellow man's weaknesses and faults. The melancholy vehemently desires justice, and forgiveness of offences is hardly an option. He/she is suspicious, lacks trust in people and fears that everyone is out to get him/her. He/she is pessimistic about everything.

Positives of this temperament:

They loves solitude and they are often productive in solitary hobbies encompassing the fine arts, liberal arts, crafts, writing, analytics, drama, contributing deep and profound thoughts and ideas to poetics, philosophy, science, and legislation, etc. There is a joy and a relaxation that results in the melancholic devoting time to these activities. Melancholies are excellent counsellors to friends, encouragers, give great affirmation when necessary, they are trustworthy and genuine. They are willing to make extreme sacrifices for the sake of others.

4. Phlegmatic

The phlegmatics are not moved by impressions at all; the reaction is missing, or empty, and they fade quickly. There is little interest in what is going on around him/her. They love leisure, and they are often unmotivated to work. Everything proceeds at a slow pace.

Negatives of this temperament:

They incline to things that require little to no effort, eating, drinking, is lazy, and neglects duties. They often miss opportunities, have no ambition and no aspirations in life.

Positives of this temperament:

They are perseverant; not easily offended, not moved by failures or sufferings, they have not intense passions. They always maintain composure, they are thoughtful and deliberate. They have a sober, objective, rational, and practical judgment. People of this temperament have little demands in life.

As we can see there are not “good “or “bad” temperaments but depends on the circumstances, environments and situation and also on the point of view of the observer if in the evaluation of somebody’s temperament prevail pros or cons.

2 Social influence, groups and teams

2.1 Social facilitation

Social facilitation is the tendency for people to be aroused into better performance on *simple tasks* (or tasks at which they are expert or that have become autonomous) when under the eye of others, rather than while they are alone (**audience effect**), or when they are working alongside other people (**coactor effect**). *Complex tasks* (or tasks at which people are not skilled), however, are often performed in an inferior manner in such situations. This effect has been demonstrated in a variety of species. In humans, it is strongest among those who are most concerned about the opinions of others, and when the individual is being watched by someone he or she does not know, or cannot see well.

Often in competitive situations, performance is enhanced. This was first shown by Norman Triplett (1898), in his study of cyclists. He observed that cyclists performed better when they were racing against others cyclists than when racing only against the clock. In this study, Triplett attributed this performance increase to the effect of the presence of others. He claimed that the presence of other people competing in the same activity led to enhanced performance (Triplett 1898). In a further study by Cottrell (1968), it was shown that some individuals performed tasks better even with the presence of only observers, and therefore no effect of competition was needed. In addition, it was found that performance was increased only when participants thought the observers were evaluating them. This finding led researchers to believe that evaluation apprehension, or concern about how others are evaluating you, was the driving force behind social facilitation

On the other hand, however, sometimes people do worse on tasks when there are other people watching. In another study by Triplett, children were given a task to operate a small piece of machinery, either in the presence of others or alone. Some children performed better alone, while others performed better with people watching (Triplett, 1898). This showed that while some individuals were positively affected by the presence of others, some individuals were also negatively affected, yielding a decrease in performance. This negative effect on performance seemed to be in direct opposition to the other findings of Triplett and Cottrell, until social psychologist Robert Zajonc made the connection between them.

Zajonc (1966) proposed that being in the presence of others causes arousal, leading to an increase in the dominant response, which is defined as the most common response in a given situation. This idea is known as the Social Facilitation Theory. Zajonc states that given a task with other people present, either observers or cofactors, the dominant response will be enhanced and the subordinate response, or less common response, will be inhibited. In a situation where the dominant response is mostly correct, such as if the task uses previously acquired skills, the subject will exhibit better performance. If the dominant response is mostly incorrect, such as learning a new task, then the subject will demonstrate poorer performance (Zajonc et al., 1966). Therefore, "performance is improved with simple or familiar tasks, and deteriorates with complex or new tasks" (Rosenbloom et al., 2007, p. 2). This theory of dominant response explains both the positive and negative effects of the presence of other people.

Zajonc created another study to test his theory, using cockroaches (Zajonc, Heingartner, and Herman 1969). Cockroaches have a natural tendency to run from the light to darker areas. In this experiment, Zajonc set up two mazes, one simple and one complex. In both mazes, a light was shown on the cockroach at one end of the maze, which had to get to the darkened box at the end of the maze. The two mazes were both tested with two different conditions. In one condition, the roach was in the maze alone with no observers (i.e. other roaches). In the other condition, there were other roaches observing from audience boxes along the maze. In the simple maze condition, cockroaches found the darkened box faster when there were other roaches observing. In the complex maze condition, however, the cockroaches completed the task slower when other roaches were observing (Zajonc et al., 1969). These findings supported his social facilitation theory based on dominant responses.

Through all of these studies and others, social facilitation has been found to be a significant effect of observers on an individual's performance, by increasing performance on simple, well-learned tasks and decreasing performance of novel, difficult tasks.

2.2 Social loafing

Social loafing is the phenomenon of people making less effort to achieve a goal when they work in a group than when they work alone. This is seen as one of the main reasons groups

are sometimes less productive than the combined performance of their members working as individuals.

These are some of the standard explanations put forward for the social loafing effect:

- **People expect each other to loaf**. Whether consciously or unconsciously people say to themselves: everyone else is going to slack off a bit so I'll slack off a bit as well because it's not fair if I do more work than the others.
- **Anonymity**. When groups are larger the individuals become more anonymous. Imagine you're doing something on your own: if it goes well you get all the glory, if it goes wrong you get all the blame. In a group both blame and glory is spread, so there's less carrot and less stick.
- **No standards**. Often groups don't have set standards so there's no clear ideal for which to aim.

These explanations naturally beg the question of how people would behave if they didn't expect each other to loaf, they weren't anonymous and there were clear standards - after all groups do often work under much better conditions than those induced in some laboratory studies. Indeed lab studies have often been criticised for giving people boring or meaningless tasks and for putting them in random groups.

Still people in groups clearly do loaf in real life so here are a few factors found to be important in reducing social loafing:

- **Identifiability.** In one study, one of the suggested causes of slacking off during group work is that individuals can hide in a crowd. To avoid this tendency, make each member of the team stand out. You can divide the tasks so that each person has his or her own individual deliverables that are easy to measure and evaluate.
- **Diversity.** When we form groups or committees that will work on important projects, we tend to pick the "star players" or "big thinkers." This is especially true in large organizations that have a lot of talent and manpower to draw from. But having intelligent individuals in a group doesn't really seem to influence its performance. Also, according to several experiments, people tend to work harder if they expect some of their colleagues to perform poorly. So it's important to create a group with members that have different skills and performance abilities.

- **Group size.** Increased group size is related to increased social loafing. Keep group size to a minimum so that it's easier to account for everyone's work. The larger the group, the more each individual can hide behind its size. Amazon is known for having two-pizza teams, which means that if two pizzas aren't enough to feed the team, then the team is too large.[15]
- **Group cohesiveness.** Several sources also indicate that increasing the group's cohesiveness helps to avoiding social loafing. This means that the members of your group should like each other and want to work together to pursue the same goals. They don't have to be close friends, but they should experience a feeling of unity that makes them feel that slacking off would let down the rest of the group.
- **Task importance**. Studies have shown that when people think the task is important they do less loafing. Zacarro (1984 in Aronson 2004) found that groups constructing 'moon tents' worked harder if they thought the relevance of the task was high, thought they were in competition with another group and were encouraged to think the task was attractive.
- **Group importance**. When the group is important to its members they work harder. Worchel et al. (1998) had people building paper chains in two groups, one which had name tags, matching coats and a sense of competition. Compared to a group given none of these, they produced 5 more paper chains.
- **Decreasing the 'sucker effect'.** The sucker effect is that feeling of being duped when you think that other people in the group are slacking off. Reducing or eliminating this perception is another key to a productive group.

This is only example how we can reduce social loafing. In the literature we can find many more factors, e.g. how easily each member's contribution can be evaluated, how unique each individual's contribution is and how individually identifiable they are. The aim is to avoid the phenomenon social loafing within the working process. (But we must not confuse 'social loafing' – or we can say in general 'loafing' - with symptoms of stress, illnesses or burning out – when we also can observe e.g. exhaustion, fatigue, depletion, tiredness, confusion, melancholia, lack of concentration, motivation or interest.)

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[15] Pizza Teams and Terabytes [cit. 2011-11-5]. Available from: http://www.fastcompany.com/50106/inside-mind-jeff-bezos

2.3 Conformity

Conformity is a type of social influence involving a change in belief or behaviour in order to fit in with a group. This change is in response to real (involving the physical presence of others) or imagined (involving the pressure of social norms/expectations) group pressure. The term conformity is often used to indicate an agreement to the majority position, brought about either by a desire to 'fit in' or be liked (normative) or because of a desire to be correct (informational), or simply to conform to a social role (identification).

There have been many experiments in psychology investigating conformity and group pressure:

Muzafer Sherif conducted a classic study on conformity in 1936. Sherif put subjects in a dark room and told them to watch a pinpoint of light and report how far it moved. Psychologists had previously discovered that a small, unmoving light in a dark room often appeared to be moving. This was labelled the autokinetic effect. The **autokinetic effect** is an illusion because the light does not actually move. However, people almost always believe that it does.

Why did Sherif study the autokinetic effect? Realizing that an experience that is completely "in people's heads" might be readily influenced by suggestion, Sherif decided to study how people were influenced by other people's opinions, in their perception of the autokinetic effect.

First Sherif studied how subjects reacted to the autokinetic effect when they were in a room by themselves. He found that they soon established their own individual norms for the judgment - usually 2 to 6 inches. In other words, when given many opportunities (trials) to judge the movement of the light, they settled on a distance of 2-6 inches and became consistent in making this judgment from trial to trial.

In the next phase of the experiment, groups of subjects were put in the dark room, 2 or 3 at a time, and asked to agree on a judgment. Now Sherif noted a tendency to compromise. People who usually made an estimate like 6 inches soon made smaller judgments like 4 inches. Those who saw less movement, such as 2 inches, soon increased their judgments to about 4 inches. People changed to more resemble the others in the group.

Sherif's subjects were not aware of this social influence. When Sherif asked subjects directly: "Were you influenced by the judgments of other persons during the experiments?", most denied it. However, when subjects were tested one at a time, later, most now conformed

to the group judgment they recently made. A subject who previously settled on an estimate of 2 inches or 6 inches was more likely (after the group experience) to say the light was moving about 4 inches. These subjects had been changed by the group experience, whether they realized it or not. They had increased their conformity to group norms.

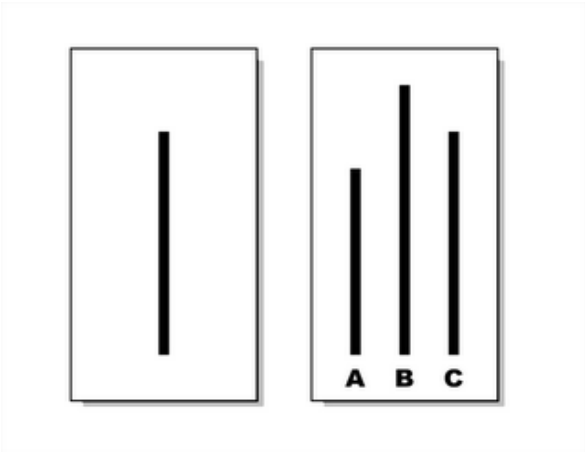
Group norms are agreed-upon standards of behaviour. Sherif's experiment showed group norms are established through interaction of individuals and the levelling-off of extreme opinions. The result is a consensus agreement that tends to be a compromise...even if it is wrong.

Another famous experiment was conducted by Asch in 1950s. **The Asch conformity experiment** was in fact a series of studies that demonstrated the power of conformity in groups. These are also known as the "Asch Paradigm".

The experiment is related closely to the Stanford Prison and Milgram Experiments, in that it tries to show how perfectly normal human beings can be pressured into unusual behaviour by authority figures, or by the consensus of opinion around them.

For the experiment, eight subjects were seated around a table, with the seating plan carefully constructed to prevent any suspicion. Only one participant was actually a genuine subject for the experiment, the rest being confederates, carefully tutored to give certain pre-selected responses. Careful experimental construction placed a varying amount of peer pressure on the individual test subject. The experiment was simple in its construction; each participant, in turn, was asked to answer a series of questions, such as which line was longest or which matched the reference line. (see picture)

The cards used for the Asch experiment:



Source: http://www.experiment-resources.com/asch-experiment.html[16]

[16] Asch Experiment [cit. 2011-9-22] Available from: http://www.experiment-resources.com/asch-experiment.html

The participants gave a variety of answers, at first correct, to avoid arousing suspicion in the subject, but then with some incorrect responses added. This would allow Asch to determine how the answers of the subject would change with the added influence of peer pressure. The Asch Experiment results were interesting and showed that peer pressure could have a measurable influence on the answers given. The control group, those not exposed to peer pressure where everybody gave correct answers, threw up only one incorrect response out of 35; this could probably be explained by experimental error.

The results for the other groups were interesting; when surrounded by people giving an incorrect answer. At least 75% of the subjects gave the wrong answer to at least one question, although experimental error may have had some influence on this figure. There was no doubt, however, that peer pressure can cause conformity.

The experiments also showed that, even if only one other participant disagreed with the confederates, the subject was more likely to resist peer pressure; it appears to be more difficult to resist the majority if isolated. The Asch Experiment showed that one voice can make a difference amongst many.

There have been a number of criticisms of Asch's experiments; the subjects were all young males, and they tend to be much more impressionable than older men. More mature people have had enough experience of life, and more mental strength; they are supposed more likely to hold true to their convictions.

One of the major criticisms of Asch's conformity experiments centres on the reasons why participants choose to conform. According to some critics, individuals may have actually been motivated to avoid conflict, rather than an actual desire to conform to the rest of the group.

Another criticism, that the experiment lacks ecological credibility and does not relate to real-life situations, is one that can be levelled at many psychological experiments, including the Milgram Experiment and the Stanford Prison Experiment.

Other follow up experiments, where the subjects were allowed to write down responses anonymously, showed far fewer incorrect answers. The comfort of anonymity made sure that looking foolish became much less of a pressure.

The **Stanford prison experiment** (Zimbardo, 1973) was a study of the psychological effects of becoming a prisoner or prison guard. The experiment was conducted from August

14 to 20, 1971 by a team of researchers led by Psychology professor Philip Zimbardo at Stanford University. Twenty-four students were selected out of 75 to play the prisoners and guards and live in a mock prison in the basement of the Stanford psychology building. The volunteers agreed to participate for a one- to two-week period in exchange for $15 a day. Roles were assigned randomly. The participants adapted to their roles well beyond what even Zimbardo himself expected, leading the "guards" to display authoritarian measures and ultimately to subject some of the prisoners to psychological torture. In turn, many of the prisoners developed passive attitudes and accepted punishments, and, at the request of the guards, readily inflicted penalization on other prisoners who attempted to stop it.

The simulated prison included three six by nine foot prison cells. Each cell held three prisoners and included three cots. Other rooms across from the cells were utilized for the prison guards and warden. One very small space was designated as the solitary confinement room, and yet another small room served as the prison yard.

The 24 volunteers were then randomly assigned to either the prisoner group or the guard group. Prisoners were to remain in the mock prison 24-hours a day for the duration of the study. Guards, on the other hand, were assigned to work in three-man teams for eight-hour shifts. After each shift, guards were allowed to return to their homes until their next shift. Researchers were able to observe the behaviour of the prisoners and guards using hidden cameras and microphones.

While the Stanford Prison Experiment was originally slated to last 14 days, it had to be stopped after just six days due to what was happening to the student participants. The guards became abusive and the prisoners began to show signs of extreme stress and anxiety.

While the prisoners and guards were allowed to interact in any way they wanted, the interactions were generally hostile or even dehumanizing. The guards began to behave in ways that were aggressive and abusive toward the prisoners, while the prisoners became passive and depressed. Five of the prisoners began to experience such severe negative emotions, including crying and acute anxiety, that they had to be released from the study early.

Even the researchers themselves began to lose sight of the reality of the situation. Zimbardo, who acted as the prison warden, overlooked the abusive behaviour of the prison

guards until graduate student Christina Maslach voiced objections to the conditions in the simulated prison and the morality of continuing the experiment.[17]

"Only a few people were able to resist the situational temptations to yield to power and dominance while maintaining some semblance of morality and decency; obviously I was not among that noble class," Zimbardo later wrote in his book *The Lucifer Effect*.[18]

According to Zimbardo and his colleagues, the Stanford Prison Experiment demonstrates the powerful role that the situation can play in human behaviour. Because the guards were placed in a position of power, they began to behave in ways they would not normally act in their everyday lives or in other situations. The prisoners, placed in a situation where they had no real control, became passive and depressed. The experiment even affected Zimbardo himself, who, in his role as the superintendent, permitted the abuse to continue.

The Stanford Prison Experiment is frequently cited as an example of unethical research. The experiment could not be replicated by researchers today because it fails to meet the standards established by numerous ethical codes, including the Ethics Code of the American Psychological Association. Zimbardo acknowledges the ethical problems with the study, suggesting that although we ended the study a week earlier than planned, we did not end it soon enough.

Other critics suggest that the study lacks generalizability due to a variety of factors. The unrepresentative sample of participants (mostly white and middle class males) makes it difficult to apply the results to a wider population.

The study is also criticized for its lack of ecological validity. While the researchers did their best to recreate a prison setting, it is simply not possible to perfectly mimic all of the environmental and situational variables of prison life.

Despite some of the criticism, the Stanford Prison Experiment remains an important study in our understanding of how the situation can influence human behaviour. The study recently garnered attention after reports of the Abu Ghraib prisoner abuses in Iraq became known. Many people, including Zimbardo himself, suggest that the abuses at Abu Ghraib might be real-world examples of the same results observed in Zimbardo's experiment.

The experimental process and the results remain controversial. The entire experiment was filmed, with excerpts soon made publicly available.

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[17] The Stanford Prison Experiment:A Simulation Study of the Psychology of Imprisonment Conducted at Stanford University. [cit. 2011-9-21]. Available from:
http://www.prisonexp.org/

[18] Zimbardo, P. (2007). *The Lucifer effect: Understanding how good people turn evil.* New York, NY: Random House.

2.4 Obedience

Obedience is the quality of being obedient, which describes the act of carrying out commands, or being actuated. Obedience differs from compliance, which is behaviour influenced by peers, and from conformity, which is behaviour intended to match that of the majority.

The **Milgram experiment**[19] was a famous scientific experiment of social psychology. The experiment was first described by Stanley Milgram, a psychologist at Yale University in an article titled Behavioural study of obedience published in the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* in 1963, and later summarized in his 1974 book *Obedience to Authority: An Experimental View*. It was intended to measure the willingness of a participant to obey an authority who instructs the participant to do something that may conflict with the participant‘s personal conscience.

The experiments began in July 1961, a year after the trial of Adolf Eichmann in Jerusalem. Milgram devised the experiment to answer the question “Could it be that Eichmann and his million accomplices in the Holocaust were just following orders? Could we call them all accomplices?” (Milgram, 1974). In other words he tried to discover how the Nazis managed to get ordinary people to take part in the mass murders of the Holocaust. The experiment showed that obedience to authority was the norm, not the exception. A similar conclusion was reached in the Stanford prison experiment. Milgram’s experiments shocked people with their implications about the dark aspects of human nature, especially since they showed that apparently normal people would behave in inhumane ways. For Milgram, however, they were more about the influence of the group on the individual than individual nature itself. He had begun his research asking whether it could be that those on trial as war criminals were just following orders, and would others have done the same. When the My Lai Massacre occurred in Vietnam in 1968, his work was also used to explain the behaviour of those involved.

The participants in the Milgram experiment were 40 men recruited using newspaper ads. In exchange for their participation, each person was paid $4.50. Milgram developed an intimidating shock generator, with shock levels starting at 30 volts and increasing in 15-volt increments all the way up to 450 volts. The many switches were labelled with terms including

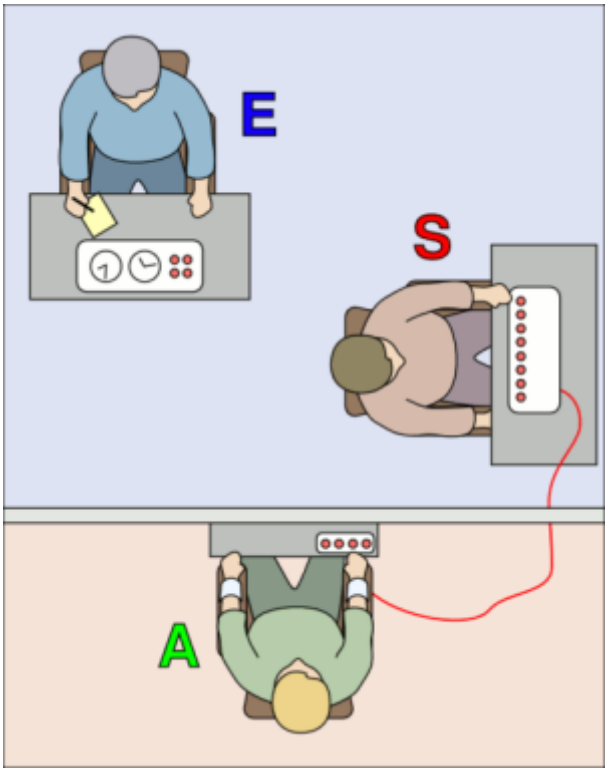
[19] Milgram experiment [cit. 2011-9-23]. Available from: http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Milgram_experiment

“slight shock”, “moderate shock” and “danger: severe shock”. The final two switches were labelled simply with an ominous “XXX”.

Each participant took the role of a “teacher” who would then deliver a shock to the “student” every time an incorrect answer was produced. While the participant believed that he was delivering real shocks to the student, the student was actually a confederate in the experiment who was simply pretending to be shocked.

As the experiment progressed, the participant would hear the learner plead to be released or even complain about a heart condition. Once the 300-volt level had been reached, the learner banged on the wall and demanded to be released. Beyond this point, the learner became completely silent and refused to answer any more questions. The experimenter then instructed the participant to treat this silence as an incorrect response and deliver a further shock.

The Milgram experiment on obedience to authority:



Source: http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Milgram_experiment[20]

[20] Miligram experiment [cit. 2011-9-23]. Available from: http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Milgram_experiment

The experimenter (E) persuades the participant (S) to give what the participant believes are painful electric shocks to another participant (A), who is actually an actor. Many participants continued to give shocks despite pleas for mercy from the actor.

Most participants asked the experimenter whether they should continue. The experimenter issued a series of commands to prod the participant along:

1. "Please continue."
2. "The experiment requires that you continue."
3. "It is absolutely essential that you continue."
4. "You have no other choice, you must go on."

The level of shock that the participant was willing to deliver was used as the measure of obedience. How far do you think that most participants were willing to go? When Milgram posed this question to a group of Yale University students, it was predicted that no more than 3 out of 100 participants would deliver the maximum shock. In reality, 65% of the participants in Milgram's study delivered the maximum shocks.

Of the 40 participants in the study, 26 delivered the maximum shocks while 14 stopped before reaching the highest levels. It is important to note that many of the subjects became extremely agitated, distraught and angry at the experimenter. Yet they continued to follow orders all the way to the end.

Because of concerns about the amount of anxiety experienced by many of the participants, all subjects were debriefed at the end of the experiment to explain the procedures and the use of deception. However, many critics of the study have argued that many of the participants were still confused about the exact nature of the experiment. Milgram later surveyed the participants and found that 84% were glad to have participated, while only 1% regretted their involvement.

While Milgram's research raised serious ethical questions about the use of human subjects in psychology experiments, his results have also been consistently replicated in further experiments.

Why did so many of the participants in this experiment perform a seemingly sadistic act on the instruction of an authority figure? According to Milgram, there are a number of situational factors that can explain such high levels of obedience:

- The physical presence of an authority figure dramatically increased compliance.
- The fact that the study was sponsored by Yale (a trusted and authoritative academic institution) led many participants to believe that the experiment must be safe.
- The selection of teacher and learner status seemed random.
- Participants assumed that the experimenter was a competent expert.
- The shocks were said to be painful, not dangerous.

Later experiments conducted by Milgram indicated that the presence of rebellious peers dramatically reduced obedience levels. When other people refused to go along with the experimenters orders, 36 out of 40 participants refused to deliver the maximum shocks.

Ordinary people, simply doing their jobs, and without any particular hostility on their part, can become agents in a terrible destructive process. Moreover, even when the destructive effects of their work become patently clear, and they are asked to carry out actions incompatible with fundamental standards of morality, relatively few people have the resources needed to resist authority. (Milgram, 1974)

Milgram's experiment has become a classic in psychology, demonstrating the dangers of obedience. These results suggest that conformity can be influenced both by a need to fit in and a belief that other people are smarter or better informed. Given the level of conformity seen in Asch's experiments, conformity can be even stronger in real-life situations where stimuli are more ambiguous or more difficult to judge.

Milgram developed for the explanation of a very low personal responsibility and a very high tendency to obedience the **agency theory** that states that people operate on two levels:

- as **autonomous** (i.e. independent) individuals, behaving voluntarily and aware of the consequences of their actions;
- on the **agentic level**, seeing themselves as the agents of others and not responsible for their actions.

Milgram believed that this explained the behaviour of the participants in his study; they denied personal responsibility, claiming that they were merely "doing what they were told".

The consequence of moving from the autonomous to the agentic level (known as the agentic shift) is that individuals attribute responsibility for their actions to the person in authority. At this agentic level, Milgram argued, people mindlessly accept the orders of the person seen as responsible in the situation. Milgram believed that this explained the behaviour of the participants in his study; they denied personal responsibility, claiming that they were merely "doing what they were told". You probably know that when those responsible for atrocities during World War II were asked why they did what they did, their answer was simply: "I was only obeying orders". Indeed, **Adolf Eichmann** is a classic 'real life' example of this in so far as at his war trial he pleaded, like other Nazis at the Nuremberg trials, that he was only obeying orders. In fact, he claimed, he was not the 'monster' the media of the day had painted him to be.

Milgram's experiment and theory was criticized for many reasons: e.g. for stressing the participants of experiments ("the teachers" could later realized own cruelty during the experiment and had cope with it), for the interpretation of the results (the agent theory). Another criticism is that the results of the experiment in the lab cannot generalize to real-world situations.

In **Hofling's hospital experiment** in 1966 (in Hayes 2005), personal responsibility was partly removed from the nurses in a natural setting – a hospital. He tested this by conducting a field experiment to discover whether nurses would be prepared to 'disobey' two orders – taking orders from an unknown Doctor (Doctor Smith from Psychiatry) and exceed the stated maximum dose of a drug (Astrofen). The doctor promised to sign the authorisation papers when he arrived at the hospital ten minutes after his phone call.

21 from 22 nurses (95%) were prepared to take orders from an unknown doctor, and exceed the maximum dose without written authorisation. (In reality the drug was a placebo).

The implications of this study is that Milgram's results can be generalized to other settings which are higher in ecological validity.

Hofling demonstrated that people are very unwilling to question supposed 'authority', even when they might have good reason to.

There is considerable evidence both from experiments and real life that the removal of personal responsibility encourages obedience. This is seen most vividly in the Nazi war crimes, in the My Lai massacre or in ethnic cleansings during war in former Yugoslavia.

2.5 Group development

Group development is a process of a group forming and then working together so that a goal is accomplished. The process involves five different steps: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. The process was first described by Bruce Tuckman, an educational psychologist who first came up with the process in the 1960s. (First he suggested four stages, the fifth stage, adjourning, he added in the 1970s.) Since then, these stages of group development, sometimes known as team building or team development, have become a generally-accepted pattern of group behaviour.

Forming: The group is just coming together. It is often characterised by shyness, uncertainty and diffidence among the members, although extravert members may rapidly assume some kind of leadership. Maintenance concerns predominate as well as high dependence on leader for guidance and direction. Little agreement on team aims other than received from leader. Individual roles and responsibilities are unclear. Leader must be prepared to answer lots of questions about the team's purpose, objectives and external relationships. Processes are often ignored. Members test tolerance of system and leader.

Storming: Storming is a period of jockeying for position, authority and influence among the members. This is the period of “testing-out” the leader. Decisions don’t come easily within group. Team members vie for position as they attempt to establish themselves in relation to other team members and the leader, who might receive challenges from team members. Clarity of purpose increases but plenty of uncertainties persist. Cliques and factions form and there may be power struggles. The team needs to be focused on its goals to avoid becoming distracted by relationships and emotional issues. Compromises may be required to enable progress. Disagreements appear or are manufactured and roles are eventually allocated. The initial leaders may not survive this period: it is the most uncomfortable phase of the group’s life - a sort of group adolescence.

Norming: Members explore behind the power processes of storming and begin to form some idea of the group’s identity: the “group in the mind”. This is rarely done explicitly, of course, and it can readily slip back into storming. For this stage is typical agreement and

consensus among the members of the team that respond well to facilitation by the leader. Roles and responsibilities are clear and accepted. Big decisions are made by group agreement. Smaller decisions may be delegated to individuals or small teams within group. Commitment and unity is strong. The team may engage in fun and social activities. The team discusses and develops its processes and working style. There is general respect for the leader and some of leadership is more shared by the team.

Performing: On this stage the group can begin to get some work done, on the basis of a relatively stable structure. The team is more strategically aware; the team knows clearly why it is doing what it is doing. The team has a shared vision and is able to stand on its own feet with no interference or participation from the leader. There is a focus on over-achieving goals, and the team makes most of the decisions against criteria agreed with the leader. The team has a high degree of autonomy. Disagreements occur but now they are resolved within the team positively and necessary changes to processes and structure are made by the team. The team is able to work towards achieving the goal, and also to attend to relationship, style and process issues along the way. Team members look after each other. The team requires delegated tasks and projects from the leader. The team does not need to be instructed or assisted. Team members might ask for assistance from the leader with personal and interpersonal development. The main role of the leader is to delegate and oversee.

Adjourning: Adjourning is the break-up of the group, the "mourning" phase, in which the group contemplates its dissolution and "death". As the team comes to the end of the project, there may be an attempt to deny the ending -an exchange of addresses and injunctions to "keep in touch", or even attempts to continue to meet on an informal basis. These are usually fantasy based, as the life of the group is reviewed in a rosy glow, and most continuing meetings peter out once the formal course is over. It is also common to ritualise the ending, for example by going out to the pub or for a meal: it is harmless and usually quite pleasant, as long as no-one is wilfully excluded.

When the task is completed successfully, its purpose fulfilled; everyone can move on to new things, feeling good about what has been achieved.

2.6 Groupthink

Groupthink is a term coined by social psychologist Irving Janis in 1972. It is a type of thought within a deeply cohesive in-group whose members try to minimize conflict and reach consensus without critically testing, analyzing, and evaluating ideas. It is a second potential negative consequence of group cohesion.

Individual creativity, uniqueness, and independent thinking are lost in the pursuit of group cohesiveness, as are the advantages of reasonable balance in choice and thought that might normally be obtained by making decisions as a group. During groupthink, members of the group avoid promoting viewpoints outside the comfort zone of consensus thinking. A variety of motives for this may exist such as a desire to avoid being seen as foolish, or a desire to avoid embarrassing or angering other members of the group. Groupthink may cause groups to make hasty, irrational decisions, where individual doubts are set aside, for fear of upsetting the group's balance. The term is frequently used pejoratively, in hindsight. Additionally, it is difficult to assess the quality of decision making in terms of outcomes all the time, but one can almost always evaluate the quality of the decision-making process.

In American literature is mention a number of American Foreign policy "disasters" such as failure to anticipate the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor (1941); the Bay of Pigs fiasco (1961) when the US administration sought to overthrow Cuban Government of Fidel Castro; and the prosecution of the Vietnam War (1964–67).

Janis (in Aronson, 2004) has documented eight **symptoms of groupthink**:

1. Illusion of invulnerability - Creates excessive optimism that encourages taking extreme risks.
2. Collective rationalization - Members discount warnings and do not reconsider their assumptions.
3. Belief in inherent morality - Members believe in the rightness of their cause and therefore ignore the ethical or moral consequences of their decisions.
4. Stereotyped views of out-groups - Negative views of "enemy" make effective responses to conflict seem unnecessary.

5. Direct pressure on dissenters - Members are under pressure not to express arguments against any of the group's views.
6. Self-censorship - Doubts and deviations from the perceived group consensus are not expressed.
7. Illusion of unanimity - The majority view and judgments are assumed to be unanimous.
8. Self-appointed 'mindguards' - Members protect the group and the leader from information that is problematic or contradictory to the group's cohesiveness, view, and/or decisions.

When the above symptoms exist in a group that is trying to make a decision, there is a reasonable chance that groupthink will happen, although it is not necessarily so. Groupthink occurs when groups are highly cohesive and when they are under considerable pressure to make a quality decision. When pressures for unanimity seem overwhelming, members are less motivated to realistically appraise the alternative courses of action available to them. These group pressures lead to carelessness and irrational thinking since groups experiencing groupthink fail to consider all alternatives and seek to maintain unanimity. Decisions shaped by groupthink have low probability of achieving successful outcomes.

Irving Janis (in Aronson, 2004) also suggested seven ways of **preventing groupthink**:

1. Leaders should assign each member the role of "critical evaluator". This allows each member to freely air objections and doubts.
2. Higher-ups should not express an opinion when assigning a task to a group.
3. The organization should set up several independent groups, working on the same problem.
4. All effective alternatives should be examined.
5. Each member should discuss the group's ideas with trusted people outside of the group.
6. The group should invite outside experts into meetings. Group members should be allowed to discuss with and question the outside experts.
7. At least one group member should be assigned the role of Devil's advocate. (That is someone who, given a certain argument, takes a position he or she does not

necessarily agree with, just for the sake of argument. In taking such position, the individual taking on the devil's advocate role seeks to engage others in an argumentative discussion process. The purpose of such process is typically to test the quality of the original argument and identify weaknesses in its structure, and to use such information to either improve or abandon the original, opposing position.) This should be a different person for each meeting.

By following these guidelines, groupthink can be avoided. After the Bay of Pigs invasion fiasco, John F. Kennedy sought to avoid groupthink during the Cuban Missile Crisis. During meetings, he invited outside experts to share their viewpoints, and allowed group members to question them carefully. He also encouraged group members to discuss possible solutions with trusted members within their separate departments, and he even divided the group up into various sub-groups, to partially break the group cohesion. JFK was deliberately absent from the meetings, so as to avoid pressing his own opinion. Ultimately, the Cuban missile crisis was resolved peacefully, perhaps thanks in part to these measures.

2.7 Team roles

In the 1970s, **Dr Meredith Belbin** and his research team at Henley Management College set about observing teams, with a view to finding out where and how these differences come about. They wanted to control the dynamics of teams to discover if – and how – problems could be pre-empted and avoided. As the research progressed, the research revealed that the difference between success and failure for a team was not dependent on factors such as intellect, but more on **behaviour**. The research team began to identify **separate clusters of behaviour**, each of which formed distinct team contributions or **"Team Roles".**

Belbin also defined characteristic weaknesses that tend to accompany each team role. He called the characteristic weaknesses of team roles the "allowable" weaknesses; as for any behavioural weakness, these are areas to be aware of and potentially improve.

The nine Belbin's team roles:[21]

Action Oriented Roles:

Shaper (SH)

Shapers are people who challenge the team to improve. They are dynamic and usually extroverted people who enjoy stimulating others, questioning norms, and finding the best approaches for solving problems. The Shaper is the one who shakes things up to make sure that all possibilities are considered and that the team does not become complacent.

Shapers often see obstacles as exciting challenges and they tend to have the courage to push on when others feel like quitting.

Their potential weaknesses may be that they're argumentative, and that they may offend people's feelings.

Implementer (IMP)

Implementers are the people who get things done. They turn the team's ideas and concepts into practical actions and plans. They are typically conservative, disciplined people who work systematically and efficiently and are very well organized. These are the people who you can count on to get the job done.

On the downside, Implementers may be inflexible and can be somewhat resistant to change.

Completer-Finisher (CF)

Completer-Finishers are the people who see that projects are completed thoroughly. They ensure there have been no errors or omissions and they pay attention to the smallest of details. They are very concerned with deadlines and will push the team to make sure the job is completed on time. They are described as perfectionists who are orderly, conscientious, and anxious.

However, a Completer-Finisher may worry unnecessarily, and may find it hard to delegate.

[21] Belbin team roles [cit. 2011-9-24]. Available from: http://www.belbin.com/rte.asp?id=8

People Oriented Roles:

Coordinator (CO)

Coordinators are the ones who take on the traditional team-leader role and have also been referred to as the chairmen. They guide the team to what they perceive are the objectives. They are often excellent listeners and they are naturally able to recognize the value that each team members brings to the table. They are calm and good-natured and delegate tasks very effectively.

Their potential weaknesses are that they may delegate away too much personal responsibility, and may tend to be manipulative.

Team Worker (TW)

Team Workers are the people who provide support and make sure that people within the team are working together effectively. These people fill the role of negotiators within the team and they are flexible, diplomatic, and perceptive. These tend to be popular people who are very capable in their own right, but who prioritize team cohesion and helping people getting along.

Their weaknesses may be a tendency to be indecisive, and to maintain uncommitted positions during discussions and decision-making.

Resource Investigator (RI)

Resource Investigators are innovative and curious. They explore available options, develop contacts, and negotiate for resources on behalf of the team. They are enthusiastic team members, who identify and work with external stakeholders to help the team accomplish its objective. They are outgoing and are often extroverted, meaning that others are often receptive to them and their ideas.

On the downside, they may lose enthusiasm quickly, and are often overly optimistic.

Thought Oriented Roles:

Plant (PL)

The Plant is the creative innovator who comes up with new ideas and approaches. They thrive on praise but criticism is especially hard for them to deal with. Plants are often introverted and prefer to work apart from the team. Because their ideas are so novel, they can be impractical at times. They may also be poor communicators and can tend to ignore given parameters and constraints.

Monitor-Evaluator (ME)

Monitor-Evaluators are best at analyzing and evaluating ideas that other people (often Plants) come up with. These people are shrewd and objective and they carefully weigh the pros and cons of all the options before coming to a decision.

Monitor-Evaluators are critical thinkers and very strategic in their approach. They are often perceived as detached or unemotional. Sometimes they are poor motivators who react to events rather than instigating them

Specialist (SP)

After the initial Belbin‘s research the ninth team role, “Specialist” emerged. Specialists are people who have specialized knowledge that is needed to get the job done. They pride themselves on their skills and abilities, and they work to maintain their professional status. Their job within the team is to be an expert in the area, and they commit themselves fully to their field of expertise.

The Belbin Team Roles Model can be used in several ways - you can use it to think about team balance before a project starts, you can use it to highlight and so manage interpersonal differences within an existing team, and you can use it to develop yourself as a team player.

2.8 Leadership

Leadership is a critical management skill; it is the ability to motivate a group of people toward a common goal. Group leadership is the process of providing focus and direction to a specific group of people. Leadership of this type often involves facilitating and guiding the actions of group participants as well as accepting responsibility for the outcome of the group’s efforts. There are a number of different approaches to group leadership, with varying styles used in different settings.

Autocratic style: This strategy involves the use of a central process for making decisions on policies and procedures. Often, corporate leadership of this type vests this responsibility in a core group of executives or managers, holding them accountable for the decisions they make. While employees are usually free to present recommendations to their supervisors or managers, they do not actively participate in the decision-making process themselves. Instead, they carry out the directives issued by the group leader.

Democratic style: This model is often used in situations where multiple people share responsibility for the actions of the group. While there is still a key decision-maker, that person acts as a facilitator, actively soliciting the thoughts and ideas of the group members. However, once the decision has been made, all group members are expected to abide by the outcome, including the group leader.

Laissez-faire (liberal) style: This style is sometimes referred to as hands-off method, this type of approach essentially provides the group with the resources needed to accomplish assigned tasks, then steps out of the way and allow the group members to complete the necessary tasks with little to no direct involvement by the group leader. With this approach, the group leader remains available to answer questions, to motivate, and to assist when and as desired by the group members, but otherwise remains somewhat detached from the process.

The democratic style is helpful when there is a need to draw on the talents and expertise of everyone in the group, while the autocratic style is highly effective when tough decisions must be made quickly, and laissez-faire style is useful if the project is interesting for the team and requires creative and independent work.

3 Attitudes and attitude change

3.1 The concept of attitudes

Attitudes are an enduring evaluation of people, objects, or ideas. Attitudes are usually defined as a disposition or tendency to respond positively or negatively towards a certain thing (idea, object, person, situation). They encompass, or are closely related to, our opinions and beliefs and are based upon our experiences. Since attitudes often relate in some way to interaction with others, they represent an important link between cognitive and social psychology.

Researches shown that attitudes may originate from one's genetic background and from one's social experiences.

Martin et al. (1986 in Aronson, 2004) found that identical twins had more similar attitudes toward such things as death penalty and jazz than fraternal twins did. But we should be careful to interpret this evidence.

According to Tesser (1993 in Aronson, 2004) attitudes are related to our temperament and personality, which are directly related to our genes. People may have inherited a temperament and personality from their parents that made them predisposed to like jazz more than rock-and-roll.

Structure of Attitudes

Attitudes structure can be described in terms of three components. (This model is known as the ABC model of attitudes.)
For example your attitude toward a particular model of car has these components:

- **Affective component:** this involves a person's feelings / emotions about the attitude object. It is expressed by your sense of excitement and aesthetic pleasure or feelings of anger and resentment.
- **Cognitive component:** this involves a person's belief / knowledge about an attitude object. It is expressed by thoughts about the car's gas mileage, safety, steering and handling, and roominess.

- **Behavioural component:** the way the attitude we have influences how we act or behave. It is expressed by your activity; you go to the dealership to test-drive the car and purchasing it.

The three components are usually linked. However, there is evidence that the cognitive and affective components of behaviour do not always match with behaviour. This is shown in a study by **LaPiere in 1934** (in Aronson, 2004; Hayes, 2005). For this study he is still remembered and most often cited.

LaPiere spent two years travelling across America in an automobile with a couple who were of Chinese descent. African–American prejudice was particularly strong in the US southern states, but in the LaPiere's times there was also a relatively national negative stereotype of individuals from Chinese descent. Consequently, LaPiere used this prejudice as the basis for his appraisal of American attitudes.

Since cross-country travel by car required hotel stays, this venue made a natural opportunity for LaPiere to study the racial behaviours encountered by the Chinese descent couple. Particularly, they were refused lodging only once in their 66 hotel stays. Additionally, they were never refused service in the 184 restaurants in which the couple ate. Given the national sentiments regarding Chinese individuals at the time, LaPiere decided to follow his empirical investigation with a follow-up questionnaire.

Six months after his trips, LaPiere mailed questionnaires to 251 hotels and restaurants that the couple (and LaPiere) had frequented during the past 2 years. The establishment owners were asked: 'Will you accept members of the Chinese race as guests in your establishment?' Over 90% (i.e. 92% of those who were asked the question per se and 91% of those whose question also was paired with other nationalities such as Germans, Armenians, Italians and the like) of the 128 respondents (81 restaurants and 47 hotels) indicated that they would not. Other than one respondent who indicated yes, the remaining respondents indicated that they were uncertain, depending on the circumstances. LaPiere match paired control establishments that had not been previously visited by the couple, sending them questionnaires, finding a similar 92% 'no' response.

LaPiere suggested that this reflected a major inconsistency between behaviour and attitudes and concluded that questionnaires were a relatively poor predictors of how individuals actually responded to real-life people relative to prejudice and discrimination.

The Function of Attitudes

The basic idea behind the functional approach is that attitudes help a person to mediate between their own inner needs (expression, defence) and the outside world (adaptive and knowledge).

Attitudes can serve functions for the individual. Daniel Katz (1960 in Aronson, 2004) outlines four functional areas:

- **Knowledge.** Attitudes provide meaning (knowledge) for life. The knowledge function refers to our need for a world which is consistent and relatively stable. This allows us to predict what is likely to happen, and so gives us a sense of control. Attitudes can hep us organise and structure our experience. Knowing a person's attitude helps us predict their behaviour.
- **Self / Ego-expressive.** The attitudes we express who we are and may make us feel good because we have asserted our identity. Self-expression of attitudes can be verbal or non-verbal too. Our attitudes are part of our identity, and help us to be aware through expression of our feelings, beliefs and values.
- **Adaptive.** If a person holds and/or expresses socially acceptable attitudes, other people will reward them with approval and social acceptance. For example, when people flatter their bosses, politicians kiss baby (during election campaign), expression can be nonverbal. The adaptive function helps us fit in with a social group. People seek out others who share their attitudes, and develop similar attitudes to those they like.
- **The ego-defensive function** refers to holding attitudes that protect our self-esteem or that justify actions that make us feel guilty. For example, after many failures and the feelings of humiliation they an employee can adopt a strongly negative attitude to his team and the company. People whose pride has suffered following a defeat might similarly adopt a defensive attitude: "I'm not bothered, I'm sick of this work." Positive attitudes towards ourselves have a protective function (i.e. an ego-defensive role) in helping us reserve our self-image.

Attitudes are formed in different ways. Children acquire many of their attitudes by modeling their parents' attitudes. **Classical conditioning** using pleasurable stimuli is another method of attitude formation and one widely used by advertisers who pair a product with catchy music, soothing colors, or attractive people. **Operant conditioning**, which utilizes rewards, is a mode of attitude formation often employed by parents and teachers. Attitudes are also formed through direct experience. It is known, in fact, that the more exposure one has toward a given object, whether it is a song, clothing style, beverage, or politician, the more positive one's attitude is likely to be. One of the most common types of communication, **persuasion**, is a discourse aimed at changing people's attitudes.[22] Its success depends on several factors (see the Yale Attitude Change Approach).

3.2 Attitude change

Hovland, Janis, & Kelly (1953) provided one of the first major theories of attitude change, developed in the framework of Hull's learning theory, and oriented towards the effects of persuasive communication. According to the Hovland et al theory, changes in opinions can result in attitude change depending upon the presence or absence of rewards. The learning of new attitudes is no different in nature than any other verbal or motor skill, except that opinions relate to a single proposition whereas other skills involve a series of propositions. The acceptance of a new opinion (and hence attitude formation) is dependent upon the incentives that are offered in the communication.

Attitude change is also relevant to management and sales training.[23]

Hovland and his colleagues (Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953) during World War II, when they worked for the United States armed forces to increase the morale of U.S, soldiers. They conducted many experiments on attitude change approach and studied the conditions under which people are most likely to change their attitudes in response to persuasive messages.

[22] Attitudes and Attitude Change [cit. 2011-10-15]. Available from: http://psychology.jrank.org/pages/53/Attitudes-Attitude-Change.html
[23] Attitudes [cit. 2011-10-15]. Available from: http://tip.psychology.org/attitude.html

They studied "**who said what to whom":**

a) **the source of the communication** (e.g., how expert or attractive speaker is),
b) **the communication itself** (e.g., the quality of the arguments; whether the speaker presents both sides of the issue),
c) **the nature of the audience** (e.g., which kinds of appeals work with hostile and friendly audience) .

Because these researchers were from the Yale University, the approach to the study of persuasive communications is called the Yale Attitude Change Approach.

The Yale Attitude Change Approach:

The effectiveness of persuasive communications depends on "**who says what to whom"**.

a) Who: The Source of the Communication

- Credible speakers (e.g., those with obvious expertise) persuade people more than speakers lacking in credibility.
- Attractive speakers (whether due to physical or personality attributes) persuade people more than unattractive speakers do.

b) What: The Nature of the Communication

- People are more persuaded by messages that do not seem to be designed to influence them. Is it best to present a one-sided communication (one that presents only arguments favouring your position) or a two-sided communication (one that presents arguments for and against your position)? In general, two-sided messages work better if you are sure to refute the arguments; on the other side.
- Is it best to give your speech before or after someone arguing for the other side? If the speeches are to be given back to back and there will be a delay before people have to make up their minds, it is best to go first. Under these conditions there is likely to be a **primacy effect**, wherein people are more influenced by what they hear first. If there is a delay between the speeches and people will make up their minds right after hearing the second one, it is best to go last. Under these conditions, there is likely to be a **recency effect**, wherein people remember the second speech better than the first one.

c) To Whom: The Nature of the Audience

- An audience that is distracted during the persuasive communication will often be persuaded more than one that is not.
- People low in intelligence tend to be more influenceable than people high in intelligence, and people with moderate self-esteem tend to be more influenceable than people with low or high self-esteem.
- People are particularly susceptible to attitude change during the impressionable ages of 18 to 25. Beyond those ages, people's attitudes are more stable and resistant to change.

The change of attitudes is also connected with **learning**, e.g. Gagne (1985) suggested that there are several different types or levels of learning (including the attitudes). The significance of these classifications is that each different type requires different types of instruction. Gagne identifies five major categories of learning:

- verbal information,
- intellectual skills,
- cognitive strategies, motor skills,
- attitudes.

Different internal and external conditions are necessary for each type of learning. For example, for cognitive strategies to be learned, there must be a chance to practice developing new solutions to problems; to learn attitudes, the learner must be exposed to a credible role model or persuasive arguments.

Gagne suggests that learning tasks for intellectual skills can be organized in a hierarchy according to complexity: stimulus recognition, response generation, procedure following, use of terminology, discriminations, concept formation, rule application, and problem solving. The primary significance of the hierarchy is to identify prerequisites that should be completed to facilitate learning at each level. Prerequisites are identified by doing a task analysis of a learning/training task. Learning hierarchies provide a basis for the sequencing of instruction.

In addition, the theory outlines nine instructional events and corresponding cognitive processes:

1. gaining attention (reception);
2. informing learners of the objective (expectancy);
3. stimulating recall of prior learning (retrieval);
4. presenting the stimulus (selective perception);
5. providing learning guidance (semantic encoding);
6. eliciting performance (responding);
7. providing feedback (reinforcement);
8. assessing performance (retrieval);
9. enhancing retention and transfer (generalization).

(While Gagne's theoretical framework covers all aspects of learning, the focus of the theory is on intellectual skills. The theory has been applied to the design of instruction in all domains In its original formulation special attention was given to military training settings. Gagne addresses the role of instructional technology in learning.)

The Central and Peripheral Routes to Persuasion

Some well-known attitude researchers have wondered the same thing: When is it best to stress factors central to the communication-such as the strength of the arguments-and when is it best to stress factors peripheral to the logic of the arguments-such as the credibility or attractiveness of the person delivering the speech?

This question has been answered by two influential theories of persuasive communication: **a) central route model of persuasion** (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty & Wegener, 1999 in Aronson 2004); or **heuristic-systematic persuasion model** (Chaiken, 1987; Chaiken, Wood, & Eagly, 1996; Chen & Chaiken, 1999 in Aronson 2004). These theories specify when people will be influenced by what the speech says (i.e. the logic of the arguments) and when they will be influenced by more superficial characteristics (e.g., who gives the speech or how long it is), The theories have much in common; to avoid confusion, we will discuss here the ideas and the terminology of the elaboration likelihood model and will return later to some of the specifics of the heuristic-systematic persuasion model.

Both theories state that under certain conditions, people are motivated to pay attention to the facts in a communication, and so they will be most persuaded when these facts are logically compelling, That is, sometimes **people elaborate on what they hear, carefully thinking about and processing the content of the communication,** Petty and Cacioppo (1986) call this the **central route to persuasion**.

b) The peripheral route to persuasion (Petty and Cacioppo, 1986 in Aronson, 2004) occurs when **people are not motivated to pay attention to the facts; instead, they notice only the surface characteristics of the message, such as how long it is and who is delivering it.** Here people will not be swayed by the logic of the arguments, because they are not paying close attention to what the communicator says. Instead, they are persuaded if the surface characteristics of the message-such as the fact that it is long or is delivered by an expert or attractive communicator-make it seem like a reasonable one. According to the peripheral route to persuasion people are swayed more by things peripheral than the message itself.

What are the conditions under which people take the central versus the peripheral route to persuasion? The key is whether people have the motivation and the ability to pay attention to the facts, To the extent that people are truly interested in the topic and thus motivated to pay close attention to the arguments, they are more likely to take the central route. Similarly, if people have the ability to pay attention-for example, if nothing is distracting them-they are more likely to take the central route. One determinant of whether people are motivated to pay attention to a communication is the personal relevance of the topic, the extent to which a topic has important consequences for a person's well-being, For example, consider the issue of whether Social Security benefits should be reduced. How personally relevant is this to you? If you are a 72-year-old whose sole income is from Social Security, the issue is obviously extremely relevant; if you are a 20-year-old from a well-to-do family, the issue has little personal relevance. The more personally relevant an issue is, the more willing people are to pay attention to the arguments in a speech, and therefore the more likely people are to take the central route to persuasion.

3.3 Theory of consonance and dissonance

Heider (1958) developed the balance theory of attitude change (or the cognitive consonance theory). In his theory, when beliefs are unbalanced, stress is created and there is pressure to change attitudes. The two main factors affecting balance are the sentiment (e.g., liking, approving, admiring) and unity (e.g., similarity, proximity, membership) qualities of beliefs. Balance exists if the sentiment or unity between beliefs about events or people are equally positive or negative; imbalance occurs when they are dissimilar in nature.

Abelson (1968) and others developed theories of cognitive consistency. Cognitive consistency suggests that people will try and maintain consistency among their beliefs and make changes (i.e., accept or reject ideas) when this doesn't occur.

Innate human tendency is to seek out stimuli that are consistent with one's beliefs and attitudes and to censor or limit one's exposure to stimuli that are inconsistent with beliefs and attitudes. For example, a Detroit autoworker is likely to read articles that extol the virtues of U.S.-built cars and will avoid reading articles that are critical of American cars or that praise foreign cars. By doing so, uncomfortable feelings associated with contradictory information, known as cognitive dissonance, are avoided.[24]

Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance (1957) is one of the best known and most researched frameworks pertaining to attitude change. According to this theory, attitude change is caused by conflict among beliefs. A number of factors determine the strength of the dissonance and hence how much effort is required to change attitudes. By manipulating these factors, attitude change can be facilitated or inhibited.

According to cognitive dissonance theory, there is a tendency for individuals to seek consistency among their cognitions (i.e., beliefs, opinions). When there is an inconsistency between attitudes or behaviours (dissonance), something must change to eliminate the dissonance. In the case of a discrepancy between attitudes and behaviour, it is most likely that the attitude will change to accommodate the behaviour.

[24] Barron's Marketing Dictionary [cit. 2011-11-11]. Available from: http://www.answers.com/topic/cognitive-consistency

Dissonance occurs most often in situations where an individual must choose between two incompatible beliefs or actions. The greatest dissonance is created when the two alternatives are equally attractive. Dissonance theory applies to all situations involving attitude formation and change. It is especially relevant to decision-making and problem-solving.[25]

Cognitive dissonance always produces discomfort and therefore motivate a person to try to reduce the discomfort. There are **three basic ways of reduction of cognitive dissonance:**

- By changing our behaviour to bring it in line with the dissonant cognition.
- By attempting to justify our behaviour through changing one of the dissonant cognitions
- By attempting to justify our behaviour by adding new cognitions.

To illustrate it Aronson (2004) described reduction of cognitive dissonance of smokers. If you are a smoker; you re likely to experience dissonance because you know you are engaging in behaviour that stands a good chance of producing a painful, early death, How can you reduce this dissonance. The most direct way is to change your behaviour - to give up smoking. Your behaviour would then be consistent with your knowledge of the link between smoking and cancer. Though many people have succeeded in doing just that, It s not easy - many have tried to quit and failed. What do these people do? It would be erroneous to assume that they simply swallow hard and prepare to die. They don't. But they can come up with some pretty creative ways to justify their smoking:

- Some succeed in convincing themselves that the data linking cigarette smoking to cancer are inconclusive.
- Others try to add cognition – for example, the erroneous belief that filters trap most of the harmful chemicals and thus reduce the threat cancer. Some add a cognition that allows them to focus on the vivid exception, somebody who is very old and has been smoking almost all life.
- And some of them can add the cognition that smoking is an extremely enjoyable activity, one for which it is worth risking cancer.

[25] Cognitive Dissonance [cit. 2011-10-16]. Available from: http://tip.psychology.org/festinge.html

These justifications may sound silly to the non-smoker. But experiencing dissonance is so unpleasant that smokers prefer to accept any rationalism (if they have no power to change their behaviour) to reduce the dissonance.

Like smokers, people who are overweight know that there are health risks involved, but have developed ways of rationalizing their decision to keep eating unhealthy, high-fat foods.

Counter-Attitudinal Advocacy and Brainwashing

Sometimes people will state an opinion or otherwise support a point of view that is actually against their own beliefs. For example, where we tell white lies in order to help other people or where stating our beliefs could harm us. When we do this, we will seek to reduce dissonance by justifying our actions. If we cannot find **external justification**, we will seek **internal justification**.[26] This then leads to us change our beliefs.

Counter-Attitudinal Advocacy is particularly effective where it is difficult for the person to later deny that the dissonance-causing behaviour actually took place. Thus written (and especially signed) statements and public activities can be powerful tools of persuasion.

Counter-Attitudinal Advocacy has been extensively used for brainwashing, both with prisoners-of-war and extreme religious cult members. People were make to agree with the authority, perhaps on a small point, about something which thy wanted to persuade them. If no significant external justification was present, after a while, their beliefs were changed. Brainwashing is usually done by making incrementally escalating requests. Small rewards are offered, which are too small for the victims to use to attribute their behaviour change to, thus forcing internal attribution.[27]

Brainwashing is systematic effort to destroy an individual's former loyalties and beliefs, attitudes, and to substitute them to a new ideology. Because brainwashing is such an invasive form of influence, it requires the complete isolation and dependency of the subject, which is why you mostly hear of brainwashing occurring in prison camps or totalitarian cults. The **agent** (the brainwasher) must have complete control over the **target** (the brainwashee) so that sleep patterns, eating, using the bathroom and the fulfilment of other basic human needs

[26] If we do something that causes uncomfortable cognitive dissonance, we will have a greater tendency to justify it by making external attributions, blaming it on something outside of us. This is opposed to internal justification, where we attribute it to our character or some personal trait or belief. */author's note/*

[27] How Brainwashing Works [cit. 2011-10-16]. Available from: http://health.howstuffworks.com/mental-health/human-nature/perception/brainwashing.htm

depend on the will of the agent. In the brainwashing process, the agent systematically breaks down the target's identity to the point that it doesn't work anymore. The agent then replaces it with another set of behaviours, attitudes and beliefs that work in the target's current environment.

The techniques of brainwashing usually involve isolation from former associates and sources of information; an exacting regimen calling for absolute obedience and humility; strong social pressures and rewards for cooperation; physical and psychological punishments for non-cooperation, including social ostracism and criticism, deprivation of food, sleep, and social contacts, bondage, and torture; and constant reinforcement.[28]

The effects of brainwashing can be less or successfully reversed through deprogramming, which combines confrontation and intensive psychotherapy.

3.4 Measuring attitudes

Attitude can be measured in several ways and various methods of measuring attitudes have been developed. However, all of them have limitations. In particular the different measures focus on different components of attitudes – cognitive, affective and behavioural – and as we know, these components do not necessarily coincide.

1. Projective Techniques

Projective techniques were developed by psychologist and can be used only by them. Using these methods we can avoid social desirability, because people are unaware of what is being measured (which has ethical problems) and they are unable consciously to affect what is being measured.

A **projective test** is involves presenting a person with an ambiguous (i.e. unclear) or incomplete stimulus (e.g. picture or words). The stimulus requires interpretation from the

[28] Counter-attitudinal advocacy [cit. 2011-10-16]. Available from: http://changingminds.org/explanations/theories/counter-attidudinal_advocacy.htm

person. Therefore, the person's attitude is inferred from their interpretation of the ambiguous or incomplete stimulus.

The assumption about these measures of attitudes it that the person will "project" his or her views, opinions or attitudes into the ambiguous situation, thus revealing the attitudes the person holds. These methods are qualitative and to get reliable results the answers can be evaluated only by experienced psychologist.

Examples of projective techniques:

- **The Rorschach inkblot test** is a psychological projective test of personality in which a subject's interpretations of ten standard abstract designs are analyzed as a measure of emotional and intellectual functioning and integration. The test is named after Hermann Rorschach (1884-1922) who developed the inkblots. The inkblots are purposely ambiguous, structureless entities which are to be given a clear structure by the interpreter. So the respondent projects his or her real personality into the inkblot via the interpretation.
- **The Thematic Apperception Test** (TAT) was developed by Murray in 1930s. This test contains the ambiguous materials consist of a set of cards that portray human figures in a variety of settings and situations. The subject is asked to tell the examiner a story about each card that includes the following elements: the event shown in the picture; what has led up to it; what the characters in the picture are feeling and thinking; and the outcome of the event.
- **Draw a Person Task** (DAP test) was developed by Florence Goodenough in 1926. It is a psychological projective personality or cognitive test originally used to evaluate children and adolescents for a variety of purposes, mainly for evaluation of intelligence, but can be also used for measurement of attitudes. Test administration involves the administrator requesting children to complete three individual drawings on separate pieces of paper. Children are asked to draw a man, a woman, and themselves. No further instructions are given and the child is free to make the drawing in whichever way he/she would like.
- **The House-Tree-Person** (HTP) test was created by Buck in 1948, provides a measure of a self-perception and attitudes by requiring the test taker to draw a house, a tree, and a person.

- The picture of the house is supposed to conjure the child's feelings toward his or her family.
- The picture of the tree is supposed to elicit feelings of strength or weakness.
- The picture of the person, as with other figure drawing tests, elicits information regarding the child's self-concept.

2. The Likert Scale

The Likert Scale is an ordered, one-dimensional scale from which respondents choose one option that best aligns with their view. It is a psychometric scale commonly used in questionnaires, and is the most widely used scale in survey research, such that the term is often used interchangeably with **rating scale** even though the two are not synonymous. Psychologist Rensis Likert invented this scale in 1932.

When responding to a Likert questionnaire item, respondents specify their level of agreement to a statement. There are typically between four and seven options. Five is very common (see arguments about this below). All options usually have labels, although sometimes only a few are offered and the others are implied. A common form is an assertion, with which the person may agree or disagree to varying degrees. In scoring, numbers are usually assigned to each option (such as 1 to 5).

The format of a typical five-level Likert item is:

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Neither agree nor disagree
4. Agree
5. Strongly agree

After the questionnaire is completed, each item may be analyzed separately or in some cases item responses may be summed to create a score for a group of items.

3. The semantic differential technique

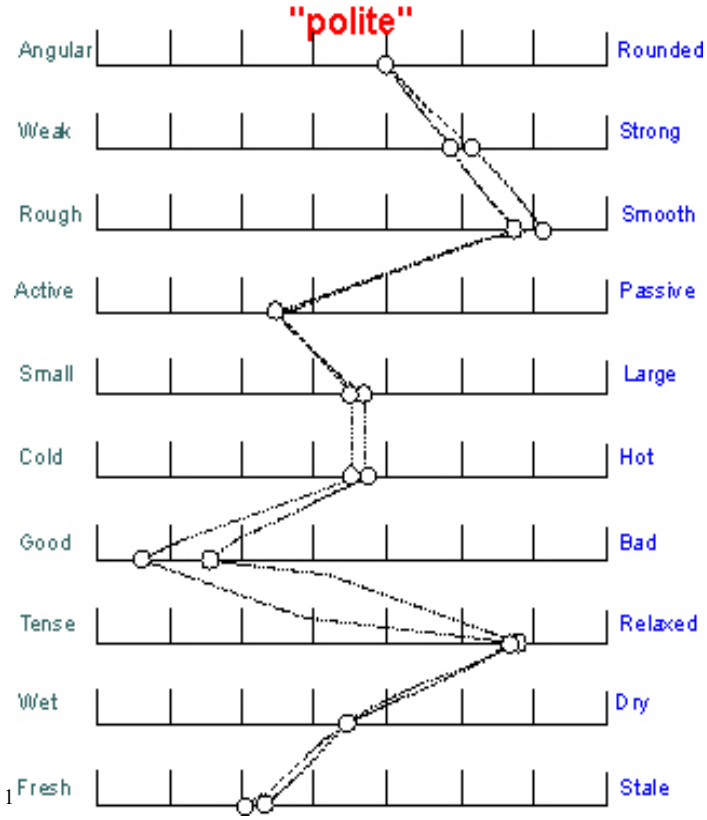
The semantic differential technique of Osgood et al. (1957) was designed to measure the connotative meaning of concepts. (The meanings of words have two parts: **denotation** a literal meaning of the word, and **connotation** an association, emotional or otherwise, which the word evokes).

The semantic differential technique asks a person to rate an issue or topic on a standard set of **bipolar adjectives** (i.e. with opposite meanings), each representing a **seven point scale**.

To prepare a semantic differential scale, you must first think of a number of words with opposite meanings that are applicable to describing the subject of the test. For example, participants are given a word, for example 'car', and presented with a variety of adjectives to describe it. Respondents tick to indicate how they feel about what is being measured.

In the picture, you can find Osgood's map of people's ratings for the word "polite". The image shows ten of the scales used by Osgood. The image maps the average responses of two groups of 20 people to the word "polite".

Example of Osgood's semantic differential:



Source: http://www.simplypsychology.pwp.blueyonder.co.uk/attitude-measurement.html[29]

[29] Attitude Measurement [cit. 2011-10-16]. Available from: http://www.simplypsychology.pwp.blueyonder.co.uk/attitude-measurement.html

The semantic differential technique reveals information on three basic dimensions of attitudes: evaluation, potency (i.e. strength) and activity:

- **Evaluation** is concerned with whether a person thinks positively or negatively about the attitude topic (e.g. dirty – clean, and ugly - beautiful).
- **Potency** is concerned with how powerful the topic is for the person (e.g. cruel – kind, and strong - week).
- **Activity** is concerned with whether the topic is seen as active or passive (e.g. active – passive).

Using this information we can see if a persons feeling (evaluation) towards an object is consistent with their behaviour. For example, a place might like the taste of chocolate (evaluative) but not eat it often (activity). The evaluation dimension has been most used by social psychologists as a measure of a person's attitude, because this dimension reflects the affective aspect of an attitude.

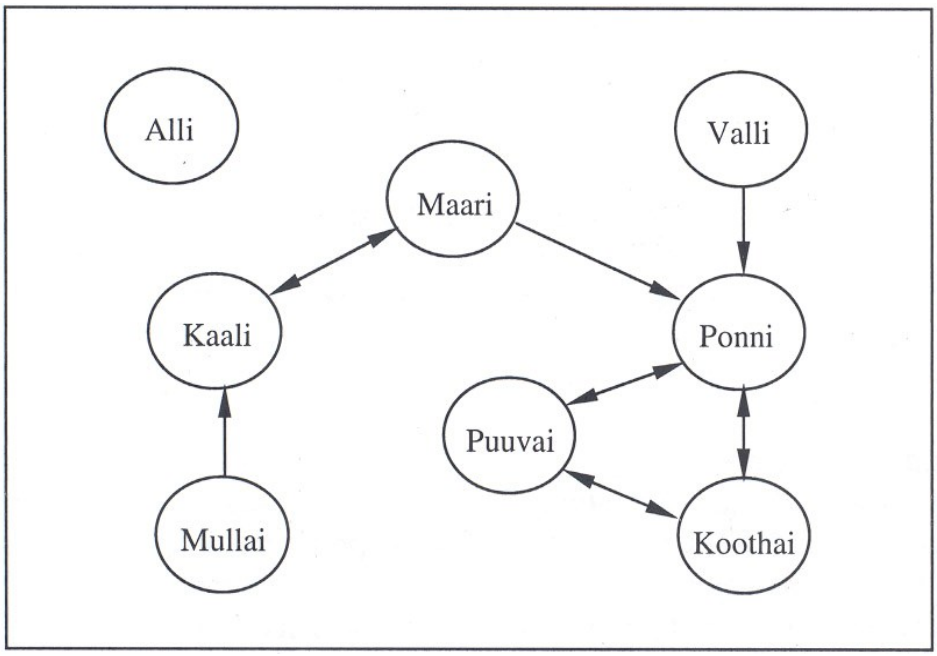
4. Sociometry

Sociometry is a quantitative method for measuring social relationships. It is the measurement of attitudes of social acceptance or rejection among members of a social grouping. It was developed by psychotherapist Jacob L. Moreno in 1934.

For a work group, sociometry can be a powerful tool for reducing conflict and improving communication because it allows the group to see itself objectively and to analyze its own dynamics. It is also a powerful tool for assessing dynamics and development in groups devoted to therapy or training.

A **sociogram** is a graphic representation of social links that a person has. It is a graph drawing that plots the structure of interpersonal relations in a group situation. It charts the interrelationships within a group. Its purpose is to discover group structures and the relation of any one person to the group as a whole.

Example of sociogram:



Source: http://www.ciil-miles.net/ETerms_SSamp3.asp[30]

Potentiality of sociometry is for developing greater understanding of group behaviour so that he may operate more wisely in group management **sociometry** enables companies to explore and build the informal networks of relationships to achieve lasting and successful organisation change.

Examples of usage of sociometry:[31]

- When relationship dynamics are hindering people producing business results.
- When you want to move your organisation(s) from isolated silos to collaborative networks.
- When you want to strengthen teams working in demanding situations.
- When you need ways to surface and sort out issues of group conflict, trust and identity.

[30] A Sample of Evaluation Terms Covered: Sociogram [cit. 2011-10-17]. Available from: http://www.ciil-miles.net/ETerms_SSamp3.asp

[31] SOCIOMETRY – making sense of the invisible dynamics in work groups [cit. 2011-10-17]. Available from: http://www.sociometry.co.nz/

- When you want to understand and address the “soft” and unspoken aspects of everyday group life.
- When you need to develop appropriate behaviours for your ideal work culture.
- When its time to integrate thinking, feeling and action in business relationships.
- When you want to release the informal leadership abilities within your organisation.

5. The Bogardus Social Distance Scale

The Bogardus Social Distance scale measures attitudes about how close or distant people feel towards other people and was developed by Bogardus in 1925 (in Hayes, 2005). It is measuring people’s willingness to participate in social contacts of varying degrees of closeness with members of diverse social groups, such as other racial and ethnic groups, and homosexuals.

The scale asks people the extent to which they would be accepting of each group (a score of 1.00 for a group is taken to indicate no social distance):

- As close relatives by marriage (score 1.00);
- As my close personal friends (2.00);
- As neighbours on the same street (3.00);
- As co-workers in the same occupation (4.00);
- As citizens in my country (5.00);
- As only visitors in my country (6.00);
- Would exclude from my country (7.00).

The Bogardus Social Distance Scale is a cumulative scale (a Guttman scale), because agreement with any item implies agreement with all preceding items. The scale has been criticized as too simple because the social interactions and attitudes in close familial or friendship-type relationships may be qualitatively different from social interactions with and attitudes toward relationships with far-away contacts such as citizens or visitors in one’s country.

6. The Staple Scale

The staple scale is another variant of the multiple choice question that asks a person to rate a brand, product, or service according to a certain characteristic on a scale from +5 to -5, indicating how well the characteristic describes the product or service. The advantage and disadvantages of a staple scale, as well as the results, are very similar to those for a semantic differential. However, the staple scale is easier to conduct and administer.

Example of the staple scale:

How would you describe the new mini IPOD?

	(Lowest) -5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	(Highest) +5
Attractiveness											
Simplicity											
Style											

Source: http://www.qualtrics.com/university/question-types-for-building-great-surveys/[32]

7. Other techniques of measuring of attitudes

Except techniques mentioned above there are a lot other techniques and methods that are also used for measuring of attitudes. For example:

The open-ended question

The open-ended question seeks to explore the qualitative, in-depth aspects of a particular topic or issue. It allows the respondent to respond in detail, but places few constraints on the nature of their response. Although open-ended questions are important, it is time consuming to code their responses and the evaluation is similar to other projective methods.

Physiological measures of attitudes

Physiological measures of attitudes provide a means of measuring attitudes without verbally questioning the respondent. For example, galvanic skin responses, measure blood pressure etc.

[32] Measurement scales [cit. 2011-10-17]. Available from: http://www.qualtrics.com/university/question-types-for-building-great-surveys/

Behavioural differential

The behavioural differential instrument has been developed for measuring the behavioural intentions of subjects towards any object or category of objects. A description of the object to be judged is placed on the top of a sheet, and the subjects indicate their behavioural intentions toward this object on a series of scales. For example:

A 30-year old male sales representative
Would ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : ___ : Would Not
Ask this person for advice.

The Pictorial Visual Rating Scale

The Pictorial Visual Rating Scale is using the pictures to describe the feelings and attitudes.

Example of the Pictorial Visual Rating Scale:

The respondent (the child) is asked to choose face that best describes own pain and record the appropriate number.

Source: http://www1.us.elsevierhealth.com/FACES/faces47translations.html[33]

Face 0 is very happy because he doesn't hurt at all. **Face 1** hurts just a little bit. **Face 2** hurts a little more. **Face 3** hurts even more. **Face 4** hurts a whole lot. **Face 5** hurts as much as you can imagine, although you don't have to be crying to feel this bad. Ask the person to choose the face that best describes how he is feeling.

Rating scale was developed and is recommended for persons of age 3 years and older. But can be used also for adults if the questions are too sensitive or if there is a language barrier.

[33] Wong on Web Archive [cit. 2011-10-17]. Available from: http://www1.us.elsevierhealth.com/FACES/faces47translations.html

4 Communication

4.1 Verbal communication

Communication is a process whereby meaning is defined and shared between living organisms. Communication requires a sender, a message, and an intended recipient, although the receiver need not be present or aware of the sender's intent to communicate at the time of communication; thus communication can occur across vast distances in time and space. Communication requires that the communicating parties share an area of communicative commonality. The communication process is complete once the receiver has understood the sender.[34]

The process of communication is expressed in **Shannon-Weaver model of communication** (1949) The Shannon-Weaver model is typical of what are often referred to as transmission models of communication. Claude Shanon (1916-2001) intended this theory purely for telephones. But when fellow American scientist Warren Weaver (1894-1978) applied his concept of information loss to interpersonal communication, an ingenuously effective model of communication was created. This model is based on the following elements:[35]

- **Source:** The source of communication is the initiator, or origin, that puts the model into action. It is an individual or group that has a specific reason to begin the communication process. That is, there is a message that they wish another to receive.
- **Encoder:**
  Once the purpose of the source has been decided, there must be a specified format for the message to take. This is what the communication encoder does; it takes the concept that the source wants sent out, and puts it into a suitable format for later interpretation.
- **Message:** The information, idea, or concept that is being communicated from one end of the model to the other is the message. Most of the time, in human communication, the message contains a distinct meaning. When the model was created, Shannon and

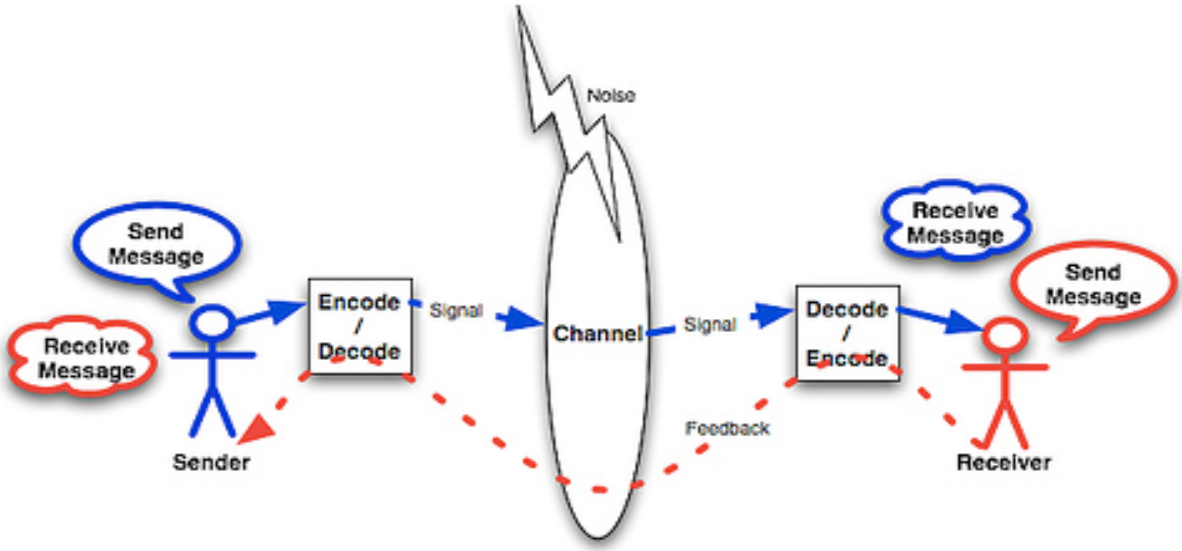
[34] Krauss, Robert M.: The Psychology of Verbal Communication [cit. 2011-9-5]. Available from: http://www.columbia.edu/~rmk7/PDF/IESBS.pdf
[35] Shannon-Weaver model defined[cit. 2011-9-5]. Available from: http://www.uri.edu/artsci/lsc/Faculty/Carson/508/03Website/Hayden/ShanWeav.html

Weaver were not concerned whether the message had substance, but rather that it was being transmitted.

- **Channel:** It is essential for meaningful communication that a suitable means to transmit the message be selected. The channel is the route that the message travels on, be it verbal, written, electronic, or otherwise.
- **Noise:** It is inevitable that noise may come into play during the communication process. Noise could be considered an interference or distortion that changes the initial message; anything that can misconstrue the message may be noise. Noise can be physical, as in an actual sound that muffles the message as it is being said, or it can be semantic, like if the vocabulary used within the message is beyond the knowledge spectrum of its recipient. In order for communication to be effective, noise must be reduced.
- **Decoder:** Before the message reaches the intended recipient, it must be decoded, or interpreted, from its original form into one that the receiver understands. This is essentially the same interaction as that of source and encoder, only in a reversed sequence.
- **Receiver:** In order for communication to be executed, there must be a second party at the end of the channel the source has used. The receiver takes in the message that the source has sent out.
- **Feedback**: For meaningful communication to come to fruition, it is vital that the receiver provides feedback to the source. Feedback relates to the source whether their message has been received, and most importantly, if it has been interpreted accurately. Without feedback, the source would never know if the communication was successful. Ongoing communication is made possible by the cyclical route feedback allows; if more communication between the two parties is necessary, they can follow the model indefinitely.

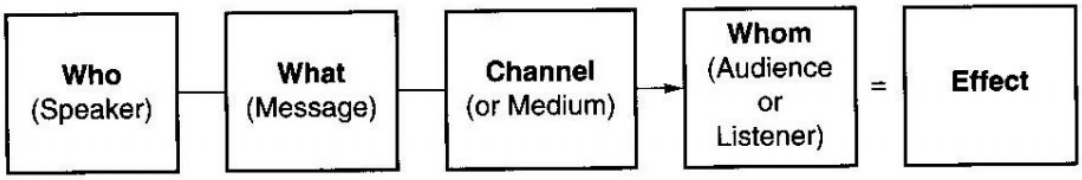
Although Shannon's and Weaver's work was very fertile in fields such as information theory and cybernetics, it may be misleading in the study of human communication.

Shannon-Weaver's model of communication:



Source: http://www.flickr.com/photos/23713309@N02/3087569794/[36]

Lasswell model is another typical of so-called transmission models of communication. This model is was developed by Harold Dwight Lasswell (1902-1978) and is often used in mass communication. Who to gate keeper, says what is a source to analyze about the message. In which channel to media. to whom to audience. And with what effect is about the effect which is made by a message of mass communication to reader, listener, etc.



Lasswell's Model.

Source: http://www.juniata.edu/faculty/cockett/teaching/130/models/lasswell.html[37]

[36] Shannon-Weaver [cit. 2011-9-5]. Available from: http://www.flickr.com/photos/23713309@N02/3087569794/
[37] Lasswell' Model [cit. 2011-9-5]. Available from: http://www.flickr.com/photos/23713309@N02/3087569794/

This model is also given a critic, because this model seems think that communicator and the message is always on purpose. This model is also though that is too much simple. But, this model focuses on important aspect in communication.

In The Shannon and Weaver and Lasswell model communication is reduced to a question of transmitting information.

Connotation and Denotation

Connotation and Denotation are two principal methods of describing the meanings of words.

Denotation tends to be described as the definitional, 'literal', 'obvious' or 'commonsense' meaning of a sign. In the case of linguistic signs, the denotative meaning is what the dictionary attempts to provide. The denotation of a representational visual image is what all viewers from any culture and at any time would recognize the image as depicting.

Connotation refers to the wide array of positive and negative associations that most words naturally carry with them, whereas denotation is the precise, literal definition of a word that might be found in a dictionary.

The term "connotation" is used to refer to the socio-cultural and 'personal' associations (ideological, emotional etc.) of the sign. These are typically related to the interpreter's class, age, gender, ethnicity and so on. Signs are more 'polysemic' - more open to interpretation - in their connotations than their denotations. Denotation is sometimes regarded as a digital code and connotation as an analogue code.

Types of Verbal Communication:

- Written Communication: As the name suggests, written communication refers to the written word and communication using it. Written communication is used massively as a mode of communicating with someone who is far away. E.g. Letters, emails, text messages, chatting, articles, etc. It is not very expressive due to absence of voice and intonations.
- Oral Communication: Oral communication refers to speech. This type of communication was basically used to communicate with people within earshot. However, with the advent of telephones and voice chat, it can be used to communicate with people who are far away as well. Oral communication can be a little bit more expressive as compared to written communication.

Both of these communication techniques use words as the basic medium.

Styles of Verbal Communication Techniques

- **Formal Verbal Communication:** This style of verbal communication is very formal and makes use of correct linguistics. Verbal communication in the workplace, as a principle, should be in this style. Formal verbal communication does not involve slang language. It mostly requires an individual to stick to a certain language, hopping between languages is not an appropriate formal verbal communication. More so, the language being used in the verbal communication technique, should be used correctly. Errors are seldom tolerated in formal verbal communication.
- **Informal Verbal Communication:** Verbal communication in classrooms, which the students use is mostly informal in nature. A chat between good friends will probably be the best verbal communication example for this style. Slang language and language hopping is permitted. In the workplace, the grapevine ordinarily makes use of this style of communication. It has been seen through surveys and studies, that this style of communication is better at helping people bond and communicate freely.

4.2 Nonverbal communication

Nonverbal communication or is usually understood as the process of communication through sending and receiving wordless messages. Messages can be communicated through gestures and touch (haptic communication), by body language or posture, by facial expression and eye contact. Meaning can also be communicated through object or artefacts (such as clothing, hairstyles or architecture), symbols, and icons (or graphics). Speech contains nonverbal elements known as paralanguage, including voice quality, rate, pitch, volume, and speaking style, as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation and stress.

Written texts have nonverbal elements such as handwriting style, spatial arrangement of words, or the physical layout of a page.

A widely cited and widely misinterpreted is the research of Albert Mehrabian that emphasizes the importance of nonverbal communication (93%); the content of the words can influence people only from 7%. In other words then body language and tone of voice will be believed much more than words.

Types of nonverbal communication:[38]

Facial expressions

The human face is able to express countless emotions without saying a word. And unlike some forms of nonverbal communication, facial expressions are universal. The facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, surprise, fear, and disgust are the same across cultures.

Kinesics (body language)

Kinesics is the interpretation of body language such as facial expressions and gestures — or, more formally, non-verbal behaviour related to movement, either of any part of the body or the body as a whole. Body motions such as shrugs, foot tapping, drumming fingers, eye movements such as winking, facial expressions, and also gestures.

Gestures

We wave, point, beckon, and use our hands when we're arguing or speaking animatedly—expressing ourselves with gestures often without thinking. However, the meaning of gestures can be very different across cultures and regions, so it's important to be careful to avoid misinterpretation.

Other related terms:

- **Emblems** - are gestures that can be used instead of speech; they substitute for words and phrases. (e.g. thumbs-up in the United States this gesture means "all right", but it can have a totally different meaning in other countries).
- **Illustrators** - accompany or reinforce verbal messages; illustrators are gestures that are used to illustrate spoken words. (e.g. giving directions – pointing).
- **Affect Displays** - show emotion; affect displays are facial expressions combined with posture which reflect the intensity of an emotion.
- **Regulators** - regulators support the interaction and communication between sender and recipient; control the flow and pace of communication (e.g. movements of the head, neck, eyes, hand gestures, posture).

[38] Nonverbal communication and body language in relationships [cit. 2011-9-8]. Available from: http://helpguide.org/mental/eq6_nonverbal_communication.htm

- **Adaptors** - release physical or emotional tension; Adaptors are gestures that are not used intentionally during a communication or interaction. They are difficult to recognize. Adaptors can take two forms:
    - body-focused, e.g. scratching
    - object-focused, e.g. smoking

Posture (posturics)

Posture is the position in which you hold your body upright against gravity while standing, sitting or lying down. Posture is understood through such indicators as direction of lean, body orientation, arm position, and body openness.

Eye contact or eye gaze (oculesics)

Eye contact is a direct and powerful form of non-verbal communication. The way you look at someone can communicate many things, including interest, affection, hostility, or attraction. The superior in the organization generally maintains eye contact longer than the subordinate.

Eye contact is also important in maintaining the flow of conversation and for gauging the other person's response. It elicits a feeling of trust. Downward glances are generally associated with modesty. Eyes rolled upward are associated with fatigue. Eye contact regulates conversation and signals the exchange of speaker and listener roles. Eye contact is used to acknowledge or deny the presence of others and can reveal information about attitudes, emotion, dominance and power in social relationships. When there are breakdowns in conversation it may be because the people conversing have different patterns of eye contact (which can be a result of differing cultural backgrounds). When individuals respond with their eyes they allow others to have a sense of their emotional state and can increase feelings of communication satisfaction.

Touch (haptics)

Used properly it can create a more direct message than dozens of words; used improperly it can build barriers and cause mistrust. You can easily invade someone's space through this type of communication. If it is used reciprocally, it indicates solidarity; if not used reciprocally, it tends to indicate differences in status. Touch not only facilitates the sending of the message, but the emotional impact of the message as well. (Examples of touching: a firm handshake, a timid tap on the shoulder, a warm bear hug, a reassuring pat on the back, a patronizing pat on the head, or a controlling grip on your arm).

Space (proxemics)

Personal space is your "bubble" - the space you place between yourself and others. This invisible boundary becomes apparent only when someone bumps or tries to enter your bubble. We all have a need for physical space, although that need differs depending on the culture, the situation, and the closeness of the relationship. You can use physical space to communicate many different nonverbal messages, including signals of intimacy, aggression, dominance, or affection.

In literature are usually mentioned four zones or distances:

- **Intimate Distance:** Intimate distance between people is between zero and 18 inches. Strangers who are very close in distance, on a subway for instance, tend to experience discomfort. The senses of sight, body heat, odour and sound become overwhelmed. Entering into this zone is allowed only very closed people (e.g. lovers, parent and child).
- **Personal Distance:** The personal zone, in the context of non-verbal proxemics, is 1.5 to 4 feet. The personal zone allows a variety of both formal and non-formal contact between people (communication between friends or business partners). Although this zone is not as threatening as the intimate zone and allows people to maintain a reasonable amount of personal space
- **Social Distance:** Social distance ranges from 4 to 12 feet. This distance applies to business and formal social situations (e.g. group discussion, meeting). Sensory details such as vision and smell are evident, although not overpowering. Beyond social distance, communication requires much more effort.
- **Public Distance:** The public distance zone, in relation to non-verbal proxemics, extends from 12 feet on. This zone as adequate space to establish self-defence. Sensory communication must change to adapt, in order to communicate from these distances. This length of distance pertains to most public settings (speech on the stage, an actor and the audience).

Voice (Paralanguage)

We communicate with our voices, even when we are not using words. Researchers have found that the tone, pitch, quality of voice, volume, inflection, rhythm, and rate of speaking convey emotions that can be accurately judged regardless of the content of the message. These nonverbal speech sounds provide subtle but powerful clues into our true feelings and

what we really mean. The important thing to gain from this is that the voice is important, not just as the conveyor of the message, but as a complement to the message. As a communicator you should be sensitive to the influence of tone, pitch, and quality of your voice on the interpretation of your message by the receiver. These cues may reveal an emotional state, attitudes towards others, social class, or origin. Individuals may exercise dominance with a loud projecting voice and indicate submission by using a lower, softer pitch. When communicating verbally it is important to ensure that the paralanguage aligns with the verbal messages it accompanies.

Environment

The way you arrange the objects in your environment - the desks, chairs, tables, and bookcases and the design of your office can greatly affect the communications within it. Some managers divide their offices into personal and impersonal areas. This can improve the communication process if the areas are used for the purposes intended.

The quality of our environment is determined by such things as the size of the desk, order or mess on the table and in the office, number of windows in the office, quality of the carpet, and type of paintings (originals or copies) on the wall.

It is obvious that the personal space and environment affect the level of comfort and the status and facilitate or hinder the communication process.

Time (chronemics)

The way an individual talks about or uses time can communicate much nonverbal information about him or her. Time perceptions include punctuality and willingness to wait, the speed of speech and how long people are willing to listen. Time can be an indicator of status.

Individuals may view time as the location or duration of events, the interval between events, or as patterns of intervals (routines or cycles of behaviour). Individuals may also have differing psychological time orientations that influence how they think about and perceive time in their daily lives. Individuals may be more past-oriented, using the past to shape the present, or future-oriented, working towards tomorrow. Individuals can also be present-oriented, living mostly for today. Culture can play a role in determining time orientation, so it is important to be aware of these differences and their potential impact on communication.

We can distinguish:

- A monochronic time system means that things are done one at a time and time is segmented into precise, small units. Under this system time is scheduled, arranged and

managed. (Monochronic cultures include Germany, Canada, Switzerland, United States, and Scandinavia.)

- A polychronic time system is a system where several things can be done at once, and a more fluid approach is taken to scheduling time. Unlike European-Americans and most northern and western European cultures, Native American, Latin American and Arabic cultures use the polychronic system of time. (Polychronic cultures include Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Mexico, Philippines, India, and many in Africa.)

Nonverbal communication is a rapidly flowing back-and-forth process. Successful nonverbal communication depends on emotional self-awareness and an understanding of the cues you're sending, along with the ability to accurately pick up on the cues others are sending you. This requires your full concentration and attention. If you are planning what you're going to say next, daydreaming, or thinking about something else, you are almost certain to miss nonverbal cues and other subtleties in the conversation. You need to stay focused on the moment-to-moment experience in order to fully understand what's going on.

4.3 Social communication and possibilities of its improving[39]

Think and prepare before you speak:

Whether you are going to speak in public, talk to your boss, spouse or children, you have to think before you utter those words. Verbal abuse happens when you express yourself without thinking and instead allow your emotions to take over.

You have to project your thoughts first in your mind or in writing before speaking them out. This will enable you to prepare yourself with any objections that may arise. Thinking, preparing and imagining the most desirable outcome in your mind allow you to practice your presentation and getting them right.

[39] About Verbal communication [cit. 2011-9-8]. Available from: http://www.about-personal-growth.com/verbal-communication.html

Use positive words:

Phrase your words clearly and positively. Your words and the explanations you give affect thoughts and determine emotions. When you are confident, relaxed and enthusiastic about your topic, it comes through strongly to your audience. Remember how much comes through non-verbal clues.

Tell a story:

One of the ways to let others understand your message is by telling a story, reading a quote or telling a joke (only if you are talented for telling jokes). Verbal communication through stories carries power to induce the person to relate to what you are saying or suggesting. A joke usually helps people relax more and their minds are more opened to listen to you.

The way you deliver the story can affect the thinking, emotions and behaviour of the listeners. They are able to imagine the experience and will produce a response. A story narrated with eloquent can give hope to people who are in dire need for encouragement.

Ask the right questions:

Questioning yourself or others with precise words allow for correct answers. It will make a difference if you were to ask a "why" or a "how" question. The former gives you a lot of reasons, understandings and explanations while the later set your brain thinking for a solution, useful information and a strategy.

By asking questions and wording them specifically, you will invite a positive debate and interaction that will benefit all involved. You become a better listener and entice others to do the same. Unnecessary arguments are reduced when you are able to express yourself with great command of your language skills, through verbal communication.

Reduce your usage of verbal pauses:

Have you ever listened to how you speak? If you haven't and are unaware, request for someone to listen and provide you with the feedback. How many times did you stop your sentences and added an 'ah', 'um' or 'well'? You can also record your verbal communication and listen back to your style of speaking.

Too many of these will irritate your listeners or is perceived as uneasiness or uncertainty in what you are saying. In order to reduce the unnecessary verbal cues, listen to yourself and become aware of it. Then when you realize it coming, condition yourself to just a silent pause.

Avoid careless language:

Use your phrases with care. Talk and write in ways that allow for accurate description of your experience, thoughts or ideas. Don't expect people to assume and guess what you are trying to say.

Speak with specificity by avoiding words like always, never, every, or all. When you say to your spouse that he is always late when in fact he was late only twice, you are attracting an argument.

Parents like to compare their children by making statements like: "You are worse than your sister". What happens then? That will create resentment and a rebellious attitude.

Ask somebody for feedback:

In the early stages of your preparation, ask someone you trust to listen to your presentation and give you honest feedback in a one-on-one situation. Ask them what works well and what needs improvement. The more important the results of your presentation are to you, the more important it is to get help in refining your presentation.

Be aware of the communication process:

You should be aware of every aspect of the present communication - the purpose, objective and needs. One needs to be aware of what is occurring within the self; aware of what the others present feel; aware of all that is occurring between the communicators and aware of all that is happening around the communicators.

Listen empathetically:

You should able to listen with understanding. Active listening intentionally focuses on who you are listening to, whether in a group or one-on-one, in order to understand what he or she is saying. As the listener, you should then be able to repeat back in your own words what they have said to their satisfaction. This does not mean you agree with, but rather understand, what they are saying. To be familiar with active listening techniques is also recommended.

Assert respectfully:

It is important that one develops speaking up assertive communication skills. This is because when one is assertive, they are proving that they are confident about what they need to convey. One should be able to come to win-win solutions in order to solve all problems that may occur from time-to-time.

Clarify your thoughts:

One needs to be clear and focused on the subject at hand and not beat around the bush and be ambiguous. One should be able to dig below the surface and derive and understands each communicator's primary needs from the conversation taking place.

Take a time out if you're feeling overwhelmed by stress:

Stress compromises your ability to communicate. When you're stressed out, you're more likely to misread other people, send off confusing or off-putting nonverbal signals, and lapse into unhealthy knee-jerk patterns of behaviour. Take a moment to calm down before you jump back into the conversation. Once you've regained your emotional equilibrium, you'll be better equipped to deal with the situation in a positive way.

Pay attention to inconsistencies:

Nonverbal communication should reinforce what is being said. If you get the feeling that someone isn't being honest or that something is "off," you may be picking up on a mismatch between verbal and nonverbal cues. Is the person is saying one thing, and their body language something else? For example, are they telling you "yes" while shaking their head no?

Look at nonverbal communication signals as a group:

Don't read too much into a single gesture or nonverbal cue. Consider all of the nonverbal signals you are sending and receiving, from eye contact to tone of voice and body language. Are your nonverbal cues consistent-or inconsistent-with what you are trying to communicate?

Prepare for the speaking situation:

Take classes where you are able to develop presentations and have them critiqued. You can also tape your presentation (videotape is best) and ask others to critique your presentation. Watch yourself and learn to look for subtle body language clues to your confidence or insecurity. Talk to people you respect about how they learned to speak well. Ask them to coach you (if that is appropriate) or try to find someone you admire who will work with you.

Outline, write the entire presentation, but learn use your own words (do not read your presentation or speech). Remember - even professional public speakers take time to prepare themselves.

So the last advice is - practice, practice, practice!

Before you can improve your communication skills, you need to figure out what you're doing right and where there is room for improvement. The most effective method is to observe yourself in action:

- **Video camera** – Videotape a conversation between you and a partner. Set the camera to record both of you at the same time, so you can observe the nonverbal back-and-forth. When you watch the recording, focus on any discrepancies between your verbal and nonverbal communication.
- **Digital camera** – Ask someone to take a series of photos of you while you're talking to someone else. As you look through the photos, focus on you and the other person's body language, facial expressions, and gestures.
- **Audio recorder** – Record a conversation between you and a friend or family member. As you listen to the recording afterwards, concentrate on the way things are said, rather than the words. Pay attention to tone, timing, pace, and other sounds.

Evaluating nonverbal communication skills[40]

Facial expression:

What is your face showing? Is it masklike and unexpressive, or emotionally present and filled with interest? What do you see as you look into the faces of others?

Tone of voice:

Does your voice project warmth, confidence, and delight, or is it strained and blocked? What do you hear as you listen to other people?

Posture and gesture:

Does your body look still and immobile, or relaxed? Sensing the degree of tension in your shoulders and jaw answers this question. What do you observe about the degree of tension or relaxation in the body of the person you are speaking to?

[40] Evaluating your nonverbal communication skills [cit. 2011-9-10]. Available from: http://helpguide.org/mental/eq6_nonverbal_communication.htmye

Touch:

Remember, what feels good is relative. How do you like to be touched? Who do you like to have touching you? Is the difference between what you like and what the other person likes obvious to you?

Intensity:

Do you or the person you are communicating with seem flat, cool, and disinterested, or over-the-top and melodramatic? Again, this has as much to do with what feels good to the other person as it does with what you personally prefer.

Timing and pace:

What happens when you or someone you care about makes an important statement? Does a response—not necessarily verbal—come too quickly or too slowly? Is there an easy flow of information back and forth?

Sounds:

Do you use sounds to indicate that you are attending to the other person? Do you pick up on sounds from others that indicate their caring or concern for you?

4.4 Intercultural communication

Non-verbal communication is especially significant in intercultural situations. Probably non-verbal differences account for typical difficulties in communicating. One proverb says: "Actions speak louder than words."

Cultural Differences in Non-verbal Communication[41]

General Appearance and Dress

All cultures are concerned for how they look and make judgements based on looks and dress. Americans, for instance, appear almost obsessed with dress and personal attractiveness. Consider differing cultural standards on what is attractive in dress and on what constitutes modesty. Note ways dress is used as a sign of status?

[41] Non-Verbal Commuication Modes [cit. 2011-9-10]. Available from: http://www.andrews.edu/~tidwell/bsad560/NonVerbal.html

Body Movement

We send information on attitude toward person (facing or leaning towards another), emotional statue (tapping fingers, jiggling coins), and desire to control the environment (moving towards or away from a person).

More than 700,000 possible motions we can make — so impossible to categorize them all! But just need to be aware the body movement and position is a key ingredient in sending messages.

Posture

Consider the following actions and note cultural differences:

Bowing (not done, criticized, or affected in US; shows rank in Japan)

Slouching (rude in most Northern European areas)

Hands in pocket (disrespectful in Turkey)

Sitting with legs crossed (offensive in Ghana, Turkey)

Showing soles of feet. (Offensive in Thailand, Saudi Arabia)

Even in US, there is a gender difference on acceptable posture?

Gestures

It is impossible to catalogue them all. But need to recognize: 1) incredible possibility and variety and 2) that an acceptable in one's own culture may be offensive in another. In addition, amount of gesturing varies from culture to culture. Some cultures are animated; other restrained. Restrained cultures often feel animated cultures lack manners and overall restraint. Animated cultures often feel restrained cultures lack emotion or interest.

Even simple things like using hands to point and count differ.

Pointing: US with index finger; Germany with little finger; Japanese with entire hand (in fact most Asians consider pointing with index finger to be rude)

Counting: Thumb = 1 in Germany, 5 in Japan, middle finger for 1 in Indonesia.

Facial Expressions

While some say that facial expressions are identical, meaning attached to them differs. Majority opinion is that these do have similar meanings world-wide with respect to smiling, crying, or showing anger, sorrow, or disgust. However, the intensity varies from culture to culture.

Note the following:

Many Asian cultures suppress facial expression as much as possible.

Many Mediterranean (Latino / Arabic) cultures exaggerate grief or sadness while most American men hide grief or sorrow.

Some see "animated" expressions as a sign of a lack of control.

Too much smiling is viewed in as a sign of shallowness.

Women smile more than men.

Eye Contact and Gaze

In USA, eye contact indicates: degree of attention or interest, influences attitude change or persuasion, regulates interaction, communicates emotion, defines power and status, and has a central role in managing impressions of others.

Western cultures - see direct eye to eye contact as positive (advise children to look a person in the eyes). But within USA, African-Americans use more eye contact when talking and less when listening with reverse true for Anglo Americans. This is a possible cause for some sense of unease between races in US. A prolonged gaze is often seen as a sign of sexual interest.

Arabic cultures make prolonged eye-contact. It shows interest and helps them understand truthfulness of the other person. (A person who doesn't reciprocate is seen as untrustworthy)

Japan, Africa, Latin American, Caribbean - avoid eye contact to show respect.

Touch

Why do we touch, where do we touch, and what meanings do we assign when someone else touches us?

Touch is culturally determined. But each culture has a clear concept of what parts of the body one may not touch. Basic message of touch is to affect or control - protect, support, disapprove (i.e. hug, kiss, hit, kick).

USA - handshake is common (even for strangers), hugs, kisses for those of opposite gender or of family (usually) on an increasingly more intimate basis. Note differences between African-Americans and Anglos in USA. Most African Americans touch on greeting but are annoyed if touched on the head (good boy, good girl overtones).

Islamic and Hindu: typically don't touch with the left hand. To do so is a social insult. Left hand is for toilet functions. Mannerly in India to break your bread only with your right hand.

Islamic cultures generally don't approve of any touching between genders (even hand shakes). But consider such touching (including hand holding, hugs) between same-sex to be appropriate.

Many Asians don't touch the head (head houses the soul and a touch puts it in jeopardy). Basic patterns: Cultures (English, German, Scandinavian, Chinese, Japanese) with high emotional restraint concepts have little public touch; those which encourage emotion (Latino, Middle-East, Jewish) accept frequent touches.

Smell

Western culture express fear of offensive natural smells (billion dollar industry to mask objectionable odours with what is perceived to be pleasant) but many other cultures consider natural body odours as normal (Arabic).

Asian cultures (Filipino, Malay, Indonesian, Thai, Indian) stress frequent bathing - and often criticize USA of not bathing often enough!

Paralanguage

Paralanguage includes:

- vocal characterizers (laugh, cry, yell, moan, whine, belch, yawn). These send different messages in different cultures (Japan — giggling indicates embarrassment; India - belch indicates satisfaction)
- vocal qualifiers (volume, pitch, rhythm, tempo, and tone). Loudness indicates strength in Arabic cultures and softness indicates weakness; indicates confidence and authority to the Germans,; indicates impoliteness to the Thais; indicates loss of control to the Japanese. (Generally, one learns not to "shout" in Asia for nearly any reason!). Gender based as well: women tend to speak higher and more softly than men.
- vocal segregates (un-huh, shh, uh, ooh, mmmh, humm, eh, mah, lah). Segregates indicate formality, acceptance, assent, uncertainty.

Fons Trompenaars

Fons Trompenaars is a Dutch author and consultant in the field of cross-cultural communication. His books include: *Riding the Waves of Culture*, *Seven Cultures of Capitalism*, *Building Cross-Cultural Competence*, *21 Leaders for the 21st Century* and

Innovating in a Global Crisis. Trompenaars experienced cultural differences firsthand at home, where he grew up speaking both French and Dutch, and then later at work with Shell in nine countries.

Trompenaars and Charles Hampden-Turner have developed a model of culture with seven dimensions. There are five orientations covering the ways in which human beings deal with each other:[42]

1. Universalism vs. particularism (*What is more important, rules or relationships?*)
2. Individualism vs. collectivism (communitarianism) (*Do we function in a group or as individuals?*)
3. Neutral vs. emotional (*Do we display our emotions?*)
4. Specific vs. diffuse (*How separate we keep our private and working lives*)
5. Achievement vs. ascription (*Do we have to prove ourselves to receive status or is it given to us?*)

In addition there is a different way in which societies look at time.
6. Sequential vs. synchronic (*Do we do things one at a time or several things at once?*)

The last important difference is the attitude of the culture to the environment.
7. Internal vs. external control (*Do we control our environment or are we controlled by it?*)

This model is successfully used for improving business performance; it helps people in organizations develop a shared understanding of business issues, irrespective of the diverse value orientations from which they start, and to help organizations realize the business potential of value differences by integrating them to a common purpose.

Geert Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions[43]

National cultures can be described according to the analysis of Geert Hofstede. These ideas were first based on a large research project into national culture differences across subsidiaries of a multinational corporation (IBM) in 64 countries. Subsequent studies by

[42] Trompenaars Hampden-Turner [cit. 2011-10-10]. Available from: http://www.thtconsulting.com/website/index.asp?=
[43] Geert Hofstede [cit. 2011-10-10]. Available from: http://geert-hofstede.com/national-culture.html

others covered students in 23 countries, elites in 19 countries, commercial airline pilots in 23 countries, up-market consumers in 15 countries, and civil service managers in 14 countries. Together these studies identified and validated four independent dimensions of national culture differences, with a fifth dimension added later.

The five Hofstede's dimensions are:

- Power Distance;
- Individualism;
- Masculinity;
- Uncertainty Avoidance;
- Long-Term Orientation.

Hofstede's research of cross-cultural groups and organizations played a major role in developing a systematic framework for assessing and differentiating national cultures and organizational cultures. His studies demonstrated that there are national and regional cultural groups that influence behaviour of societies and organizations.

As in communication, negotiation and management, the five dimensions model is very useful in international marketing because it defines national values not only in business context but in general. As companies try to adapt their products and services to local habits and preferences they have to understand the specificity of their market. For example, if you want to market cars in a country where the uncertainty avoidance is high, you should emphasize on their safety, whereas in other countries you may base your advertisement on the social image they give you. Cell phone marketing is another interesting example of the application of Hofstede's model for cultural differences: if you want to advertise cell phones in China, you may show a collective experience whereas in the United States you may show how an individual uses it to save time and money.

The variety of application of Hofstede's abstract theory is so wide that it has even been translated in the field of web designing in which you have to adapt to national preferences according to cultures' values.

5 Presentation skills

5.1 Preparation of presentation

Preparation of presentation is the most important element to a **successful presentation**, and also the best way to **reduce nervousness** and **combat fear**.

When preparing a presentation there is a vast amount of time spent on researching the subject and on the method of presenting it, but there are probably five major points to consider:

- **Why were you asked to speak?** What are their expectations of you?
- **Who is the audience?** What are their backgrounds? How much background information about your topic can you assume they bring to the presentation?
- **What is the purpose of the event?** Is it to inspire? Are they looking for concrete practical information? Do they want more concepts and theory rather than advice?
- **Where is it?** Find out everything you can about the location and logistics of the venue.
- **When is it?** Do you have enough time to prepare? What time of the day? If there are other presenters, what is the order (always volunteer to go first or last, by the way). What day of the week?

Similarly Engleberg (1994) proposed a **7 P approach to the principles of public speaking**:

- **Purpose**: Why are you speaking? What do you want audience members to know, think, believe, or do as a result of your presentation?
- **People**: Who is your audience? How do the characteristics, skills, opinions, and behaviours of your audience affect your purpose?
- **Place:** Why are you speaking to this group now and in this place? How can you plan and adapt to the logistics of this place. How can you use visual aids to help you achieve your purpose?
- **Preparation** Where and how can you find good ideas and information for your speech? How much and what kind of supporting materials do you need?

- **Planning**: Is there a natural order to the ideas and information you will use? What are the most effective ways to organize your speech in order to adapt it to the purpose, people, place, etc.?
- **Personality:** How do you become associated with your message in a positive way? What can you do to demonstrate your competence, charisma, and character to the audience?
- **Performance:** What form of delivery is best suited to the purpose of your speech. What delivery techniques will make your presentation more effective. How should you practice?

Example of steps leading to successful presentation:[44]

1. Select a speech topic

This may seem like an easy task, but there are infinite public speaking topics. How do you choose the right one? How do you select a topic which is a perfect fit between you and your audience?

Your topic leads to your core message - the entire presentation aims to deliver this core message to your audience.

2. Create a speech outline

Your speech needs structure. Without structure, your audience will either wonder what your core message is or they will lose interest in you entirely. Sadly, this step is often skipped to "save time." A planned outline is vital.

3. Write the speech

Speech writing is an iterative process which begins with your first draft. Writer's block can handicap speakers at this stage. Once the first draft is created, speech writing involves iteratively massaging your speech into its most effective form. Keeping your ego in check, you are wise to edit mercilessly.

Remember that speeches should be written for the ear; adopting figures of speech will keep your speech from sounding like an essay or legal document.

[44] Speech Preparation #1: How to Prepare a Presentation [cit. 2011-10-18]. Available from: http://sixminutes.dlugan.com/speech-preparation-1-how-to-prepare-presentation

4. Apply gestures, staging, and vocal variety

At this stage, the words are ready, but that's all you have - words. A presentation is not read by the audience; it is listened to and watched. You should also learn to choreograph your speech with vocal variety, gestures (micro movements), and staging (macro movements). These elements should seamlessly complement your words and punctuate key phrases.

5. Practice and solicit feedback

Great speakers seem natural when they speak, almost as though they are speaking the words for the first time. Nothing could be more wrong. Rehearsing your speech makes you a master of the content. Soliciting feedback and acting on it gives you confidence that your presentation will be a success.

6. Self-Critique: Prepare for the next speech

Although listed as the final step in the process, it's really the first step in preparing for your next speech. After you've delivered your speech, examine your performance objectively. This will solidify lessons learned as you prepare for your next speech challenge.

And finally, again the most important part (see chapter "Social communication and possibilities of its improving") - **practice, practice, practice.** The main purpose of creating an outline is to develop a coherent plan of what you want to talk about. You should know your presentation so well, that during the actual presentation, you should only have to briefly glance at your notes to ensure you are staying on track. This will also help you with your nerves by giving you the confidence that you can do it.

Your practice session should include a live session by practicing in front of co-workers, family, or friends. They can be valuable at providing feedback and it gives you a chance to practice controlling your nerves.

Another great feedback technique is to make a video or audio tape of your presentation and review it critically with a colleague.

5.2 Structure of presentation

"Begin at the beginning" the King said, gravely, "and go on till you come to the end; then stop." *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland,* Lewis Carroll

Every presentation has a beginning, a middle, and an end. It may seem obvious but if you follow this approach there should be no great problems:[45]

The opening

The opening (or beginning) of a presentation can best state the presentation's *main message*, just before the preview. The main message is the one sentence you want your audience to remember, if they remember only one. It is your main conclusion, perhaps stated in slightly less technical detail than at the end of your presentation.

This is the most important part of the presentation and serves two main purposes:

1. To act as an attention grabber for the audience.
2. To let your elevated levels of adrenaline and testosterone racing through your blood stream settle down, so that you can relax into your presentation.

This may well happen while the audience are finding their seats and wondering what is going to happen next. There is no right and wrong attention grabber, but here are some of the ones that I have found to work.

1. A funny story (if humour is your thing - but avoid religious, sexual, sexist or racist jokes);
2. A video clip, but if you use one, make sure that it is less than 60 seconds;
3. Unusual statistics about your industry or about your audience;
4. A cartoon. I personally use the cartoons from Ted Goff;
5. Suspense (e.g. walk on with a cardboard box and place it in the middle of the stage - but don't tell people what it is there for).

[45] How to structure a presentation [cit. 2011-10-18]. Available from: http://www.presentationmagazine.com/presentation_structure.htm

The body of presentation

The body of presentation or the middle of a presentation is connected with the rule of three. This rule is based on the technique that people tend to remember three things.

Organize your main points and subpoints into a logical sequence, and reveal this sequence and its logic to your audience with transitions between points and between subpoints.

As a rule, lace your strongest arguments first and last, and place any weaker arguments between these stronger ones. All you now have to do is to think of ways of illustrating these points and then you have the bulk of the structure of the presentation.

The closing

The closing or the end is more important than the beginning. There is a psychological factor called recency. This is where people remember most the last thing that they are told. This particularly applies to lists.

First, review the main points in your body to help the audience remember them and to prepare the audience for your conclusion. Next, conclude by restating your main message (in more detail now that the audience has heard the body) and complementing it with any other interpretations of your findings. Finally, close the presentation by indicating elegantly and unambiguously to your audience that these are your last words.

Tips and Techniques for Great Presentations[46]

- If you have handouts, do not read straight from them. The audience does not know if they should read along with you or listen to you read.
- Do not put both hands in your pockets for long periods of time. This tends to make you look unprofessional. It is OK to put one hand in a pocket but ensure there is no loose change or keys to jingle around. This will distract the listeners.

[46] Presentations [cit. 2011-10-18]. Available from: http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadpres.html

- Do not wave a pointer around in the air like a wild knight branding a sword to slay a dragon. Use the pointer for what it is intended and then put it down, otherwise the audience will become fixated upon your “sword”, instead upon you.
- Do not lean on the podium for long periods. The audience will begin to wonder when you are going to fall over.
- Speak to the audience...NOT to the visual aids, such as flip charts or overheads. Also, do not stand between the visual aid and the audience.
- Speak clearly and loudly enough for all to hear. Do not speak in a monotone voice. Use inflection to emphasize your main points.
- The disadvantages of presentations is that people cannot see the punctuation and this can lead to misunderstandings. An effective way of overcoming this problem is to pause at the time when there would normally be punctuation marks.
- Use coloured backgrounds on overhead transparencies and slides (such as yellow) as the bright white light can be harsh on the eyes. This will quickly cause your audience to tire. If all of your transparencies or slides have clear backgrounds, then tape one blank yellow one on the overhead face. For slides, use a rubber band to hold a piece of coloured cellophane over the projector lens.
- Learn the name of each participant as quickly as possible. Based upon the atmosphere you want to create, call them by their first names or by using Mr., Mrs., Miss, Ms.
- Tell them what name and title you prefer to be called.
- Listen intently to comments and opinions. By using a *lateral thinking technique* (adding to ideas rather than dismissing them), the audience will feel that their ideas, comments, and opinions are worthwhile.
- Circulate around the room as you speak. This movement creates a physical closeness to the audience.
- List and discuss your objectives at the beginning of the presentation. Let the audience know how your presentation fits in with their goals. Discuss some of the fears and apprehensions that both you and the audience might have. Tell them what they should expect of you and how you will contribute to their goals.
- Vary your techniques (lecture, discussion, debate, films, slides, reading, etc.).
- Get to the presentation before your audience arrives; be the last one to leave.
- Be prepared to use an alternate approach if the one you've chosen seems to bog down. You should be confident enough with your own material so that the audience’s

interests and concerns, not the presentation outline, determines the format. Use your background, experience, and knowledge to interrelate your subject matter.

- When writing on flip charts use no more than 7 lines of text per page and no more than 7 word per line (the 7 x 7 rule). Also, use bright and bold colours, and pictures as well as text.
- Consider the time of day and how long you have got for your talk. Time of day can affect the audience. After lunch is known as the graveyard section in training circles as audiences will feel more like a nap than listening to a talk.
- Most people find that if they practice in their head, the actual talk will take about 25 per cent longer. Using a flip chart or other visual aids also adds to the time. Remember — **it is better to finish slightly early than to overrun.**

5.3 Coping with stage fright

You've worked hard to develop your presentation. Now it's time to deliver it and you're nervous. Most people who have to speak in public experience "stage fright". Everyone experiences stage fright, podium panic, speech anxiety, or talking terror. Surveys show that fear of speaking in front of groups is one of the greatest fears people have. Some surveys find people actually claiming that the thought of giving a speech is more frightening than falling off a cliff, financial difficulties, snakes, and even death.

The following tips will help you conquer these fears:[47, 48]

- **Relax your body and mind** before your presentation by performing deep breathing exercises. You can ease tension by doing exercises. Sit comfortable with your back straight. Breathe in slowly, hold your breath for 4 to 5 seconds, then slowly exhale. Practice other deep breathing techniques and learn to relax your facial muscles, (e.g. open your mouth and eyes wide, then close them tightly). Be yourself.

[47] Lenny Laskowski (1996): Overcoming Speaking Anxiety in Meetings & Presentations [cit. 2011-10-18] . Available from: http://www.ljlseminars.com/anxiety.htm
[48] Wertheim, E.G. (2009): Making Effective Oral Presentations [cit. 2011-10-18]. Available from: www.honors.vcu.edu

- **Visualize Yourself Speaking** - Imagine yourself walking confidently to the lectern as the audience applauds. Imagine yourself speaking, your voice loud, clear and assured. When you visualize yourself as successful, you will be successful.
- **Know the room** - become familiar with the place in which you will speak. Arrive early and walk around the room including the speaking area. Stand at the lectern, speak into the microphone. Walk around where the audience will be seated. Walk from where you will be seated to the place where you will be speaking.
- **Know the Audience** - If possible, greet some of the audience as they arrive and chat with them. It is easier to speak to a group of friends than to a group of strangers.
- **Know Your Material** - If you are not familiar with your material or are uncomfortable with it, your nervousness will increase. Practice your speech or presentation and revise it until you can present it with ease. Speak about subjects on which you are well-informed and prepared. Know your introduction, main points, and conclusion so well that you could explain them in only five sentences.
- **Speak in a conversational tone** - Try to avoid monotonous voice as well affectation.
- **Have a glass of water** nearby to keep you from getting "dry mouth".
- **Focus your mind on the audience -** not on yourself to avoid self-consciousness. Search for friendly or reassuring faces in the audience and maintain eye contact with them. Your nervous feelings will dissipate if you focus your attention away from your anxieties and concentrate on your message and your audience, not on yourself.
- **Realize People Want You To Succeed** - All audiences want speakers to be interesting, stimulating, informative and entertaining. They want you to succeed - not fail. Your audience understands your nervousness; they very often know what you are feeling and will forgive it; similarly they will forgive honest mistakes.
- **Don't apologize For Being Nervous** - Most of the time your nervousness does not show at all. If you don't say anything about it, nobody will notice. If you mention your nervousness or apologize for any problems you think you have with your speech, you'll only be calling attention to it. Had you remained silent, your listeners may not have noticed at all. Nervousness is usually invisible; most will not notice the small changes in your voice or occasional mistakes; most speakers who describe themselves as nervous appear confident and calm to the audience.
- **Gain Experience** - If the fear of public speaking causes you to prepare more, then the fear of speaking serves as it is own best antidote. Experience builds confidence, which

is the key to effective speaking. Most beginning speakers find their anxieties decrease after each speech they give. Nothing will relax you more than to know you are properly prepared. Begin in your comfort zone; practice with friends; share your fears with friends and remember, “He who fails to prepare is preparing for failure”.

The problem of stage anxiety is complex and cannot be solved by a single chapter. In this text were point out the critical elements and questions to think about. For training of your presentation you can use the next chapters “Evaluation of presentation” and “Useful phrases for presentation”.

5.4 Evaluation of presentation

Organization

When evaluating a presentation, focus on its overall organization. The speaker should have his or her points in logical order. The presenter’s thoughts must also be organized in the best way for the audience to understand. There should be a noticeable introduction, followed by clearly stated points. A successful presentation will also have a conclusion, which summarizes each point for the audience.

Content

Evaluate the content of the presentation based on expectations. The presenter should address all expected topics. In a successful presentation, the speaker shows control of the subject matter. The content is presented thoroughly and it is evident that the speaker understands the subject well. The topic should also be related to the audience for better understanding.

Speech

The vocal aspects of the presentation are important to take into consideration. A strong presenter should speak clearly and slowly enough for the audience to understand. Presentation evaluators take note of how loud or soft the presenter’s voice is. Everyone in the room should be able to hear the presenter at all times. The presenter should speak with authority over the material. Evaluators may also take note of whether the speaker is using an informal or formal style of speaking.

Delivery

Delivery of the presentation largely includes body language. The presenter should establish eye contact with the audience very early in the presentation. This establishes a connection with the audience. Eye contact also gives the presenter confidence that his audience is listening. The presenter's body language is important to establish confidence as well. A strong presenter should stand straight and not turn his back to the audience. The speaker should use natural gestures and avoid nervous fidgeting.

Visual Aids

Visual aids should work with the speech to help the audience understand the subject. Evaluators may take note of whether the visuals highlight important information and create interest. Flip charts, transparencies and films are useful visual aids. However, the presenter should be careful not to overwhelm the audience with visuals. And of course the font of the visuals should be large and readable to everyone in the room.[49]

Example of the oral-presentation evaluation form:[50, 51]

Speaker:

Topic:

Date:

To the left of each of the following statements, write a number from 1 to 5, with 5 signifying strong agreement and 1 signifying strong disagreement.

Organization and Development

( ) 1. In the introduction, the speaker tried to relate the topic to the audience's concerns.

( ) 2. In the introduction, the speaker explained the main points he or she wanted to make in the presentation.

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[49] Presentation Evaluation Checklist [cit. 2011-10-18]. Available from: http://www.ehow.com/list_7675973_presentation-evaluation-checklist.html

[50] ORAL-PRESENTATION Evaluation Form [cit. 2011-10-19]. Available from: http://bcs.bedfordstmartins.com/techcomm8e/forms/docs/oralpresentation.doc

[51] Presentation Evaluation Checklist [cit. 2011-10-18]. Available from: http://www.ehow.com/list_7675973_presentation-evaluation-checklist.html

( ) 3. In the introduction, the speaker explained the organization of the presentation.

( ) 4. Throughout the presentation, I found it easy to understand the organization of the presentation.

( ) 5. Throughout the presentation, the speaker used appropriate and sufficient evidence to clarify the subject.

( ) 6. In the conclusion, the speaker summarized the main points effectively.

( ) 7. In the conclusion, the speaker thanked the audience for their courtesy in listening.

( ) 8. In the conclusion, the speaker invited questions politely.

( ) 9. In the conclusion, the speaker answered questions effectively.

( ) 10. The speaker stayed within the stipulation time requirements.

Verbal and Physical Presence

( ) 11. The speaker used interesting, clear language to get the points across.

( ) 12. The speaker used clear and distinct enunciation.

( ) 13. The speaker seemed relaxed and poised.

( ) 14. The speaker exhibited no distracting vocal mannerisms.

( ) 15. The speaker exhibited no distracting physical mannerisms.

( ) 16. The speaker made eye contact throughout the presentation.

( ) 17. The speaker seemed to be enthusiastic throughout the presentation.

Use of Graphics

( ) 18. The speaker used presentation graphics effectively to reinforce and explain the main points.

( ) 19. The speaker used presentation graphics effectively to highlight the organization of the presentation.

( ) 20. The presentation graphics were easy to see.

( ) 21. The presentation graphics were easy to understand.

( ) 22. The presentation graphics looked correct and professional.

( ) 23. The speaker used appropriate kinds of content graphics such as tables and illustrations.

For Group Presentations

( ) 24. The group seemed well rehearsed.

( ) 25. The graphics were edited so that they looked consistent from one group member to the next.

( ) 26. The transitions from one group member to the next were smooth.

( ) 27. Each group member seemed to have done an equal amount of work in preparing and delivering the presentation.

On the other side of this sheet, answer the following two questions.

28. What did you particularly like about this presentation?

29. What would you have done differently if you had been the speaker?

5.5 Useful phrases for presentation[52,53]

The opening:

- Good morning/good afternoon ladies and gentlemen
- I'd like to welcome you all on behalf of ...
- I'd like to introduce myself. My name is ...
- Let me introduce myself. My name is ...
- I'm the Marketing Manager here.
- I'd like to say how happy I am to be here today.
- The topic of my presentation today is ...
- What I'm going to talk about today is ...
- The purpose of this presentation is ...
- This is important because ...
- My objective is to ...

The body of presentation:

- The main points I will be talking about are

  firstly ...

  secondly...

  next, finally... we're going to look at ...

[52] PRESENTATIONS [cit. 2011-10-19]. Available from: http://www.learn-english-today.com/business-english/presentations-phrases.htm

[53] Presentation phrases cit. 2011-10-19]. Available from: http://www.tolingo.com/en_c/service/business-english/presentation-phrases

- I'll start with some general information on…
- Let's start/begin with ...
- I'd like to illustrate this by showing you...
- Now let's move on to ...
- I'd like to expand on this aspect/problem/point…
- Let me elaborate on that…
- Would you like me to expand on/elaborate on that?
- I'd like to turn to something completely different…
- I'd like to digress here for a moment and just mention that …
- Let me go back to what I said earlier about ...
- I'd just like to give you some background information about…
- As you are all aware / As you all know…
- Right, let's move on to…
- This leads me to my next point, which is…
- I'd now like to look at / consider…
- Now I will pass you over to /hand over to… . Does anyone have any questions before I move on?

The closing

- I'd like to recap the main points of my presentation
  - first I covered…
  - then we talked about…
  - finally we looked at…
- I'd now like to sum up the main points which were:
- To sum up…
- So to summarise the main points of my talk…
- Just a quick recap of my main points…
- I'm going to conclude by... saying that/inviting you to/ quoting ...
- In conclusion, let me... leave you with this thought/invite you to…
- Finally, I'll be happy to answer your questions.
- Now I'd like to invite any questions you may have.
- Do you have any questions?
- Does have anyone have any questions?

- I will be happy to answer your questions now.
- If you have any questions, please don't hesitate to ask.
- If you have any further questions, I will be happy to talk to you at the end.
- I'd like to conclude by…
- That brings me to the end of my presentation, thank for listening / for your attention.
- Thank you all for listening, it was a pleasure being here today.
- Well that's it from me. Thanks very much.

6 Stress

6.1 Stress – definition and basic terms

Stress is difficult to define because it is a subjective sensation associated with varied symptoms that differ for each of us. Stress is simply a fact of nature - forces from the outside world affecting the individual. The individual responds to stress in ways that affect the individual as well as their environment.

The term stress had none of its contemporary connotations before the 1920s. It is a form of the Middle English *destresse*, derived via Old French from the Latin *stringere*, "to draw tight". It had long been in use in physics to refer to the internal distribution of a force exerted on a material body, resulting in strain. In the 1920s and 1930s, the term was occasionally being used in biological and psychological circles to refer to a mental strain, unwelcome happening, or, more medically, a harmful environmental agent that could cause illness. Walter Cannon used it in 1926 to refer to external factors that disrupted what he called homeostasis.

One of the most outstanding authors devoted to stress was Hans Selye (1907–1982), who defined stress as "the non-specific response of the body to any demand placed upon it" (in Selye, 1977). He observed that the body would respond to any external biological source of stress with a predictable biological pattern in an attempt to restore the body's internal homeostasis. Although stress became a very popular topic (not only) for psychologist and we can find in literature numerous definitions given to stress, **homeostasis** appears to lie at its core.

When we experience **distress,** excessive stress (from internal worry or external circumstance) our body reacts with so called the "fight or flight" response. The **"fight or flight response"** is our body's primitive, automatic, inborn response that prepares the body to "fight" or "flee" from perceived attack, harm or threat to our survival. The fight-or-flight response is a body's sympathetic nervous system reacting to a stressful event. The body produces larger quantities of the chemicals cortisol, adrenaline and noradrenaline, which trigger a higher heart rate, heightened muscle preparedness, sweating, and alertness - all these factors help us protect ourselves in a dangerous or challenging situation. Non-essential body functions slow down, such as our digestive and immune systems when we are in fight-or

flight response mode. All resources can then be concentrated on rapid breathing, blood flow, alertness and muscle use.[54]

Excess stress can manifest itself in a variety of emotional, behavioural, and even physical symptoms, and the symptoms of stress vary enormously among different individuals. Common symptoms often reported by those experiencing excess stress are:

- **Somatic (physical) symptoms:**
    - High blood pressure;
    - Rapid breathing;
    - Indigestion (digestive system slows down);
    - High heart rate (pulse);
    - Weaker immune system;
    - Tension in muscles;
    - Fatigue;
- **Emotional symptoms:**
    - Mood changes
    - Anger;
    - Sadness;
    - Burnout;
    - Depression;
    - Feeling of insecurity;
    - Forgetfulness;
    - Irritability;
    - Problem concentrating;
    - Restlessness;
    - Loss of enthusiasm or energy;
- **Behavioural symptoms:**
    - Food cravings;
    - Changes in eating habits (loss of appetite or overeating);
    - Accident prone;
    - Sudden angry outbursts;

[54] Stress reduction and management [cit. 2011-10-1]. Available from: http://www.mentalhelp.net/poc/view_doc.php?type=doc&id=15644

- Drug abuse;
- Alcohol abuse;
- Higher tobacco consumption;
- Social withdrawal;
- Frequent crying;
- Relationship problems.

Of course, none of these signs or symptoms means for certain that there is an elevated stress level since all of these symptoms can be caused by other medical and/or psychological conditions.

The events that provoke stress are called **stressors**, and they cover a whole range of situations - everything from outright physical danger to making a class presentation.

The most common causes of stress (stressors) are:

- Bereavement;
- Family problems;
- Financial matters;
- Illness;
- Job issues;
- Lack of time;
- Moving home;
- Relationships;
- Abortion;
- Pregnancy
- Becoming a mother or a father;
- Conflicts in the workplace;
- Driving in traffic jam;
- Fear of crime;
- Losing job;
- Miscarriage;
- Unfriendly neighbours;
- Overcrowding;
- Retirement;

- Too much noise;
- Uncertainty (awaiting health test results, academic exam results, job interview results, etc).

The most common causes of distress are:

- Excessive job demands;
- Job insecurity;
- Conflicts with colleagues and supervisors;
- Lack of training necessary to do the job;
- Making presentations in front of colleagues or clients ;
- Unproductive and time-consuming meetings;
- Commuting to work.

Psychiatrists **Holmes and Rahe** in 1967 used stressors (stressful life events) for developing a questionnaire called the **Social Readjustment Rating Scale** (SRRS). They wanted to investigate the relationship between events which can happen to us, stress and susceptibility to illness. The research and validation has supported the links between stress and illness.
We usually think of stress as a negative experience (distress), but stress can be also a positive experience (eustress).

Eustress has the following characteristics:

- Motivates, focuses energy;
- Is short-term;
- Is perceived as within our coping abilities;
- Feels exciting;
- Improves performance.

Examples of positive personal stressors include:

- Receiving a promotion or raise at work;
- Starting a new job;
- Marriage;
- Buying a home;

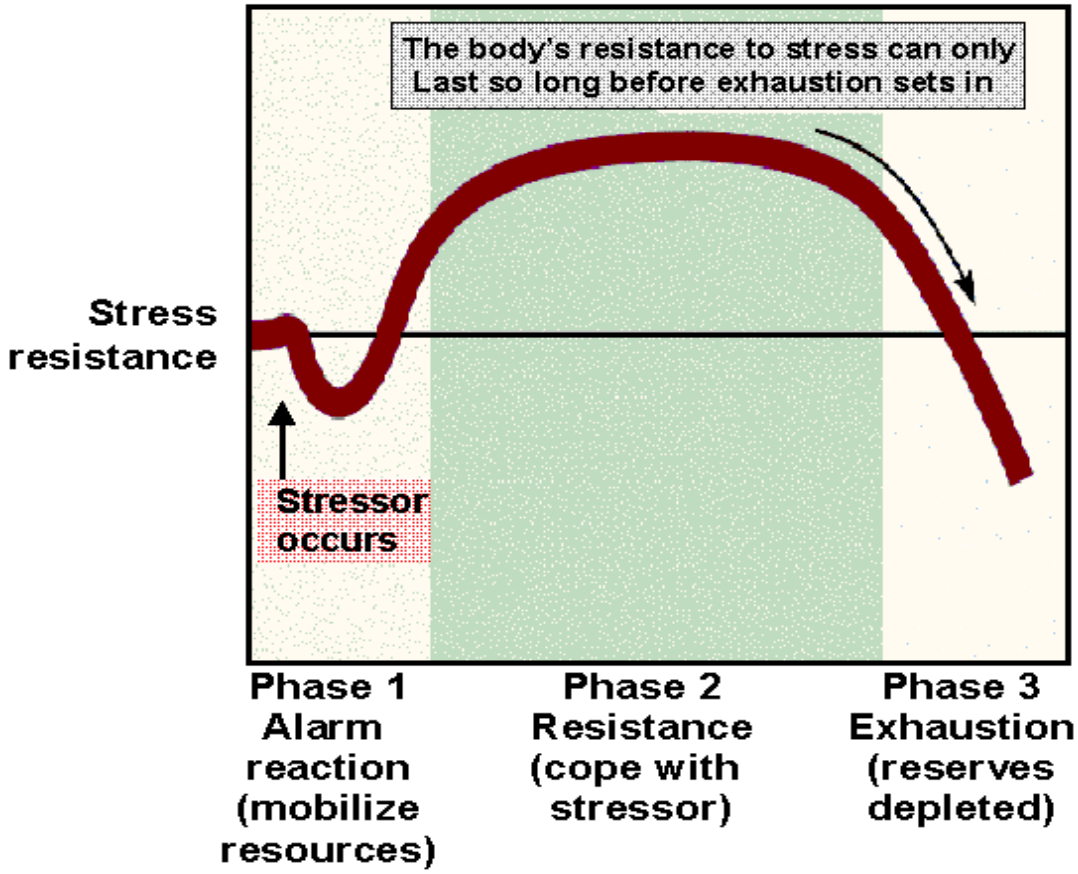
- Having a child;
- Moving;
- Taking a vacation;
- Holiday seasons;
- Retiring;
- Taking educational classes or learning a new hobby.

It is somewhat hard to categorize stressors into objective lists of those that cause eustress and those that cause distress, because different people will have different reactions to particular situations. However, by generalizing, could be compiled a list of stressors that are typically experienced as negative or positive to most people, most of the time.

6.2 General adaptation syndrome

General adaptation syndrome, or GAS, is a term used to describe the body's short-term and long-term reactions to stress. Originally described by Hans Selye (see above), an Austrian-born physician who emigrated to Canada in 1939, the general adaptation syndrome represents a three-stage reaction to stress. Selye thought that the general adaptation syndrome involved two major systems of the body, the nervous system and the endocrine (or hormonal) system. He then went on to outline what he considered as three distinctive stages in the syndrome's evolution. He called these stages the alarm reaction, the stage of resistance, and the stage of exhaustion.

General adaptation syndrome:



Source: http://www.stress-management-for-peak-performance.com/general-adaptation-syndrome.html[55]

[55] General adaptation syndrome [cit. 2011-10-2]. Available from: http://www.stress-management-for-peak-performance.com/general-adaptation-syndrome.html

Stage 1: alarm reaction

The first stage of the general adaptation stage, the alarm reaction, is the immediate reaction to a stressor. In the initial phase of stress, humans exhibit a "fight or flight" response, which originated in cavemen and which prepares the body for physical activity. The hypothalamus, adrenal and pituitary glands release additional hormones into the bloodstream in order for the body to be prepared for action. Breathing may become rapid and shallow, the liver releases additional glucose into the blood for energy and your heart rate may rise. The body can activate the alarm stage many times throughout the day in response to stressful situations. This initial response can also decrease the effectiveness of the immune system, making persons more susceptible to illness during this phase.

Stage 2: stage of resistance

This stage is also named the stage of adaptation. During this phase, if the stress continues, the body adapts to the stressors it is exposed to. Changes at many levels take place in order to reduce the effect of the stressor. During resistance, the body is reacting to continued stress and the requirement to constantly prepare for action by being alarmed. In this stage of the General Adaptation Syndrome, the body is using great stores of energy, hormones, minerals and glucose. Symptoms such as stomach problems, muscle pains, fatigues, headaches, insomnia, intestinal problems and eating issues may present.

Stage 3: stage of exhaustion

At this stage, the stress has continued for some time. The body's resistance to the stress may gradually be reduced, or may collapse quickly. Generally, this means the immune system, and the body's ability to resist disease, may be almost totally eliminated. Patients who experience long-term stress may succumb to heart attacks or severe infection due to their reduced immunity. For example, a person with a stressful job may experience long-term stress that might lead to high blood pressure and an eventual heart attack.

Generally, if the stress becomes chronic, the body enters into the final stage of the General Adaptation Syndrome - exhaustion - where physical illness can result.[56] During the exhaustion

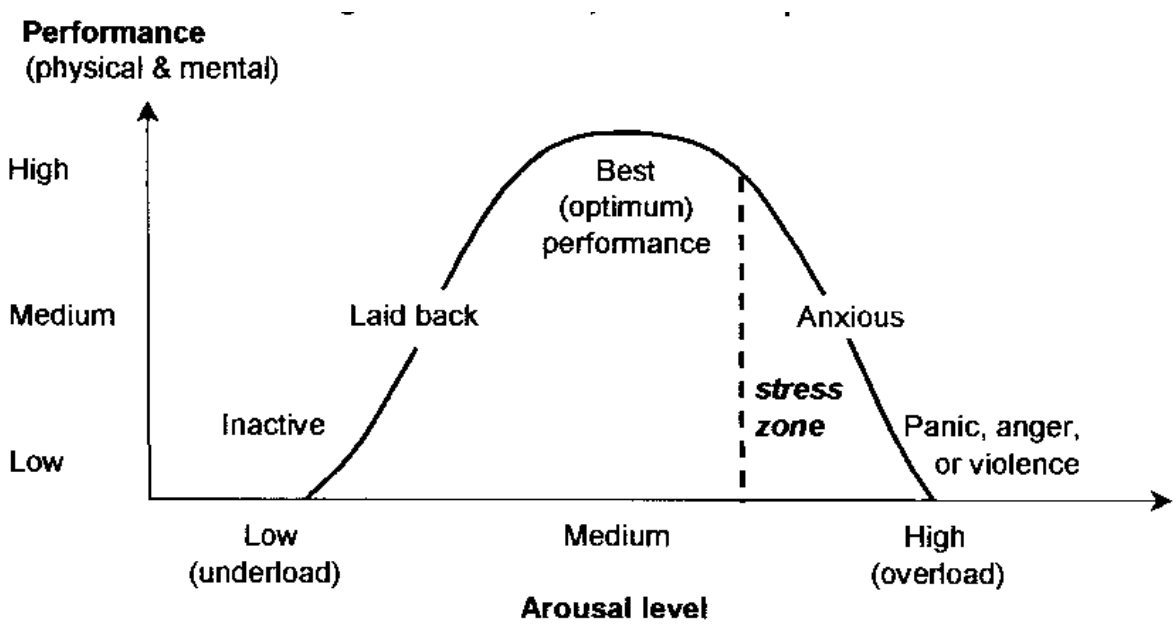
[56] Stress and General Adaptation Syndrome [cit. 2011-10-2]. Available from: http://www.suite101.com/content/stress-and-the-general-adaptation-syndrome-137507

stage, the body's immune system may become weakened or there may be damage or disease to other internal organs.[57]

6.3 Stress and performance

An individual's response to potentially stressful situations varies: the same situation (e.g. an interview, or doing a parachute jump) may induce stress in one person and be stimulating to another. For practical purposes it is less ambiguous to refer to stress as the response to overload. Too little stress is just as bad as too much stress, we need to get a balance (see picture).

Performance and arousal level:



Source: http://www.mindtools.com/stress/UnderstandStress/StressPerformance.html[58]

[57] According to Hans Selye's famous and revolutionary concept of stress hormones participate in the development of many degenerative diseases, including coronary thrombosis, brain haemorrhage, hardening of the arteries, high blood pressure and kidney failure, arthritis, peptic ulcers and even cancer. (Selye, 1977)
[58] Stress and Your Performance [cit. 2011-10-2]. Available from: http://www.mindtools.com/stress/UnderstandStress/StressPerformance.html

The relationship between pressure and performance is explained in one of the oldest and most important ideas in stress management, the "Inverted-U" relationship between pressure and performance. The Inverted-U relationship focuses on people's performance of a task.

When there is very little pressure on us to carry out an important task, there is little incentive for us to focus energy and attention on it. This is particularly the case when there may be other, more urgent, or more interesting, tasks competing for attention.

As pressure on us increases, we enter the "area of best performance". Here, we are able to focus on the task and perform well – there is enough pressure on us to focus our attention but not so much that it disrupts our performance.

As we become uncomfortably stressed, distractions, difficulties, anxieties and negative thinking begin to crowd our minds.[59] This is particularly the case where we look at our definition of stress, i.e. that it occurs when a person perceives that "demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize". These thoughts compete with performance of the task for our attentional capacity. Concentration suffers, and focus narrows as our brain becomes overloaded.

6.4 Coping with stress

Coping with stress and stress management starts with identifying the sources of stress in your life. The true sources of stress aren't always obvious, and it's all too easy to overlook your own stress-inducing thoughts, feelings, and behaviours. After the identification you can start to fight with stress. Coping methods usually include self-help, self management, relaxation, and sometimes also professional help and medication.

Self help for treating stress:[60]

Exercise - exercise has been proven to have a beneficial effect on a person's mental and physical state. For many people exercise is an extremely effective stress buster.

[59] Fear and violence in stressed populations [cit. 2011-10-2]. Available from: http://www.eoslifework.co.uk/gturmap.htm
[60] What Is Stress? How To Deal With Stress [cit. 2011-10-3]. Available from: http://www.medicalnewstoday.com/articles/145855.php

Division of labour - try to delegate your responsibilities at work, or share them. If you make yourself indispensable the likelihood of your feeling highly stressed is significantly greater.

Assertiveness – don't say 'yes' to everything. If you can't do something well, or if something is not your responsibility, try to seek ways of not agreeing to do them.

Alcohol and drugs - alcohol and drugs will not help you manage your stress better. Either stop consuming them completely, or cut down.

Caffeine - if your consumption of coffee and other drinks which contain caffeine is high, cut down.

Nutrition - eat plenty of fruit and vegetables. Make sure you have a healthy and balanced diet.

Time - make sure you set aside some time each day just for yourself. Use that time to organize your life, relax, and pursue your own interests.

Breathing - there are some effective breathing techniques which will slow down your system and help you relax.

Talk - talk to you family, friends, work colleagues and your boss. Express your thoughts and worries.

Seek professional help - if the stress is affecting the way you function; go and see your doctor. Heightened stress for prolonged periods can be bad for your physical and mental health.

Relaxation techniques - mediation, massage, or yoga have been known to greatly help people with stress.

Schultz's Autogenic Training and Jacobson's Method are the most popular and widespread relaxation techniques:

Schultz's Autogenic Training[61]

Autogenic Training has been developed by Dr. Schultz who published the first book on the subject in 1932. Dr. Schultz recognized that during hypnosis the subject experiences various feelings such as warmth and heaviness. He went on to teach practices to self induce these feelings and, consequently, hypnotic states. In its practical application, Autogenic Training is a system of very specific auto suggestive formulas that have the purpose to relieve tensions, for stress management, and to alleviate psychosomatic disturbances, including many cases of insomnia, overweight, inability to concentrate, high blood pressure, constipation, skin problems, etc. Some people use Autogenic Training as an aid to meditation, concentration, and to keep their focus.

In simple terms, autogenic training is designed to reverse the "fight or flight" stress response with its release of epinephrine and norepinephrine in the body. Since it is slightly more complex to learn than some meditative techniques, most people find that taking a course is the easiest way to learn the technique. Schulz described six autogenic "formulas" or "states" as follows:[62]

1. focus on heaviness in the arms and legs;
2. focus on warmth in the arms and legs;
3. focus on warmth and heaviness in the heart area;
4. focus on breathing;
5. focus on warmth in the abdomen.
6. focus on coolness in the forehead

The first two formulas are often broken down to focus first upon the dominant arm, followed by the other arm or the legs. For each formula one repeats a phrase, or formula, silently with closed eyes such as "my arm feels heavy". Breathing is paced slowly and the phrase is repeated five to seven times before opening the eyes and stretching. A recommended practice session is three "sets" of five to seven repetitions with breaks, for a total time of about ten minutes. Practicing the technique twice daily is also recommended. Experts recommend trying to focus upon being an "alert but passive observer" of body sensations.

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[61] Autogenic training [cit. 2011-10-3]. Available from: http://www.prplastic.com/autogenic_training.htm

[62] Autogenic training [cit. 2011-10-3]. Available from: http://www.magitech.com/futuremagick/autogenictraining/index.html

Each individual formula should be practiced for about a week, or until a satisfactory result is achieved. One then moves on to the next formula and practices it together with the previous ones. Once the technique has been mastered in practice sessions, it can be applied at will in situations of stress or difficulty.

Progressive Muscle Relaxation[63]

Progressive muscle relaxation is a technique for reducing anxiety by alternately tensing and relaxing the muscles. It was developed by American physician Edmund Jacobson in the early 1920s. It is one of the most frequently used relaxation techniques, it has many variations and abbreviated variations. In original version to learn effective differential control of muscles takes up to a year. The exercise you will learn can be mastered in a much shorter time. Its purpose is to help you learn awareness and control of very small changes in muscle tension.

To begin the tense-relax exercise, find a comfortable position. Very gently close your eyes. (A small percentage of people prefer to have their eyes open). Take a deep breath, hold it for the count of four, and then exhale slowly, letting all the tension fade away as your body begins to relax. Breathe normally with your eyes still closed. Scan your body for any signs of tension. Notice any tightness, pressure, or pain anywhere in your body. At first, this may take a minute or two, but with practice you will become aware of your tension level in just a few seconds. Then, scan to identify those areas where you are already quite relaxed.

Begin by clenching your fists (let your arms rest in your lap or at your sides. Hold them clenched for about 5 seconds, while letting the other muscles in your body remain relaxed. Notice where the tension is and how it feels. Then relax. Let go all at once, don't ease off. Now, be aware of how the muscles feel as they let go and relax more and more. This letting-go feeling is what you are most interested in - it is what's associated with relaxation and what you can learn t do more and more.

Now, pull your forearms up against your upper arms and feel the tension in your biceps. Hold that for 5 seconds or so. Then let go all at once and "tune in" those feelings of relaxation.

[63] Health Psychology [cit. 2011-10-4]. Available from: http://www.usm.maine.edu/~psy/gayton/PF/psy102/Chapter15.htm

Tighten your forehead muscles as much as you can. Hold for five seconds, noting how it feels. (Let those other muscles in your body remain relaxed.) Notice where the central focus of tension is and the adjacent muscles that are affected just by tightening the forehead. Now, release that tension and pay close attention to how the muscles feel at the various levels as they drift toward relaxation. After having been tight, the muscles let go by stages. It is these stages that you will learn to recognize and become familiar with. Once you can identify the various degrees of muscle tension-relaxation, you can duplicate the tense levels at will; it is the relaxed levels that are more difficult and that are learned through this exercise.

Now close your eyes tightly, hold for 5 seconds. Then let go and be aware of the feeling as the muscles relax more and more. With your eyes closed, roll your eyes in a large circle. BE CAREFUL; these muscles can be strained, so make the circles just large enough so you can feel the wave of tension go round and round. Then relax.

Using the same process of tensing and relaxing, go through the following: Clench your jaw; move your tongue up and down, left, right; tense your neck muscles by first tensing the muscles that move your head forward, to the right, and then to the left; try to touch your shoulders in front of you; try to touch your thighs, calves, feet.

Each time, tense and then let go and be aware of the muscles as they relax more and more. Once you have completed tensing and relaxing all muscles in the body, again take a deep breath, hold it for the count of four and release it slowly. At this point notice how your entire body feels. See if any tension that you may have noticed prior to the exercise is still present.

When you decide to end the exercise, stretch fully and then continue with your daily activity, by practicing this exercise, you can learn to recognize tension when it first begins to build (any slight change in muscle tension can be noticed), and at that time reduce it to a comfortable level.)[64]

[64] Health Psychology [cit. 2011-10-4]. Available from: http://www.usm.maine.edu/~psy/gayton/PF/psy102/Chapter15.htm

7 Conflicts

7.1 Conflict – definition and basic terms

Conflict can be defined as "an expressed struggle between at least two interdependent parties who perceive incompatible goals, scarce resources, and interference from the other party in achieving their goals" (Hocker and Wilmot, 1991). This definition emphasises "expressed struggle"[65], which means the two sides must communicate about the problem so that a conflict come into existence.

Another important idea is that conflict often involves perceptions. The two sides may only perceive that their goals, resources, and interference is incompatible with each other's. It is part of the dynamic of life that drives us into the future. But it needs to be managed constructively. When associated with violence, destruction and killing, it is no longer a healthy part of living. Violent conflict solves few problems, creates many, and breeds more unhealthy conflict to come.

For a conflict to exist, the people or groups who are involved must perceive the situation as a conflict. If no one is aware of a conflict, it is generally agreed that no conflict exists. Thus, whether a conflict exists or does not is a perception issue. Sometimes, perceived conflicts are not real. For example, a supervisor may have had an argument with his/her subordinate and consider it a "conflict". In the end, both realize that they are saying the same thing, just expressing it in different ways.

It is important to acknowledge that both parties' needs play important roles in the long-term success of most relationships, and each deserves respect and consideration. In personal relationships, a lack of understanding about differing needs can result in distance, arguments, and break-ups. In workplace conflicts, differing needs are often at the heart of bitter disputes. When you can recognize the legitimacy of conflicting needs and become willing to examine them in an environment of compassionate understanding, it opens pathways to creative problem solving, team building, and improved relationships.

Conflict has characteristics of its own, and it is possible to analyse its structure and behaviour and predict a possible conflict. When conflict is understood, it's easier to find ways to predict it, prevent it, transform it, and resolve it.

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[65] Conflicts do not have to be always "expressed" but **"invisible" (e.g. latent, potential, suppressed or internal) conflicts** play also important role (or often more important role than "visible" conflicts) in our life although it is very difficult to recognize, reveal and detect them. */author's note/*

Emotional conflict is the presence in the subconscious of different and opposing emotions relating to a situation that has recently taken place or is in the process of being unfolded, accompanied at times by a physical discomfort and in particular by tension headaches.

Group conflicts, also called group intrigues, is where social behaviour causes groups of individuals to conflict with each other. It can also refer to a conflict within these groups. This conflict is often caused by differences in social norms, values, and religion.

The five most common types of conflict used in literature:[66]

1. Man versus man: In this conflict, a person struggles against another person in some way. This is the most obvious form of conflict, when people struggle with each another. This can be in the form of arguments, conflicting desires, opposing goals, physical confrontations or emotional dilemmas. A book like *Kramer Versus Kramer* is full of conflict between a married couple in the throes of divorce and a custody battle. The characters may be the same or different genders. This type of conflict may be subcategorized into conflicts of interest and physical conflicts. For example, a story about two employees fighting for the same promotion would be a conflict of interest. A story about two warriors fighting would be a physical conflict. Stories such as the classics *Beowulf* and *Moby Dick*: show that man versus man conflicts don't always have to have two people as the conflicting characters and may be better described simply as character versus character.

2. Man versus self: The man is struggling internally with self and conflict is internal. When a character struggles with moral dilemmas, emotional challenges or desires he or she deems unsavory, the conflict is with the character's own soul or conscience. In *Sophie's Choice*, Sophie must decide which of her children to save and which of her children to sacrifice to the Nazis, a conflict of the soul. In *Crime and Punishment*, the main character struggles with his inability to forgive himself. Just because conflict is internal does not make the conflict any less compelling or exciting.

3. Man versus nature: In this conflict a man is struggling against the environment. For example, a character might have to cross a dry desert or fight a raging stream. Sometimes all

[66] Types of Conflict in Literature [cit. 2011-8-9]. Available from: http://www.life123.com/parenting/education/children-reading/types-of-conflict-in-literature.shtml

the characters in the book are the good guys and the conflict in the book is between all the people and forces of nature that are out of the characters' control. In *The Stand* and *The Andromeda Strain*, the people are pitted against viruses that rage out of control, wiping out large portions of the population.

4. Man versus society: This type of conflict occurs when the beliefs or actions of a character don't match the beliefs or actions of the society; the conflict takes place between that character and society. An example is found in the movie *Idiocracy*, in which the main character is smart and has to deal with life in a world of people with incredibly low intelligence. One example of conflict between society and the main character is *Animal Farm* by George Orwell. The main conflict in this story is between the exploited classes and the segment of society that exploits the main characters. *Animal Farm* is usually seen as an analogy to the revolution in Russia and the developments thereafter. The revolution in Russia was directed against a social structure comprising a peasantry with few rights at the bottom and an aristocracy at the top, ruled by an absolutist monarch mostly concerned with maintaining the privileges of the aristocracy on which his own authority was dependent.) The conflict between the character and society is reflected through literary metaphor. The action of this novel starts when the oldest pig on the farm, Old Major, calls all animals to a secret meeting. He tells them about his dream of a revolution against the cruel Mr. Jones. Three days later Major dies, but the speech gives the more intelligent animals a new outlook on life.

5. Man versus supernatural or technology: This type of conflict is usually found in specific genres of literary style, such as fantasy, science fiction, horror and supernatural books. When the character comes up against ghost, poltergeists, vampires, UFOs, genies, voodoo and other forms of magic, robots, aliens, divine forces or supernatural villains. Bram Stroker's classic, *Dracula*, is an example of man versus supernatural conflict.

7.2 The phases of conflict

Conflicts move through 5 general phases:[67]

- Possibilities/Causes
- Detection/recognition
- Coping
- Manifestations
- Results

Phase 1: Possibilities and causes

In the first phase, we identify 3 key areas from which conflict can emerge. Communication is one such area as it is the means through which people interact, exchange information and relate with one another. Communication takes place whenever two or more human beings come into contact with each another and express their ideas, thoughts and feelings. The purpose of the communication is to understand.

Another important factor is situation or relationship, both interpersonal and group. Interpersonal situations of conflict are dependent on relationships between the people concerned, differences in position/power between people/groups and the different tasks/roles of each person/group. Understanding the dynamics of power gives us an understanding of the structure. It is present in everything we do and in every relationship, whether we realize it or not, and can be either productive or destructive.

Lastly a person's worldview is dependent on his/her beliefs, attitudes or values based on culture/personality/life experience. This must be respected, otherwise, it can become a cause of conflict.

[67] Understanding conflict [cit. 2011-10-10]. Available from: http://www.unescap.org/esid/hds/pubs/2286/s2.pdf

Phase 2: Detection and Perception

The second phase is the perception that there is indeed conflict. That is, how the conflict is viewed, and whether it is a perceived or a felt conflict. A conflict only exists if two individuals/groups are aware (perceive) that there is a conflict. There may be situations where one, or both person/s, may perceive that there is a conflict, but later realize that this is a misunderstanding and that the two "conflicting" individuals are stating the same thing in different words. In other instances, both individuals may perceive and recognize that there is a "conflict". Two friends might, for example, like to have heated arguments about which working procedure is better. Once a conflict is felt it tends to come out in the open and may lead to frustration and hostility.

Phase 3: Coping

The third phase of conflict concerns dealing with the actual conflict. Simply speaking, this refers to the attempts made by people to cope with and manage conflict. This is the stage where people's perceived or felt conflict translates into actions. The way people handle conflict may be a conscious or unconscious decision. It is important to realize that although there are different styles, not all styles are appropriate for handling any/all situations. The following categories have been identified: competing, collaborating, compromising, avoiding and accommodating (Thomas and Kilmann, 1974). There is no one correct method to handle a conflict. The method emerges depending on the situation and the people involved. However, coping styles fall between the following two dimensions: cooperativeness and assertiveness.

Phase 4: Manifestations

The fourth stage of the conflict process model deals with people's behaviour towards a conflict.

In a conflict situation, this is the first time that the conflict becomes visible. The behaviour of the conflicting groups can be measured along the following scale (Robbins, 1974 in McKenna, 2000):

1. No conflict
2. Minor disagreements or misunderstandings
3. Overt questioning or challenging
4. Threats and ultimatums
5. Aggressive physical attack

6. Overt efforts to destroy the other party
7. Annihilatory conflict

Phase 5: Results

The fifth, and final phase, deals with the outcomes of a conflict, regardless of whether they are good or bad. As previously discussed, sometimes the conflict result is positive and at other times negative. A positive conflict result occurs when the quality of decisions is enriched, new creative solutions found, and both people or groups have their needs met, are more effective, and may even have a stronger relationship. A negative conflict result is one in which communication breaks down and a solution cannot be reached, or one party may be facing an unacceptable loss (a "win-lose" situation). In its worst form, this kind of dysfunctional outcome can lead to violence and war.

Both constructive and destructive conflict occurs in most small groups. It is very important to accentuate the constructive conflict and minimize the destructive conflict. Conflict is bound to happen, but if we use it constructively then it need not be a bad thing.

When destructive conflict is used in small groups, it is counterproductive to the long term goal. It is much like poisoning the goose that lays the golden eggs. In the case of small group communication, destructive conflict creates hostility between the members. This poisons group synergy and the results, the golden eggs if you will, either cease being produced or are at least inferior in quality.

Using constructive conflict within small groups has the opposite effect. It is much like nourishing the goose so that it continues to produce the golden eggs, golden eggs which may be even better than what the unnourished goose could have produced. In this sense, bringing up problems and alternative solutions while still valuing others in small groups allows the group to work forward.

7.3 Coping with conflicts

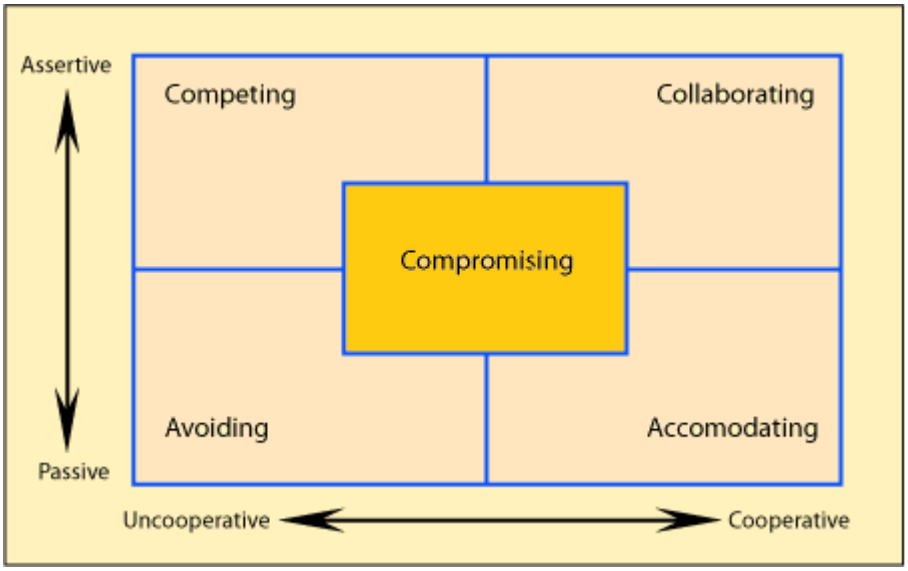
Five basic ways of solving of conflict were identified by Thomas and Kilmann in 1974. His tool was designed to measure an individual's behaviour in situations of conflict. Conflict situations are events that involve two individuals who are believed to be incompatible.

In such situations, Thomas and Kilmann described an individual's behaviour along two basic dimensions:

1. **assertiveness,** the extent to which the person attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns;
2. **cooperativeness,** the extent to which the person attempts to satisfy the other person's concerns.

These basic dimensions of conflict are divided into five modes of responding to the situation (see picture):

The Thomas Kilmann conflict mode instrument:



Source: http://kilmanndiagnostics.com/tki.html[68]

1. **Competing:** The individual is uncooperative and assertive thus pursuing his or her personal concerns at the other individual's expense. This is a power-oriented mode in which you use whatever power seems appropriate to win your own position - your ability to argue, your rank, or economic sanctions. Competing means "standing up for your rights", defending a position which you believe is correct, or simply trying to win. The goal of this style is "to win".
2. **Accommodating:** This style is the complete opposite of competing. The individual is cooperative and unassertive thus neglecting his or her own concerns in favour of the other person's concerns. When the individual neglects his own concerns to satisfy the

[68] Thomas Kilmann conflict mode instrument [cit. 2011-10-11]. Available from: http://kilmanndiagnostics.com/tki.html

concerns of the other person; there is an element of self-sacrifice in this mode. It might take the form of selfless generosity or charity, obeying another person's order when you would prefer not to, or yielding to another's point of view. The goal of this style is "to yield".

3. **Avoiding:** The individual is uncooperative and unassertive thus pursing no goals or concerns. The person neither pursues his own concerns nor those of the other individual. Thus he does not deal with the conflict. Avoiding might take the form of diplomatically sidestepping an issue, postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. The goal of this style is "to delay".
4. **Collaborating:** The individual is both cooperative and assertive thus attempting work with others in an effort to determine a solution that is in his or her best interests. This style is complete opposite of avoiding. Collaborating involves an attempt to work with others to find some solution that fully satisfies their concerns. It means digging into an issue to pinpoint the underlying needs and wants of the two individuals. Collaborating between two persons might take the form of exploring a disagreement to learn from each other's insights or trying to find a creative solution to an interpersonal problem. The goal of this style is "to find a win-win solution".
5. **Compromising:** The individual is cooperative and assertive in moderation thus attempting to address everyone's concerns in a manner that is accommodating to all. The objective is to find some expedient, mutually acceptable solution that partially satisfies both parties. It falls intermediate between competing and collaborating. Compromising gives up more than competing but less than accommodating. Likewise, it addresses an issue more directly than avoiding, but does not explore it in as much depth as collaborating. In some situations, compromising might mean splitting the difference between the two positions, exchanging concessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground solution. The goal of this style is "to find a middle ground".

Each of us is capable of using all five conflict-handling modes: none of us can be characterized as having a single rigid style of dealing with conflict. However, any given individual uses some modes better than others and therefore, tends to rely upon those modes more heavily than others, whether because of temperament or practice.

Each of these is the strategy of choice for **certain situations:**

Example of useful usage of competing:[69]

- Quick, decisive action is vita, e.g., emergencies.
- On important issues where unpopular courses of action need implementing - e.g., cost cutting, enforcing unpopular rules, discipline.
- On issues vital to group welfare when you know you're right.
- To protect yourself against people who take advantage of noncompetitive behaviour.

Example of useful usage of accommodating:

- The issue is much more important to the other person than to you, and as a goodwill gesture to help maintain a cooperative relationship;
- To build up social credits for later issues which are important to you;
- Continued competition would only damage your cause-when you are outmatched and losing.
- Preserving harmony and avoiding disruption are especially important. This is courting behaviour.
- You realize that you are wrong and you want to show that you are reasonable, to be again in a better position to be heard, to learn from others.

Example of useful usage of avoiding:

- An issue is trivial, of only passing importance, or when other more important issues are pressing.
- You perceive no chance of satisfying your concerns - e.g., when you have low power or you are frustrated by something which would be very difficult to change (national policies, someone's personality structure, etc.).
- The potential damage of confronting a conflict outweighs the benefits of its resolution.
- Gathering more information outweighs the advantages of an immediate decision.
- To let people cool down-to reduce tensions to a productive level and to regain perspective and composure.
- Others are resolving the conflict more effectively.

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[69] Negotiator Conflict Resolution Styles [cit. 2011-10-11]. Available from: http://www.all-things-conflict-resolution-and-adr.com/Negotiator-Conflict-Resolution-Styles.html
Five types of conflict management [cit. 2011-10-11]. Available from: http://www.lifehack.org/articles/lifehack/five-types-of-conflict-management.html

- The issue seems tangential or symptomatic of another more basic issue.

Example of useful usage of compromising:

- Goals are moderately important, but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes.
- Each side has equal power and both are strongly committed to mutually exclusive goals (management bargaining).
- To achieve temporary settlements to complex issues.
- To arrive an expedient solution under time pressure.
- As a backup mode when collaboration or competition fails to be successful.

Example of useful usage of collaborating:

- To find an integrative solution.
- Your objective is to learn - e.g., test your own assumptions, understand the views of others.
- To merge insights from people with different perspectives on a problem.
- To gain commitment by incorporating other's concerns into a consensual decision.
- To work through hard feelings which have been interfering with an interpersonal relationship.

Conflict resolution is a range of methods of eliminating sources of conflict. The term "conflict resolution" is sometimes used interchangeably with the term dispute resolution or alternative dispute resolution. Processes of conflict resolution generally include negotiation, mediation, and diplomacy. The processes of arbitration, litigation, and formal complaint processes such as ombudsman processes, are usually described with the term dispute resolution, although some refer to them as "conflict resolution". Processes of mediation and arbitration are often referred to as alternative dispute resolution.

Conflict management refers to the long-term management of intractable conflicts. It is the label for the variety of ways by which people handle grievances - standing up for what they consider to be right and against what they consider to be wrong. Those ways include such diverse phenomena as gossip, ridicule, lynching, terrorism, warfare, feuding, genocide,

law, mediation, and avoidance. Which forms of conflict management will be used in any given situation can be somewhat predicted and explained by the social structure - or social geometry - of the case.

Conflict management is often considered to be distinct from conflict resolution. In order for actual conflict to occur, there should be an expression of exclusive patterns, and tell why the conflict was expressed the way it was. Conflict is not just about simple inaptness, but is often connected to a previous issue. The latter refers to resolving the dispute to the approval of one or both parties, whereas the former concerns an ongoing process that may never have a resolution. Neither is it considered the same as conflict transformation, which seeks to reframe the positions of the conflict parties.

A rational model of resolving conflicts:[70]

1. **Identify the problem.** Have a discussion to understand both sides of the problem. The goal at this initial stage is to say what you want and to listen to what the other person wants. Define the things that you both agree on, as well as the ideas that have caused the disagreement. It is important to listen actively to what the other is saying, use "I" statements and avoid blame.
2. **Come up with several possible solutions.** This is the brainstorming phase. Drawing on the points that you both agree on and your shared goals, generate a list of as many ideas as you can for solving the problem, regardless of how feasible they might be. Aim toward quantity of ideas rather than quality during this phase, and let creativity be your guide.
3. **Evaluate all alternative solutions.** Now go through the list of alternative solutions to the problem, one by one. Consider the pros and cons of the remaining solutions until the list is narrowed down to one or two of the best ways of handling the problem. It is important for each person to be honest in this phase. The solutions might not be ideal for either person and may involve compromise.

[70] Interpersonal conflict and effective communication [cit. 2011-8-12]. Available from: http://www.drbalternatives.com/articles/cc2.html

4. **Decide on the best solution.** Select the solution that seems mutually acceptable, even if it is not perfect for either party. As long as it seems fair and there is a mutual commitment to work with the decision, the conflict has a chance for resolution.
5. **Implement the solution**. It is important to agree on the details of what each party must do, who is responsible for implementing various parts of the agreement, and what to do in case the agreement starts to break down.
6. **Continue to evaluate the solution.** Conflict resolutions should be seen as works in progress. Make it a point to ask the other person from time to time how things are going. Something unexpected might have come up or some aspect of the problem may have been overlooked. Your decisions should be seen as open to revision, as long as the revisions are agreed upon mutually.

Commonly identified **skills for successful coping with conflicts:**[71]

- **Reflection:** The use of reflective thinking or reasoning through which we deepen our understanding of ourselves, and connectivity with others and to the living earth.
- **Critical thinking and analysis:** The ability to approach issues with an open but critical mind; knowing how to research, question, evaluate and interpret evidence; ability to recognize and challenge prejudices and unwarranted claims as well as to change opinions in the face of evidence and rational arguments.
- **Decision-making:** The ability to analyze problems, develop alternative solutions, analyze alternative solutions considering advantages and disadvantages, and having arrived at the preferred decision, ability to prepare a plan for implementation of the decision.
- **Imagination:** Creating and imagining new paradigms and new preferred ways of living and relating.
- **Communication:** Listening attentively and with empathy, as well as, the ability to express ideas and needs clearly.
- **Conflict negotiation:** The ability to analyze conflicts in an objective and systematic way, and to suggest a range of non-violent solutions. Conflict

[71] Understanding conflict [cit. 2011-10-12]. Available from: http://www.unescap.org/esid/hds/pubs/2286/s2.pdf

resolution skills include appropriate assertiveness and collaborative problem solving. Communication skills are an important foundation in conflict negotiation.

- **Group building:** Working cooperatively with one another in order to achieve common goals. (Cooperation and group building are facilitated by mutual affirmation and encouragement by the members. The assumption is that everyone has something to contribute, everyone is part of the solution).

7.4 Mediation

Mediation is an informal and confidential way for people to resolve disputes with the help of a neutral mediator who is trained to help people discuss their differences. The **mediator** does not decide who is right or wrong or issue a decision. Instead, the mediator helps the parties work out their own solutions to problems.

In mediation, two or more people come together to try to work out a solution to their problem. A neutral third person, called the mediator, is there to help them along. Most mediators have some training in conflict resolution, although the extent of their training varies greatly. Unlike a judge or an arbitrator, the mediator does not take sides or make decisions. The mediator's job is to help the disputants evaluate their goals and options and find their own mutually satisfactory solution.

Most civil (non-criminal) disputes can be mediated, including those involving contracts, leases, small business ownership, employment, and divorce. Nonviolent criminal matters, such as claims of verbal or other personal harassment, can also be successfully mediated.

Mediation is forward-looking; the goal is for all parties to work out a solution they can live with and trust. It focuses on solving problems, not uncovering the truth or imposing legal rules. This, of course, is a far different approach than courts take. In court, a judge or jury looks back to determine who was right and who was wrong, then imposes a penalty or award based on its decision. Because the mediator has no authority to impose a decision, nothing will be decided unless both parties agree to it. Knowing that no result can be imposed from above greatly reduces the tension of all parties - and it also reduces the likelihood that someone will cling to an extreme position. Also, if mediation does not produce an agreement, either side is free to sue. Typically, neighbour-to-neighbour or other personal issues are resolved in a few hours. Negotiations between divorcing couples or small businesses often involve several half-day sessions, spread out over a month or two.

Many people think that mediation is an informal process, in which a friendly mediator chats with the disputants until they suddenly drop their hostilities and work together for the common good. In fact, mediation is a multi-stage process designed to get results. It is less formal than a trial or arbitration, but there are distinct stages to the mediation process.[72]

Stages of mediation:[73]

Stage 1: Mediator's Opening Statement. After the disputants are seated at a table, the mediator introduces everyone, explains the goals and rules of the mediation, and encourages each side to work cooperatively toward a settlement.

Stage 2: Disputants' Opening Statements. Each party is invited to describe, in his or her own words, what the dispute is about and how he or she has been affected by it, and to present some general ideas about resolving it. While one person is speaking, the other is not allowed to interrupt.

Stage 3: Joint Discussion. The mediator may try to get the parties talking directly about what was said in the opening statements. This is the time to determine what issues need to be **addressed**.

Stage 4: Private Caucuses. The private caucus is a chance for each party to meet privately with the mediator (usually in a nearby room) to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of his or her position and new ideas for settlement. The mediator may caucus with each side just once, or several times, as needed. These private meetings are considered the guts of mediation.

Stage 5: Joint Negotiation. After caucuses, the mediator may bring the parties back together to negotiate directly.

Stage 6: Closure. This is the end of the mediation. If an agreement has been reached, the mediator may put its main provisions in writing as the parties listen. The mediator may ask each side to sign the written summary of agreement or suggest they take it to lawyers for review. If the parties want to, they can write up and sign a legally binding contract. If no

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[72] Mediation [cit. 2011-10-12]. Available from: http://www.eeoc.gov/employees/mediation.cfm

[73] Mediation: The Six Stages [cit. 2011-10-12]. Available from: http://www.nolo.com/legal-encyclopedia/article-30252.html

agreement was reached, the mediator will review whatever progress has been made and advise everyone of their options, such as meeting again later, going to arbitration, or going to court.

One of the greatest benefits of mediation is that it allows people to resolve the dispute in a friendly way and in ways that meet their own unique needs. Also, a charge can be resolved faster through mediation. Mediation is fair, efficient and can help the parties avoid a lengthy investigation and litigation.

8 Interpersonal relations

Human being is a social animal; to be human is not possible without other people. The process of becoming human - called socialization - occurs in young age primarily.
Nonetheless, people influence each other constantly in a variety of different ways, so we can think about all interactions which have impact on individuals during their life in terms of socialization.

8.1 Socialization

Socialization could be defined as a predominately unconscious process by which a children or youth learn the values, beliefs, rules and regulations of society and internalize the culture in which they are born. Socialization, in fact, includes learning of three important processes:

1) **cognitive**;
2) **affective**, and
3) **evaluative**.

In other words, socialization includes the knowledge of how things are caused and the establishment of emotional links with the rest of the members of the society. Socialization, therefore, equips an individual in such a way that he can perform his duties in his society. Who are the **agents of socialization**? The agents of socialization vary from society to society. However, in most of the cases, it is the **family** which is a major socializing agent, that is, the nearest **kinsmen** are the first and the most important agents of socialization. The other groups which are socializing units in a society vary according to the complexity. Thus, in modern complex society, the important socializing agents are **educational institutions**, while in primitive societies, **clans** and **lineages** play a more important role. Socialization is a slow process.

There is no fixed time regarding the beginning and the end of this process. However, some sociologists formulated different stages of socialization. In all these stages, especially in the first three, the main socializing agent is the family. The first stage is that of a new-born child when he is not involved in the family as a whole but only with his mother. He does not recognize anyone except his mother. The time at which the second stage begins is generally after first year and ends when the infant is around three. At this stage, the child separates the role of his mother and his own. Also during this time force is used on the child, that is, he is made to learn a few basic things. The third stage extends from about fourth year to 12th to 13th year, that is, till puberty. During this time, the child becomes a member of the family as a

whole and identifies himself with the social role ascribed to him. The fourth stage begins at puberty when a child wants freedom from parental control. He has to choose a job and a partner for himself. He also learns about incest taboo.

8.2 Person Perception

- Person perception is the process of forming impressions of others.
- Perceptions of others can be influenced by a variety of factors, including physical appearance. People tend to attribute desirable characteristics such as sociable, friendly, poised, warm, competent, and well adjusted to those who are good looking. People use social schemas, organized clusters of ideas about categories of social events and people, to categorize people into types.
- Stereotyping is a normal cognitive process involving widely held social schemas that lead people to expect that others will have certain characteristics because of their membership in a specific group. Gender, ethnic, and occupational stereotypes are common.
- Person perception is a subjective process. Stereotypes may lead people to see what they expect to see and to overestimate how often they see it (illusory correlation).
- Evolutionary psychologists argue that many biases in person perception were adaptive in our ancestral past, for example, automatically categorizing others may reflect the primitive need to quickly separate friend from foe.

8.3 Stereotypes

Cognitive schemas can result in stereotypes and contribute to prejudice. **Stereotypes** are beliefs about people based on their membership in a particular group. Stereotypes can be positive, negative, or neutral. Stereotypes based on gender, ethnicity, or occupation are common in many societies. Stereotypes can contain a grain of truth, but are highly over-exaggerated. Many of them are simply a mechanism of **displacement** in which feelings of hostility or anger are directed against objects that are not the real origin of those feelings.

Stereotypes are not easily changed, for the following reasons:

- When people encounter instances that disconfirm their stereotypes of a particular group, they tend to assume that those instances are **atypical subtypes** of the group.

Example[74]: John stereotypes gay men as being unathletic. When he meets Bob, an athletic gay man, he assumes that Bob is not a typical representative of gay people.

- People's perceptions are influenced by their **expectations**.

  Example: Liz has a stereotype of elderly people as mentally unstable. When she sees an elderly woman sitting on a park bench alone, talking out loud, she thinks that the woman is talking to herself because she is unstable. Liz fails to notice that the woman is actually talking on a cell phone.

- People selectively recall instances that confirm their stereotypes and forget about disconfirming instances.

  Example: Paul has a stereotype of Latin Americans as academically unmotivated. As evidence for his belief, he cites instances when some of his Latin American classmates failed to read required class material. He fails to recall all the times his Latin American classmates did complete their assignments.

Functions of stereotypes

Stereotypes have several important functions:

- They allow people to quickly process new information about an event or person.
- They organize people's past experiences.
- They help people to meaningfully assess differences between individuals and groups.
- They help people to make predictions about other people's behavior.

Everyday Use of Stereotypes

The word *stereotype* has developed strong negative connotations for very good reasons. Negative stereotypes of different groups of people can have a terrible influence on those people's lives. However, most people do rely on stereotypes nearly every day to help them function in society. For example, say a woman has to work late and finds herself walking home alone on a dark city street. Walking toward her is a group of five young men talking loudly and roughhousing. The woman crosses the street and enters a convenience store until

[74] www.sparknotes.com/psychology/psych101/socialpsychology/section2rhtml

the young men pass, then continues on her way. Most people would say she acted prudently, even though she relied on a stereotype to guide her behavior.

Dangers: Stereotypes can lead to distortions of reality for several reasons:

- They cause people to exaggerate differences among groups.
- They lead people to focus selectively on information that agrees with the stereotype and ignore information that disagrees with it.
- They tend to make people see other groups as overly homogenous, even though people can easily see that the groups they belong to are heterogeneous.

Evolutionary Perspectives: Evolutionary psychologists have speculated that humans evolved the tendency to stereotype because it gave their ancestors an adaptive advantage. Being able to decide quickly which group a person belonged to may have had survival value, since this enabled people to distinguish between friends and enemies.

Xenophobia: Some evolutionary psychologists believe that xenophobia, the fear of strangers or people different from oneself, has genetic roots. They argue that humans are to some extent programmed by their genes to respond positively to genetically similar people and negatively to genetically different people.

8.4 Prejudice

A **prejudice** is a negative belief or feeling about a particular group of individuals. Prejudices are often passed on from one generation to the next. Prejudice is a destructive phenomenon, and it is pervasive because it serves many psychological, social, and economic functions:

- Prejudice allows people to avoid doubt and fear. Example: Rachel's parents came from a working-class background but are now wealthy business owners. Rachel might develop a dislike of the working class because she does not want to be identified with working-class people. She believes such an association would damage her claim to upper-class social status.

- Prejudice gives people scapegoats to blame in times of trouble. Example: Glen blames his unemployment on foreign nationals whom he believes are incompetent but willing to work for low wages.

- Prejudice can boost self-esteem. Example: A poor white farmer in the nineteenth-century South could feel better about his own meager existence by insisting on his superiority to African-American slaves.

- Evolutionary psychologists suggest that prejudice allows people to bond with their own group by contrasting their own groups to outsider groups. Example: Most religious and ethnic groups maintain some prejudices against other groups, which help to make their own group seem more special.

Prejudice legitimizes discrimination because it apparently justifies one group's dominance over another. Example: Pseudoscientific arguments about the mental inferiority of African Americans allowed whites to feel justified in owning slaves[75].

The "scapegoat" theory of prejudice: intergroup aggression as a result of frustration

Between 1882 and 1930 there were nearly 5,000 reported cases of lynchings in the United States. The vast majority of these involved black victims and occurred in southern states. Hovland and Sears (1940), who first brought these gruesome statistics to psychologists´ attention, noticed that there was a remarkable correspondence between the annual variation in these killing and various farming economic indicators (farming being the principal industry in the southern states): as the economy receded and times got hard so the number of lynchings increased.

What might account for this correlation of economic recession with anti-black violence? Hovland and Sears (1940) believed it was caused by frustration. Drawing upon Dollard at al´s (1939) **frustration-aggression** theory, they hypothesized that the hardships experienced in a depressed economy raised people´s level of frustration, which in turn, led to increased aggression. According to frustration-aggression theory, aggression is often not directed at the true source of the frustration (such as, the capitalist system which caused the recession), but is often diverted onto vulnerable and easily accessible targets such as members of minority groups.

Attempts to conform this so-called "scapegoat" theory of prejudice have met with mixed success. Miller and Bugelski (1948) conducted an experiment in which young men in a camp, eagerly anticipating a night on the town, were suddenly told that their evening out was

[75] http://www.sparknotes.com/psychology/psych101/socialpsychology/section2.rhtml

canceled. Before this frustrating event the men´s attitude toward two national groups were measured, and again afterwards. These attitudes became significantly less favourable after the frustration, a nice confirmation of the frustration-aggression "displacement" hypothesis since these two groups could have had no conceivable responsibility for the men´s plight. On the other hand, other experiments have yielded more equivocal, problematic results (e.g. Burnstein and McCrae, 1962; Stagner and Congdon, 1955).

It was inconsistencies like these, as well as some other conceptual and empirical difficulties, which led to the decline in the popularity of frustration-aggression theory as an explanation of prejudice (Billig, 1976; Brown, 1988). Perhaps the most serious of these problems was the consistent finding that **absolute level** of hardships and frustration often seemed to be less potent instigators of aggression than a sense of **relative deprivation**.

(Hewstone, Stroebe, Stephenson, 1996: 533)

Targets of prejudice and discrimination

Human beings are remarkably versatile in being able to make almost any social group a target of prejudice. However, certain groups are the enduring victims of prejudice because they are formed by social categorization that are vivid, omnipresent and socially functional, and the target groups themselves occupy low power positions in society. These groups are those based on **race**, **ethnicity**, **sex**, **age**, **sexual preference**, and **physical and mental health**. "Research shows that of these, sex, race, and age are the most prevalent bases for stereotyping (Mackie, Hamilton, Susskind & Rosselli, 1996)". (Hogg, Vaughan, 2008: 353)

Sexism

Almost all research on sexism focuses on prejudice and discrimination against women. This is because women have historically suffered most as the victims of sexism – primarily because of their low power position relative to men in business, government and employment.

Research on **sex stereotypes** has revealed that both men and women believe that men are competent and independent, and women are warm and expressive; as Fiske (1998, p. 377) puts it: "The typical woman is seen as nice but incompetent, the typical man as competent but maybe not so nice." These beliefs have substantial cross-cultural generality: they prevail in Europe, North and South America, Australia and parts of the Middle East (Deaux, 1985). These are really consensual social stereotypes (Hogg, Vaughan, 2008: 353).

Behaviour and roles: Might sex stereotypes accurately reflect sex differences in personality and behaviour? Perhaps men and women really have different personalities? Bakan (1966), for example, has argued that men are more **agentic** (i.e. action-oriented) than women, and women are more **communal** than men (see also Williams, 1984). This is a complicated issue. Traditionally, men and women have occupied different **sexual roles** in society (man pursue full-time out-of-home job, while females are "home-makers"), and roles constrain behaviour in line with role requirements. Sex differences, if they do exist, may simply reflect roles not sex, and role assignment may be determined and perpetuated by the social group that has more power (in most cases, men). An alternative argument might be that there are intrinsic personality differences between men and women that suit the sexes to different roles: that is, there is a biological imperative behind role assignment. This is a debate that can be, and is, highly politicized.

Social psychological research indicates that there are a small number of systematic differences between the sexes, but that they are not very diagnostic: in other words, knowing someone´s position on one of these dimensions is not a reliable predictor of that person´s sex (Parsons, Adler & Meece, 1984). For example, research on male and female managers (Steinberg & Shapiro, 1982) indicated that perceived stereotypical differences were an exaggeration of minor differences. In general, sex stereotypes are more **myth** than a reflection of reality. (Hogg, Vaughan, 2008: 353)

Racism

Discrimination on the basis of race or ethnicity is responsible historically for some of the most appalling acts of mass inhumanity. While sexism is responsible for the continuing practice of **selective infanticide**, in which female babies (and foetuses) are killed, this is largely restricted to a handful of developing countries (Freed & Freed, 1989). **Genocide** is universal: in recent times it has been carried out in, for example, Germany, Iraq, Bosnia and Rwanda.

Most research on racism has focused on **anti-Black** attitudes and behaviour in the USA. Historically, White people´s stereotypes of Black in the United States are negative and reflect a general perception of rural, enslaved, manual labourers (LeVine & Campbell, 1972; Mackie, Hamilton, Susskind & Rosselli, 1996). In this respect, the stereotype is similar to that of Latino Americans but quite different from that of Asians and Jews.

Research into anti-Black attitudes in the United States documents a dramatic reduction in unfavourable attitudes since the 1930s. Much the same has occurred with respect to ethnic minorities in Britain and Western Europe.

New racism: because explicit and blatant racism is illegal and thus socially censured, it is now more difficult to find. Most people in most contexts do not behave in this way. However, racism may not only or merely have gone "underground"; it may actually have changed its form. This idea lies at the heart of a number of theories of new or modern racism. People may still be racist at heart, but in a different way – they may represent and express racism differently, perhaps more subtly (Crosby, Bromley & Saxe, 1980).

This new form of racism has been called **aversive racism** (Geartner & Dovidio, 1986), **modern racism** (McConohay, 1986), symbolic racism (Kinder & Sears, 1981) **regressive racism** (Rogers & Prentice-Dunn) and **ambivalent racism** (Hass at al., 1991). Although there are differences between these theories, they all share the view that people experience a conflict between deep-seated emotional antipathy towards **racial outgroups** and modern **egalitarian values** that exert pressure to behave in a non-prejudiced manner. For example, according to Gaertner and Dovidio´s (1986) notion of aversive racism, deep-seated racial antipathy expresses itself as overt racism when the situation is one in which egalitarian values are weak. According to Sear´s (1988) notion of symbolic racism, negative feelings about Blacks (based on early learned racial fears and stereotypes) blend with moral values embodied in the Protestant ethic to justify some anti-Black attitudes and therefore legitimize their expression (Hogg, Vaughan, 2008: 353).

Ageism

The existence of age related, or generational stereotypes is undeniable. We all have them, and they can generate expectancies and misunderstandings that are felt particularly strongly in work context.

Elderly people are generally treated as relatively worthless and powerless members of the community. They are denied many basic human rights, and their special needs go untended. Social psychologists have only recently begun systematically to investigate ageism, and much of the research has been done in the area of intergenerational communication (e.g. Fox & Giles, 1993; Harwood, Giles & Ryan, 1995; Hummert, 1990).

Young adults may consider people over 65 to be grouchy, unhealthy, unattractive, uhappy, miserly, less efficient, less socially skilled, overly self-disclosing, overly controlling, feeble,

egocentric, incompetent, abrasive, frail and vulnerable (see Noels, Gilles & Le Poire, 2003). Furthermore, the young generally have little to do with the elderly, so intergenerational encounters tend to activate **intergroup** rather than **interpersonal** perceptions, which reinforce negative stereotypes that lead to avoidance and minimization of intergenerational contact. The cycle continues and the elderly remain socially isolated and societally marginalized.

(Hogg, Vaughan, 2008: 364)

Measuring Prejudice

Researchers find it difficult to measure prejudice. One reason for this is that people differ in the type and extent of prejudice they harbor. For example, a person who makes demeaning comments about a particular ethnic group may be bigoted or just ignorant. Also, people often do not admit to being prejudiced.

People may often have implicit unconscious prejudices even when they do not have explicit prejudices. Researchers assess implicit prejudice in three ways:

- Some researchers assess attitudes that suggest prejudice, such as a strong emotional objection to affirmative action.
- Some researchers observe behavior rather than assess attitudes. People's behavior in stressful situations may be particularly useful at revealing implicit prejudice.
- Some researchers assess the unconscious associations people have about particular groups.

8.5 Ingroups and Outgroups

People's social identities depend on the groups they belong to. From a person's perspective, any group he belongs to is an **ingroup**, and any group he doesn't belong to is an **outgroup**. People generally have a lower opinion of outgroup members and a higher opinion of members of their own group. People who identify strongly with a particular group are more likely to be prejudiced against people in competing outgroups.

People tend to think that their own groups are composed of different sorts of people. At the same time, they often think that everyone in an outgroup is the same. According to the **contact hypothesis**, prejudice declines when people in an ingroup become more familiar with

the customs, norms, food, music, and attitudes of people in an outgroup. Contact with the outgroup helps people to see the diversity among its members.

Competition and Cooperation: Hostility between an ingroup and an outgroup increases when groups compete. Researchers have found that hostility between groups decreases when those groups have to cooperate in order to reach a shared goal. In such a situation, people in the two groups tend to feel that they belong to one larger group rather than two separate groups.

Reducing Prejudice: Research shows that prejudice and conflict among groups can be reduced if four conditions are met:

- The groups have equality in terms of legal status, economic opportunity, and political power.
- Authorities advocate equal rights.
- The groups have opportunities to interact formally and informally with each other.
- The groups cooperate to reach a common goal.

Kurt Lewin, one of highly respected fathers of American psychology, developed many concepts that both psychologists and the general public now take for granted, including his "field theory" that a person's behavior is determined both by that person's character and by his current environment. Lewin also did important work in the area of majority-minority relations. In the mid-1940s, the American Jewish Council (AJC) began talking with Lewin about ways to reduce anti-Semitism. Shortly before his death in 1947, Lewin became chief consultant for the AJC's Commission on Community Interrelations, a groundbreaking organization designed to combat prejudice through community intervention.[76]

8.6 Attraction

Interpersonal attraction refers to positive feelings about another person. It can take many forms, including liking, love, friendship, lust, and admiration. Many factors influence whom people are attracted to. They include physical attractiveness, proximity, similarity, and reciprocity:

[76] http://www.sparknotes.com/psychology/psych101/socialpsychology/section2.rhtml

- **Physical attractiveness:** Research shows that romantic attraction is primarily determined by physical attractiveness. In the early stages of dating, people are more attracted to partners whom they consider to be physically attractive. Men are more likely to value physical attractiveness than are women. People's perception of their own physical attractiveness also plays a role in romantic love.
- **The matching hypothesis** proposes that people tend to pick partners who are about equal in level of attractiveness to themselves.
- **Proximity:** People are more likely to become friends with people who are geographically close. One explanation for this is the mere exposure effect. The **mere exposure effect** refers to people's tendency to like novel stimuli more if they encounter them repeatedly.
- **Similarity:** People also tend to pick partners who are similar to themselves in characteristics such as age, race, religion, social class, personality, education, intelligence, and attitude. This similarity is seen not only between romantic partners but also between friends. Some researchers have suggested that similarity causes attraction. Others acknowledge that people may be more likely to have friends and partners who are similar to themselves simply because of accessibility: people are more likely to associate with people who are similar to themselves.
- **Reciprocity:** People tend to like others who reciprocate their liking.[77]

Physical attractiveness: The primary cue in evaluating others is how they look. If you are attractive, others will judge you more positively, you are more likely to have dates, and if you are female, babies will gaze longer. Recent research has also associated attractiveness with:

- some feminisation of facial features (Rhodes, Hickford & Jeffrey, 2000);
- being youthful (Buss & Kenrick, 1998; Perlini, Bertolissi & Lind, 1999);
- having a slimmer (computer-simulated) figure (Gardner & Tockerman, 1994);
- being judged as more honest (Yarmouk, 2000)
- earning more money (Hammermesh & Biddle, 1994)

"Landy and Sigall (1974) studied the last effect experimentally. Male students graded one or other of two essays of different quality, attached to which was a photograph of the supposed writer, a female student. The same essays were also rated by control participants,

[77] http://www.sparknotes.com/psychology/psych101/socialpsychology/section6.rhtml

but without any photograph. The "good" and "poor" essays were paired in turn with either an attractive photograph or a relatively unattractive photograph. Sad to relate, better grades were given to the attractive female student" (Hogg & Vaughan, 2008: 488).

Romantic Attraction: "No one will doubt that feeling sexually attracted to someone and falling in love with him or her is experienced quite differently from liking someone and developing a friendship with him or her. Many romantic relationships are, especially in the beginning, characterized by a sexual attraction that feeds feeling of **passionate love**. This experience includes a strong longing for union with the other, and is characterized by high arousal and an interplay between intense happiness and despair. Furthermore, passionate love is usually accompanied by a preoccupation with the partner and idealization of the other, and by desire to know the other, as well as the desire to be known by the other.

Basing their idea on **cognitive emotion theory**, Berscheid and Walster (1978) proposed that passionate love requires two components: first, a state of psychological **arousal**, due to either positive emotions such as sexual gratification and excitement, or negative emotions such as frustration, fear and rejection. The second component of passionate love consists of **labeling** this arousal as "passion", or "being in love". Whether such labeling occurs depends on a number o factors, including general notions about what one should feel in the case of passionate love, beliefs about what constitute appropriate partners and circumstances, knowledge about which situations produce which emotions, and self-perceptions as a romantic person" (Hewstone, Stroebe, Stephenson, 1996: 361).

Romantic Love: Many researchers focus on one particular form of attraction: romantic love. Researchers have proposed that romantic love includes two kinds of love: passionate love and compassionate love. These two kinds of love may occur together, but they do not always go hand in hand in a relationship:

- **Passionate love:** Involves absorption in another person, sexual desire, tenderness, and intense emotion.
- **Compassionate love:** Involves warmth, trust, and tolerance of another person. Compassionate love is sometimes considered to have two components: intimacy and commitment. **Intimacy** is the warm, close, sharing aspect of a relationship. **Commitment** is the intent to continue the relationship even in the face of difficulties. Researchers believe commitment is a good predictor of the stability of a relationship.

Attachment Styles: Some researchers study the influence of childhood attachment styles on adult relationships. Many researchers believe that as adults, people relate to their partners in the same way that they related to their caretakers in infancy. (See Chapter 4 for more information on attachment styles.)

Cultural Similarities and Differences: There are both similarities and differences among cultures in romantic attraction. Researchers have found that people in many different cultures place a high value on mutual attraction between partners and the kindness, intelligence, emotional stability, dependability, and good health of partners.

However, people in different cultures place a different value on romantic love within a marriage. People in individualistic cultures often believe romantic love is a prerequisite for marriage. In many collectivist cultures, people often consider it acceptable for family members or third parties to arrange marriages.

Evolutionary Perspectives: Evolutionary psychologists speculate that the tendency to be attracted to physically attractive people is adaptive. Many cultures value particular aspects of physical attractiveness, such as facial symmetry and a small waist-to-hip ratio. Evolutionary psychologists point out that facial symmetry can be an indicator of good health, since many developmental abnormalities tend to produce facial asymmetries. A small waist-to-hip ratio, which produces an "hourglass" figure, indicates high reproductive potential.

As predicted by the parental investment theory described in Chapters 2 and 12, men tend to be more interested in their partners' youthfulness and physical attractiveness. Evolutionary psychologists think that this is because these characteristics indicate that women will be able to reproduce successfully. Women, on the other hand, tend to value partners' social status, wealth, and ambition, because these are characteristics of men who can successfully provide for offspring.

8.7 Aggression

Aggression is behavior which intends to cause hurt or harm.

In psychological research on aggression, there are two basic and influential positions: One of them sees aggression as a form of behaviour which is governed by innate **instincts** or **drives**; the other sees aggression as a form of behaviour, which, like other behaviour, is

acquired through individual experience. There is also a third, intermediate position, which integrates the concept of drive and learning – the **frustration-agression hypothesis**.

1) Biological explanations

At the beginning of the twentieth century William McDougal wrote in his "Introduction to Social Psychology" (1908) that the whole spectrum of human behaviour, including hostile and aggressive behaviour, was under the control of 18 different instincts. However, the assumption that behind hostile behaviour lies a hostile **instinct** does not help to explain the occurrence of such behaviour. One concept, namely observed behaviour, is simply replaced by another, namely the assumed basic drive. It is for this reason that such simple concepts faded quickly into the backround. In the place of instinct, it was psychoanalysis on the on hand and ethology on the other that had the most influence, especially on everyday ideas about the causes of aggression.

The psychoanalytic approach: In the framework of psychoanalysis Freud first developed a conception of aggression as a servant of the "pleasure principle". Aggression was seen as a reaction to frustration experienced in the pursuit of "pleasure" or the satisfaction of **libido** (the sexual energy of the "life instinct"). After 1920, with the publication of "Beyond the Pleasure Principle", and possibly influenced by his experiences during the First World War, Freud gave up this conception of aggression in favour of **dual instinct theory**. Alongside the desire for self-preservation (the life instinct, Eros), Freud conceived a second instance (the "death instinct", Thanatos), a tendency toward death and a return to the state of the inorganic. The destructive energy associated with this second instinct must continuously be turned away from the individual, to the outside, in order to prevent self destruction. Just as sexual energy is used up and tension reduced through sexual activity, Freud assumed that aggressive behaviour diverts destructive energy and also reduces tension. This led to the idea of **catharsis**, which was important for latter research: hostile and aggressive tendencies can be expressed in non-destructive ways, such as in biting humor or fantasy, thereby diverting destructive energy and weakening the tendency toward actual aggressive behaviour.

From many reasons, the psychoanalytic instinct theory of aggression has no real influence on contemporary aggression research. However, independent perspectives generated from this theory have led to central concepts in empirical research on aggression. This can be seen in the case of the frustration-aggression hypothesis, which we consider later (Hewstone, Stroebe, Stephenson, 1996: 406).

The ethological approach: Some ethological approaches, just like psychoanalytic, approaches postulate the existence of instinctive, aggressive energy. The ethological approach to aggression accords it a special-serving function (Lorenz 1963). Aggression is an innate behavioural disposition arising from natural selection; like other dispositions – such as looking after the young – aggression increases the chances of the survival and successful conservation of species. Aggression ensures that members of the same species do not live to close to each other, but rather, disperse over a wide territory, thus developing greater resources for future generations. Fights between rivals serve to select the strongest and healthiest leaders of the herd. Through within-species aggression, a hierarchy is established within a social unit which places the best individuals in the highest ranks. The following assumptions about the occurrence of aggressive behaviour are made: within each individual there is a potential for behaviour-specific energy (i.e. aggression), which is automatically stored up. The probability and intensity of aggressive behaviour depend on the actual strength of this potential.

For each domain of behaviour there are **fixed action patterns**. These action patterns are fed not through external stimuli but by an internal, central arousal potential, and they are stimulated by this behaviour-specific energy. This stimulation requires an external "eliciting stimulus", then aggression may build up to a point where it spontaneously "explodes" without obvious external stimuli (Lorenz, 1963).

These basic assumptions were visualized in the form of a **hydraulic model** similar to continuously heated steam boiler: as pressure builds up, so steam must be continuously released. If the safety valve for releasing steam is blocked, pressure buildup is too high and steam escapes spontaneously. Lorenz and Freud agree on assumption that human aggression is inevitable. However, Lorenz draws rather different conclusions about the possibilities for controlling violence. To avoid the spontaneous explosion of the "steam boiler" in the form of uncontrolled aggression, he recommends the continual and controlled discharge of small amounts of energy through socially acceptable forms of aggression. Active, or even passive, participation in competitive sports is given as an example of acceptable form of aggression.

This assumption has been criticized and refuted by many. The familiar scenes of fights between opposing football fans, as well as the results of empirical studies, show that sporting competition often have the effect of escalating violence rather than controlling or weakening it. In general, hydraulic models of motivation or behaviour have been rejected as mistaken analogies. Thus Hinde (1960) criticized the way in which psychological or behavioural energy was confused with physical energy; the former is a hypothetical construct, while the latter has

characteristics that can actually be investigated. This mistaken analogy gives a totally false impression of the exactness of the model. Unlike the case of physical energy, there is no empirical basis to Lorenz´s idea of a spontaneous build-up of aggressive energy (Hewstone, Stroebe, Stephenson, 1996: 407).

2) The frustration-aggression hypothesis

In 1939 five authors, the so called Yale Group, published a book with the title "Frustration and Aggression", which initiated experimental research on aggression within social psychology (Dollard at al., 1939). For several decades their frustration-aggression hypothesis was the theoretical core of research in this area.

These authors rejected the concepts of specific innate instincts as drives towards aggression. Their energy model of aggression assumes that a person is motivated to act aggressively, not by innate factors, but by a drive induced by **frustration**. By frustration they mean the condition which arises when goal attainment is blocked while aggression in an action aimed at harming another organism. These two concepts are linked to the following two statements: frustration always leads to some form of aggression; and aggression is always a consequence of frustration.

Aggression is not always directed towards the cause of frustration. If, for example, a person is physically strong or socially powerful, then this frustrated individual can turn his or her aggression towards another, less dangerous person. The target of aggression can be replaced. One form of reaction can also be replaced by others. **Target substitution** and **response substitution** are forms of **displacement** of aggression. This concept, like catharsis, is borrowed from psychoanalysis: aggression, whether directed or displaced, discharges the aggressive energy produced by frustration. Through this catharsis the readiness for aggression disappears.

Immediately following the publication of the Yale Group´s book, the simple hypothesis concerning the causal relationship between frustration and aggression was questioned. Critiques argued that frustration did not always lead to aggression, and that other reactions – such as crying, fleeing or apathy – were also observed. In addition, while frustration may lead to aggression, it is not always necessary; aggression often occurs without any preceding frustration. A paid assassin, for example, often carries out his task without knowing his victim, let along being frustrated by him.

Cue-arousal theory: As an answer to the question of the causes of aggression, it is unsatisfactory to say that frustration sometimes does (and therefore sometimes does not) lead

to aggression. This "sometimes" must be incorporated into our theoretical assumptions, an it is exactly this that Berkowitz (1964, 1969, 1974) does. Between the concepts of frustration and aggression he inserts an intervening concept – that of appropriate environmental conditions (or cues) for aggression. Frustration does not immediately evoke aggression, but generates in individual a state of emotional arousal, namely **anger**. This aroused anger generates an inner readiness for aggressive behaviour. But this behaviour will only occur if there are stimulus cues in the situation which have a aggressive meaning: that is, cues which are associated with anger-releasing conditions, or simply, with anger itself. Stimuli acquire their quality of being aggressive cues through process of **classical conditioning**; in principle, any object or person can become an aggressive cue in this way.

Thus an aggressive act has two distinct sources: the aroused anger within the harm-doer, and the cues within the situation. Berkowitz and his colleagues carried out a series of experiments to test these assumptions of cue-arousal theory systematically (see Berkowitz, 1974; also Gustafson 1986). One experiment in particular aroused considerable interest, generating extensive criticisms and both successful and unsuccessful replications of what has become known as the **weapons effect**. According to Berkowitz, through experience certain objects become associated with aggression; these objects have a high value as aggressive cues. Weapons, especially revolvers, are a prime example.

Berkowitz and LePage (1967) tested exactly this hypothesis, asking: if weapons function as aggression arousing cues, do frustrated or angered people show more aggression in the presence of weapons than when they are absent or when only aggression-neutral objects are present? The subjects (male college students) had to perform a task, and had their performance evaluated by an experimental confederate. This evaluation, consisting of a number of electric shocks, was independent of the actual performance, and served the purpose of generating different strengths of aroused anger. As expected, the subjects who have received a higher number of shocks reported more anger than those who had only receive one shock. In a second phase of the experiment, the recipients of both high levels ("angered" subjects) and low levels ("non-angered" subjects) of shock had to evaluate the performance of the confederate, also be means of giving electric shocks.

At this stage the various experimental conditions were manipulated, in terms of aggression-arousing cues. In one condition, a shotgun and a revolver were placed on a near by table; the subjects were told that the weapons belonged to the confederate, and that they should pay no attention to them. In this way the weapons were associated with the opponent.

In a second condition, the same weapons were visible, but not linked to the opponent (unassociated condition). In a second condition, the same weapon

3) Aggression as learned behaviour

In the approaches sketched above, aggression is seen as the inevitable and necessary consequence of increased drive or energy, brought about by factors either within the person or in the external environment. A historically more recent view sees aggression rather as a specific form of social behaviour, which is acquired and maintained in the same way as any other form of social behaviour.

Instrumental conditioning: How is aggressive behaviour acquired? Individuals behave in particular ways in order to reach desired goals. If a child really wants that gleaming, bright-red fire-engine standing on the table, then it will go to table and get it. But the situation becomes complicated if another child is playing with the toy. Somehow this other child must be made to give up the fire-engine. One possibility is direct: simply grab the toy. Different consequences can ensue from this behaviour. If the aggressive bahaviour is successful (with the result it is seen as a useful way of obtaining an attractive object), then the child will use the same means in other, comparable situations. By means of **positive reinforcement**, the tendency to behave aggressively will be strengthened. Indeed, it has been shown that people acquire different forms of aggressive behaviour through this process of instrumental conditioning. Quite different forms of positive reinforcement can be effective in this way: receiving attractive objects like toys, money or sweets (Walters and Brown, 1963); winning social approach or increased status (Green and Stonner, 1971); and avoiding pain (Patterson, Littman and Bricker, 1967).

Social modeling: In order to generate rewarding experiences through behaviour, the individual must know not only how to behave in the required way, but also how to use the behaviour in this way. Bandura (1973) proposed that the first step towards acquiring a new form of aggressive behaviour was the process of **modeling**: individuals acquire new and more complex forms of behaviour by observing this behaviour and its consequences in other people - or models. A typical experiment on modeling was carried out by Bandura, Ross and Ross (1961, 1963), in which children observed an adult playing with some toys. This adult showed very unusual, and for the children quite new, behaviour: he marched into the playroom, hit a large inflated toy (a “Bobo doll”) with a rubber hammer, and then kicked and yelled at it. Children in the control condition saw an adult who played quietly with the toys. In a second phase of the experiment, the model was either rewarded by the experimenter or experienced

no positive consequences. Then the children had a chance to play with the same toys. It was found that the children imitated the model´s behaviour when they had seen it rewarded. The effect was found whether the model was seen in real life or only observed on video. Further, either a realistic or a comic figure could serve as a model. While many studies with children emphasized the acquisition of new forms of behaviour (see Bandura 1977, Baron and Richardson, 1994), similar studies with adults have shown how a model could reduce inhibitions about behaving aggressively in certain situations (Baron, 1971; Epstein, 1966).

Violence in television: the impact of mass media models on aggression. Bandura and his co-workers planned their provocative Bobo-doll studies to test hypothesis about imitation which were derived from **social-learning theory**. These results seem directly relevant to the important general question: does the presentation of violence on television encourage viewers to act aggressively?

A series of correlational studies agree that there is a positive association between viewing violent television programmes and behaving aggressively (e.g. McCarthy et al., 1975). Of great interest here is the **direction** of this effect. To address this question, a series of three field experiments were carried out in the United States and Belgium (Leyens et al., 1975; Parke et al., 1977). Juvenile offenders were shown exciting films (with or without violence) five nights running in the hostels in which they lived. Trained observers coded the actual amount of violence shown by the boys in the course of a normal day. The boys who had viewed violent films showed more aggressive behaviour than those who had viewed non violent but still exciting films. In a subsequent laboratory experiment, the same boys were given the opportunity to give electric shocks to an opponent (actually a confederate) who had provoked them. The boys who had viewed violent films also gave more electric shocks than did those who had seen non-violent films.

(Hewstone, Stroebe, Stephenson, 1996: 533)

8.8 Altruism

Researchers refer to acts that benefit another person as (1) **prosocial behaviour**, (2) **helping behaviour** or (3) **altruistic behaviour**; these terms are used in some texts interchangeably but in others with distinctions.

The first term then refers to all acts that “are valued positively by society” (i.e. the opposite of antisocial behavior). “It is behaviour that has positive social consequences and contributes

to the physical or psychological well being of another person. It is voluntary and has the intention to benefit others" (Hogg & Vaughan 2008: 528).

The second concept, "helping behaviour", is less general term than previous one: it is intentional act that benefits another living being or group. The intention of aiding others is determining for identifying of helping behaviour. Some corporate donation to a good cause may even be driven by product image: for example, with the expectation of a long-term increase in profit. Helping may even be antisocial: for example overhelping, which involves giving help to make others look incompetent or inferior (Gilbert & Silvera 1996).

Altruism is usually understood as subcategory of helping behaviour, a special form of it – sometimes costly, that shows concern for fellow human beings and is performed without expectation of personal gain. Real altruism is selfless. If an act could stem from ulterior motive, altruism is questionable. There may also be "private rewards" associated with acting prosocially such as feeling good or being virtuous.

- Unselfish behavior and attitude towards the welfare of others.
- Intentional behaviors that benefit another person
    - Behaviours which have no obvious gain for the provider
    - Behaviours which have obvious costs for the provider (e.g. time, resources)
- Is there really altruism? Altruism is often for self-benefit e.g., power, status, reward, psychological gain.
- What matters in judging the act is the actor's intented outcomes.

Theories of Altruism

Hedonism: acts of altruism are really selfish acts that benefit the actor

- Emotional satisfaction
- Reduction of negative feelings in the actor

Reciprocal altruism: natural selection favors animals that are altruistic if the benefit to each is greater than the cost of altruism[78]

[78] http://wilderdom.com/psychology/social/introduction/Altruism.html

8.9 Gender and Gender Identity at a Glance

- Gender is our social and legal status as girls and boys, women and men.
- Gender identity is how you feel about and express your gender.
- Culture determines gender roles and what is masculine and feminine.

What does it mean to be a woman or man? Whether we are women or men is not determined just by our sex organs. Our gender includes a complex mix of beliefs, behaviors, and characteristics. How do you act, talk, and behave like a woman or man? Are you feminine or masculine, both, or neither? These are questions that help us get to the core of our gender and gender identity.

There are few easy answers when it comes to gender and gender identity, so it is normal to have questions. Here are some of the most common questions we hear about gender and gender identity. We hope our answers are helpful.

Each person has a sex, a gender, and a gender identity. These are all aspects of your sexuality. They are all about who you are, and they are all different, but related.

- Sex is biological. It includes our genetic makeup, our hormones, and our body parts, especially our sex and reproductive organs.
- Gender refers to society's expectations about how we should think and act as girls and boys, and women and men. It is our biological, social, and legal status as women and men.

Gender identity is how we feel about and express our gender and gender roles — clothing, behavior, and personal appearance. It is a feeling that we have as early as age two or three.

Gender roles

Gender roles are the way people act, what they do and say, to express being a girl or a boy, a woman or a man. These characteristics are shaped by society. Gender roles vary greatly from one culture to the next, from one ethnic group to the next, and from one social class to another. But every culture has gender roles — they all have expectations for the way women and men, girls and boys, should dress, behave, and look.

Children learn gender roles from an early age — from their parents and family, their religion, and their culture, as well as the outside world, including television, magazines, and other media. As children grow, they adopt behaviors that are rewarded by love and praise. They stop or hide behaviors that are ridiculed, shamed, or punished. This happens early in life. By age three, children have usually learned to prefer toys and clothes that are "appropriate" to their gender.[79]

[79] http://www.plannedparenthood.org/health-topics/sexual-orientation-gender/gender-gender-identity-26530.htm

9 Culture in social context

Relations of social psychology to culture are not simple. Some psychologists (by example Farr, 1996) have argued that "psychological theory and research in social psychology have been dominated by one cultural perspective – that of middle-class, largely Anglo-Saxon, America" (Hogg, Vaughan, 2008: 605). In itself this is not surprising, as so many psychologists have been middle-class, largely White Americans. There is a natural tendency for people to fail to recognise that their life is only one of many possible lives – that what may appear natural may merely be normative (Garfinkel, 1967). The problem for social psychology is that this cultural perspective is dominant- social psychology is **culture bound**, and also, to a significant extent, **culture-blind**. For example, almost all major introductory social psychology texts are American. They are very well produced and highly scholarly, but they are written by Americans and for Americans – and yet these are authoritative texts in European and other countries around the world.

Another reason why social psychologists have underemphasized culture may be the experimental method (Vaughan & Guerin, 1997). Social psychologists generally, ad with good cause, consider laboratory experiments to be the most rigorous way to establish causal theories; if social psychological processes are really universal, they should stand up to cross-cultural scrutiny. Laboratory experiments tend, by definition, to focus on the manipulation of focal variables in isolation from other variables, such as participants´ biographical and cultural backgrounds. However people **do** bring their autobiographical and cultural baggage into the laboratory –as Tajfel (1972) so eloquently put it, you simply cannot do experiments in a cultural vacuum. This is not a trivial problem. Because experiments regard culture as the unproblematic backdrop to research, this method may prevent researchers realizing that culture may itself be a variable that influences the processes being studied (Hogg, Vaughan, 2008).

Anthropologists (and partly sociologist) rather than psychologists fostered almost all research dealing with culture and behavior in the early twentieth century.

9.1 Definition of culture

When social scientists refer to culture, they are concerned with those aspects of human societies which are **learned**, rather than inherited as biological/genetic equipment. These elements of culture are **shared** by members of society and allow cooperation and

communication to take place. Culture is often perceived as a set of patterns structuring human behavior - these patterns have to be **reproduced**, it means transmitted to the next generation. Thus, culture is characterized by immense **diversity**, **variability** and **complexity**.

The concept of culture was rigorously defined by E. B. Tylor in 1860s. According to him culture is "the sum total of ideas, beliefs, values, material culture equipments and non-material aspects which man makes as a member of society". Taylor´s idea that culture is a result of human collectivity has been accepted by most anthropologists: **culture is man-made part of environment**; it is every **distinctive human way of life**.

Culture serves as "a toolbox of solutions to everyday problems". It is a bridge to the past as well as a guide to the future. One classic account puts it like this:

> Believing, with Max Weber, that man is an animal suspended in webs of significance he himself has spun, I take culture to be those webs, and the analysis of it to be therefore not an experimental science in search of law but an interpretative one in search of meaning. (Geertz 1995: 5, in: Macionis 2002 : 98)

Society´s culture represents "the form of the common context in which individuals in a society live their lives", that comprises both aspects – the beliefs, ideas and values which form the content of culture – and tangible aspects – the objects, symbols or technology which represent that context. Differentiation of culture into **material** and **non-material** is common way how to talk about components of culture.

9.2 Components of culture

More specific sociological approaches point out the **production of meanings** and the **involving of institutions** as main components of culture. Production of meanings refers to **symbols, language** (language is an important institution as well) which shapes the forms of **perceiving**, **thinking** and **classifications** of phenomena.

Institutions in general are: **roles** and **statuses**, **values** and **norms** and **all patterns of behavior** (manners, customs and folkways). Typical list of fundamental components of culture (from the point of view of social science) will probably include: (1) symbols, (2) language, (3) values and beliefs, (4) norms, (5) material culture or artifacts. However, in

everyday use it is common to name more particular institutions as art and literature, law, morality, religion, education and media (i.e. *particular complexes* made up from particular institutional components as roles, statuses, value and norms).

9.3 Symbols

"Human beings not only sense the surrounding world as other creatures do, we build a reality of meaning. In doing so, humans transform elements of the world into symbols, *anything that carries a particular meaning recognised by people who share culture*" (Macionas 2002: 130). We are so dependent on our culture´s symbols that we take them for granted. But entering an unfamiliar society also reminds us of the power of symbols; culture shock is nothing more than the inability to "read" meanings in one´s surroundings. We feel lost and isolated, unsure of how to act, and sometimes frightened – a consequence of being outside the symbolic web of culture that joins individuals in meaningful social life.

Symbolic meanings vary even within a single society: a fur coat, prized by one person as a luxurious symbol of success, may represent to another the inhuman treatment of animals. Cultural symbols also change over time. Jeans were created more than a century ago as sturdy and inexpensive clothing for workers. In the liberal political climate of the 1960s this working class aura made jeans popular among affluent students, and a decade later, jeans emerged as high-priced "status symbol". Symbols allow people to make sense of their lives, and without them human existence would be meaningless.

The study of signs and symbols is called semiotics; it suggests that meanings are never inherent in objects but are constructed around them through a series of practices.

9.4 Language

Language - the key to the world of culture – consists of symbols, spoken or written, which are culturally variable: even conventions for writing differ, as we know. Language is the major means of cultural reproduction, the process by which one generation passes culture to the next. Just as our bodies contain the genes of our ancestors, so our symbols carry our cultural heritage. Language gives us the power to gain access to centuries of accumulated wisdom.

An important question for social scientists is whether language shapes reality and, if so, to what degree? So called Sapir-Whorf hypothesis states that **people perceive the world**

through the cultural lens of language. Using different symbolic systems, a Filipino, a Turk and a Brazilian actually experience "distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached" (Sapir, 1949: 162 in Macionas 2002: 134). This hypothesis combines two principles: **linguistic determinism** (language shapes the way we think) and **linguistic relativity** (distinctions found in one language are not found in another). Whorf´s classic case studies involved the Hopi tribe, who had only one word for everything that flies – insects, planes, pilots – except birds; and the Inuit tribe, who had many different words for snow.

9.5 Values

The term 'value' has a meaning in sociology that is both similar to and yet distinct from the meaning assigned to it in everyday speech. In sociological usage, values are **group conceptions of the relative desirability of things**. Sometimes 'value' means 'price'. But the sociological concept of value is far broader.

What is the value, for illustration, of the right of every human being to dignity in comparison to the need to improve the technical aspects of education? In the U.S.A, this issue is directly involved in the desegregation of public schools and has been debated bitterly. Some attempts have been made to estimate the dollar costs of the old system of segregated schools and, more recently, estimates have been made of the costs of using both black and white children to end segregation. Most of the social costs of the two systems, however, defy statement in monetary terms and most people take their stand on the issue in terms of deeply held convictions about what is important in life.

The idea of deeply held convictions is more illustrative of the sociological concept of value than is the concept of price. In addition, there are four other aspects of the sociological concept of value. They are: (1) values exist at different levels of generality or abstraction; (2) values tend to be hierarchically arranged (3) values are explicit and implicit in varying degrees; and (4) values often are in conflict with one another.

General and specific values

Such values as democracy, freedom, and the right to dissent are stated at a very broad level of generality. Each of them pervades many aspects of life and each is anything but situationally specific. If a comprehensive list of values were prepared, a large proportion of them would be found to be very general and abstract. Values are, however, also stated in fairly specific terms.

Thus, we may define values as physical health or affluence. On more specific levels yet, we may value between symphonies or powerful automobiles. We may also value silk rather than nylon or the writing of a particular novelist rather than that of another.

Means values, ends values, and ultimate values

Values tend to be hierarchically arranged. This may be shown through use of the concepts of means values and ends values. As the words themselves imply, means values are instrumental values in that they are sought as part of the effort to achieve other values. Ends values are both more general and more important in the eyes of the groups who are doing the valuing. Thus, if health is an important value, then the maintenance of good nutrition, the securing of proper rest and the avoidance of carcinogenic and mind-destroying substances all become means to that end. The distinction between means values and ends values is a matter of logic and relates to the context of a particular discussion. When the context shifts, so also may change the definition of particular values as means values or ends values. To a narcotics agent, the avoidance of hallucinogenic substances might be defined as an end in itself requiring no further justification. To a religious person, health might not be an end in itself but only a means to the continued worship of the deity. One additional distinction may be useful that is implied in the concept of ultimate values. The concept of ultimate value is arrived at by following the same logical procedures used in distinguishing between means values and ends values, and continuing the process until it can be pursued no further. If good nutrition is sought as a means to health, health as a means to longevity, and long life to permit one to be of service to God, is there any higher or more ultimate value than service to the deity? Regardless of which way the question is answered, it is obvious that one is about to arrive at an ultimate value that can no longer be justified in terms of other values.[80]

Values conflict with one another

The examples of the right to dissent, conformity, and respect for authority as important values illustrate the point that values frequently are in conflict with one another. At least in complex societies, there is generally not just one value system but multiple, overlapping, and sometimes opposing ones. In America, for example, the problem is not that they value religious principles over personal gratification or vice versa, but that they value them both at

[80] http://www.sociologyguide.com/basic-concepts/Values.php

the same time; along with the achievement of status, the accumulation of wealth, and a host of other values. These potentially conflicting values are so pervasive that it is virtually impossible to pursue some of them without violating others. Societies probably differ in the extent to which their value systems are internally consistent and in small homogeneous societies there might be a lesser degree of contradiction than in large heterogeneous ones.

9.6 Norms

Social norms grow out of social value and both serve to differentiate human social behavior from that of other species. The significance of learning in behavior varies from species to species and is closely linked to processes of communication. Only human beings are capable of elaborate symbolic communication and of structuring their behavior in terms of abstract preferences that we have called values. Norms are the means through which values are expressed in behavior.

Norms generally are the rules and regulations that groups live by. Or perhaps because the words, rules and regulations, call to mind some kind of formal listing, we might refer to norms as the standards of behavior of a group. For while some of the appropriate standards of behavior in most societies are written down, many of them are not that formal. Many are learned, informally, in interaction with other people and are passed that way from generation to generation.

The term "norms" covers an exceedingly wide range of behaviour. Social norms are rules developed by a group of people that specify how people must, should, may, should not, and must not behave in various situations.

Some norms are defined by individual and societies as crucial to the society. For example, all members of the group are required to wear clothing and to bury their dead. Such "musts" are often labeled "mores", a term coined by the American sociologist William Graham Sumner.

Many social norms are concerned with "should"; that is, there is some pressure on the individual to conform but there is some leeway permitted also. The 'should behaviors' are what Sumner called "folk-ways"; that is, conventional ways of doing things that are not defined as crucial to the survival of either the individual or the society. The "should behaviors" in our own society include the prescriptions that people's clothes should be clean, and that death should be recognized with public funerals. A complete list of the "should behaviors" in a complex society would be virtually without end.

The word "may" in the definition of norms indicates that, in most groups, there is a wide range of behaviors in which the individual is given considerable choice. To continue the illustration, in Western countries girls may select to wear dresses or halters and jeans. Funerals may be held with or without flowers, with the casket open or closed, with or without religious participation, and so on. We have confined our examples to just two areas, but students should be able to construct their own examples from all areas of life.

The remainder of the definition, including the "should-not" and the "must-not" behaviours, probably does not require lengthy illustration because such examples are implicit in what has already been said. One should not belch in public, dump garbage in the street, run stop signs, or tell lies. One must not kill another person or have sexual intercourse with one's sister or brother.

Social norms cover almost every conceivable situation, and they vary from standards where almost complete conformity is demanded to those where there is great freedom of choice. Norms also vary in the kinds of sanctions that are attached to violation of the norms. Since norms derive from values, and since complex societies have multiple and conflicting value systems, it follows that norms frequently are in conflict also.

Taking the illustration of European sex norms, certain proscriptive norms prohibit premarital intercourse and extramarital intercourse. But many boys also have been taught that sex is good and that they should seek to "score" with girls whenever possible. Somewhat similarly, girls have been taught that promiscuous intercourse before marriage is bad; but they have also been taught that sex is acceptable within true love relationships. Members of both sexes, then, find themselves faced with conflicting demands for participation in sex and for abstinence from it. They also discover that there are sanctions associated with either course of action.

Normative conflict is also deeply involved in social change. As statistical norms come to differ too blatantly from existing prescriptive norms, new prescriptive norms give sanction to formerly prohibited behaviour and even extend it. Recent changes in the sex norms of teenage and young adult groups provide examples. The change is more apparent in communal living groups where sometimes there is an explicit ideology of sexual freedom and the assumption that sexual activities will be shared with all members of the group. In less dramatic fashion, the change is evident among couples who simply begin to live together without the formality of a marriage ceremony.

9.7 Social institutions

A social institution is a complex, integrated set of social norms organized around the preservation of a basic societal value. Obviously, the sociologist does not define institutions in the same way as does the person on the street. Lay persons are likely to use the term "institution" very loosely, for churches, hospitals, jails, and many other things as institutions. Sociologists often reserve the term "institution" to describe normative systems that operate in five basic areas of life, which may be designated as the primary institutions. (1) In determining kinship; (2) in providing for the legitimate use of power; (3) in regulating the distribution of goods and services; (4) in transmitting knowledge from one generation to the next; and (5) in regulating our relation to the supernatural. In shorthand form, or as concepts, these five basic institutions are called the family, government, economy, education and religion.

The five primary institutions are found among all human groups. They are not always as highly elaborated or as distinct from one another as in Europe or the United States, but, in rudimentary form at last, they exist everywhere. Their universality indicates that they are deeply rooted in human nature and that they are essential in the development and maintenance of orders. Sociologists operating in terms of the functionalist model society have provided the clearest explanation of the functions served by social institutions. Apparently there are certain minimum tasks that must be performed in all human groups. Unless these tasks are performed adequately, the group will cease to exist.[81]

9.8 Categorizing the concept of culture

We ought to differentiate between the use of the term in a **wide sense** and in a **narrow sense**. While the wide sense (anthropological or sociological) includes **all aspects of life** which **everybody** can acquire by socialization in their surroundings (in local communities) the meaning in the narrow sense (humanistic) only includes the **practices resulting from the effort of individuals**.

This difference is the result of two distinct origins of the concept, **ancient** and **modern**:

1) Historically, the first use of the term is ascribed to Roman senator Marcus Tullius Cicero who used the word “culture“ outside of agricultural context (treating plants) in the new meaning of “cultivation of human character”. For him and his followers this is a task of an individual human being: not everybody can achieve the highest grade of

[81] http://www.sociologyguide.com/basic-concepts/Social-Institutions.php

cultivation. Thus, speaking of culture we **evaluate the grade achieved by an individual** (the so called axiological character of culture). To be human, however, means to be committed to work at one's own character or growth. In this concept of culture "to be a cultivated person" requires an **individual** and **unnatural performance**. There is something like "a universal model of human being" (or project of Human) set up by philosophers, theologians or scientists, and its universality excludes any possible plurality of culture. Close to this meaning is the notion of civilization.

2) The second historical source of the meaning of the word is to be found in Romanticism. German poet and philosopher J. G. Herder is always mentioned as a proponent of this concept. But his approach was modern in recognizing the **diversity** of human culture. He appreciated the culture of "primitive" peoples and insisted on equality and value of all native cultures. All people are born into the culture of their group and, therefore, **all people have some specific culture**, and some manners they **take for granted** or **hold as natural**. This concept is essentially **pluralistic** and **tolerant** – there is no universal guide how to become a human being. This understanding of the concept of culture is more recent. Contemporary political thinking, attitudes or ideas based that notion are called **multiculturalism**.
3) While the first two concepts relate to forms of everyday life, the following two relate to the realm of aesthetics, i.e. to the forms of how to express one's understanding of the world and one's position (situation) in it. We talk about aesthetic symbolization with emphasis on "perceiving" [82] as an extremely important human capability and the base for social interactions.

[82] The original meaning of the word *aesthetics* (in Ancient Greek) is perceiving (cf anaesthetic).

Overview of five main concepts of culture:

<table>
<tr><td rowspan="2"></td><td>narrow concept</td><td>wide concept</td></tr>
<tr><td>Evaluating (axiological) approach (philosophy: ethics, aesthetics)</td><td>Value-neutral approach (anthropology, sociology, cultural studies)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">domain of everyday life</td><td>1) cultivation of human being</td><td>2) ways of life (“how to do things”)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">individual behavior and thinking;
acquired by individual will and by rational reasoning;
“universal” forms how to be human
artificial forms (based on self-discipline and education)</td><td>forms of behavior acquired in a group, opinions and feelings; “group specific” forms of how to be human; forms taken for granted (i.e. natural)</td></tr>
<tr><td>4) popular culture</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">realm of aesthetic communication</td><td>3) aesthetic (high) culture –art</td><td rowspan="4">creativity, accessible to everyone, group production and use;
low/mass culture or subcultures (shaping identity with use of products of culture industry) especially youth cultural styles (resistance to or subversion of dominant values)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">brilliant performances of gifted people – unique acts;
dominant (high) culture</td></tr>
<tr><td>5) cultural industry</td></tr>
<tr><td>Mass production by technical means of reproduction (media);
distraction as a purpose of consumption</td></tr>
</table>

9.9 Identity

Identity is the way we see ourselves in relation to others. Roles we take on also define our identities as they relate to our gender, ethnicity, region, nationality, family, occupational statuses, able-bodies/disabled status etc. Identities are inseparable from our place within society and how we are defined by our culture. There is, needless to say, a difference between social identity and personal identity:

1) Social identity: marks out people in relation to their social groups, being like others,
2) Personal identity: the individual as a unique being with their own set of characteristics, e.g. our names denote our uniqueness.

Much more important for social sciences is the differentiation into primary and secondary identity:

3) Primary identity is ascribed at birth, especially as gender and ethnicity and infant´s name.

- Children take an active part in the acquisition of primary identities of personhood and growing sense of self.
- **Kinship identity** is established as the nature of a child´s own family and their place within it is learned.
- **Ethnic identity** is constructed as child learns customs, beliefs and values of social group.

4) Secondary identities are acquired during secondary socialization processes.

- Major secondary identity is **occupational status** – through entering the labour market, people adopt the relevant characteristics of their occupational role.
- **Leisure and consumption-based identities** are gradually becoming as important or even more important than occupational ones. People identify themselves as football fans, ballroom dancers, antique collectors, gardeners etc.
- **National identity**: this has been enhanced in specific historical contexts, e.g. Israel vs. Palestinian, Serbian vs. Kosovan etc. Nationality remains an important secondary identity in the UK and USA for white majorities. For ethnic minorities, often, ethnic identity remains primary and they are reinforced by those who oppress or exclude them.

Culture and identitity

Social science offers explanations as to how humans learn to be separate individuals within society. During their **socialization,** a growing individual is influenced by groups in their surrounding and by the culture of those groups. Yet, the mechanism of this transmission is not clear. There is a debate between structuralists, who emphasize the imposition of culture on individuals, and interactionists and postmodernists, who describe how individuals make choices and construct their own identities. Giddens´ theory of structuration attempts to combine both perspectives. The process of socialization is still and all in wider dispute:

- **Marxist** see the dominant ruling class culture being imposed on individuals and making them falsely conscious[83].
- **Feminists** see the dominant patriarchal culture being imposed on both women and men and making them falsely conscious.
- **Functionalists** see socialization as the process of learning consensual culture which integrates society.
- **Interactionists** see socialization as a process of negotiations and labeling.

A sense of self develops as children grow up and see themselves as **separate individuals** in their families and in society. It enables us to:

- see ourselves as others see us
- imagine what it is to be someone else
- anticipate the consequences of our behaviour on others

Postmodernism has made identity an important concept by examining the ways in which individuals get their sense of self by identifying with a range of social groups based, for instance, on age, gender, social class or ethnicity.

Dominant culture and marginal culture or subcultures: Most social scientists tend to agree that societies are dominated by a single culture, while recognizing the existence of minority of subcultures which differ from the dominant culture. Postmodernism celebrates cultural diversity and sees the individual making choices about identity by joining a variety of social groups and through consumption.

[83] Falsely conscious means not seeing your true position in society, but believing the views which are imposed on you by a powerful group.

High culture: This is a culture of the elite. High culture was defined in literary terms by academics such as T. S. Eliot and F. R. Leavis, who thought it could be only appreciated by the elite minority. They feared the threat of a commercial mass culture that would destroy "real culture" and undermine the position of the elite who create and transmit it.

Mass culture: Industrialization brought about the rise the modern world. In addition to the economic features of the modern world (mass production and mass consumption) there were cultural changes. The traditional thinking of pre-modern society was replaced by scientific thinking and folk culture was replaced by mass culture. Unlike folk culture, which developed from ordinary people, mass culture is a commercial product imposed on the masses who can only choose to buy or not buy. The mass culture identified by left-wing critics in the 1930s included Hollywood films, popular music and pulp fiction.

The above mentioned defenders of high culture worked in the field of aesthetics, philosophy or theory of literature. They criticized mass culture from an elitist **right-wing** position.

Left-wing criticism has been much more influential in sociology. Marxist writers, known as the **Frankfurt school**, fled the mass society of Nazi Germany and witnessed the mass society based on mass consumption in the USA. They condemned the brutal totalitarian society in Germany but also the liberal political system of capitalist America. They argued that advertising and the mass media created a mass culture for profit, which had the effect of reinforcing the false consciousness of the working class.

Popular culture or youth cultural styles: The discussion of high and low culture use the term "culture" in the specific meaning of an aesthetic reflection of life: the very phrase "cultural industry" hides a disgust at the low aesthetic and intellectual level of mass produced artifacts. The term "popular culture", on the other hand, refers to the wide concept of culture as a way of life and those who use it often claim to protest against the dominant culture and values. If this claim of protest or subversion is valid, it is more suitable to use the term "subculture". Certain functionalist sociologists, however, point to the integrative effects of popular culture: the mass population can feel included in society by sharing such products of popular culture as soap operas and the broadcasting of "important events" like royal weddings or the Olympic Games. Popular culture might also help to include immigrants into multicultural society.

Some social scientists, especially CCCS[84], argued that groups within the working class did not always accept the dominant ideology found in mass culture. Subculture, such as youth subcultures based on styles, resisted this domination in a symbolic way (this symbolization is called "resistance through rituals"). This contrasts with Hoggart´s view that mass entertainment, often American, was destroying a warm and supportive working class culture.

Postmodernism does not just reject the existence of mass culture but also argues that the class domination that produced it has also disappeared. In a postmodern society, individuals can choose to consume whatever cultural products they want to (presumably only if they can afford it: an MP3 player may be cheap, going to the opera is not). Hoggart regretted the way in which the radio stopped the working class singing round the piano and making their own music. In postmodern societies modern technologies have encouraged people to produce as well as consume cultural products, e.g. football and music fanzines and the use of electronics to produce dance music. Thus, popular culture can become an expression of resistance to elite or powerful groups in society and, moreover, can serve as an instrument or resource for the individual construction of identity. It is not, however, only popular culture borrows from the high culture. "Home-made" or "street" popular culture is often incorporated by the "cultural industry" to remove its threat and to make money.

In conclusion, we need to emphasize that all such terms as "culture", "cultural industry", "popular culture", "mass culture", "high" and " low culture" are used by different sociologists with different meanings and that these meanings always reflect their social position and what school of thought they belong to.

9.10 Cultural changes

Acculturation is the process whereby individuals learn about the rules of behaviour characteristic of another culture. When people migrate, they find it almost impossible to avoid close contact with members of the host culture and with other immigrant cultural groups. Extended contact inevitably produces changes in behaviour and thinking among new migrants. The process of internalizing the rules of behaviour characteristic of another culture is acculturation, and when it applies to a whole group we have large-scale cultural change. However, immigrant groups have some choice about the form that these changes take – the

[84] CCCS means *Centre for Contemporary Cultural Studies*, an important sociological school which attempted to re-evaluate the working class culture.

starkest choice is between **assimilation** and **separatism**. We should note that culture change is not restricted to immigrants; it also applies to indigenous peoples. Culture change can lead to **acculturative stress**.

An acculturating individual can have **dual identities**: for example, a feeling that one is both a Mexican American and an Anglo-American (Burial, 1987), a Greek and an Australian (Rosenthal, 1987). A similar concept, **bicultural identity**, is used in research into ethnic socialization in children (see Phinney & Rotheram, 1987). Immigrants face a dilemma: will they maintain their social identity as defined by their home culture identity, or will it be defined by the host culture? How can this be resolved?

Berry and his colleagues (1986) identified four different paths to acculturation. In weighing up **home culture** (HC) and **dominant culture** (DC), immigrant can choose between:

- **integration** (maintaining HC but also relating to DC)
- **assimilation** (giving up HC and embracing DC)
- **separation** (maintaining HC and being isolated from DC)
- **marginalization** (giving up HC and failing to relate properly to DC)

Leaving aside the issue of language learning, the most popular path for immigrants is integration – it is the one that is associated with least acculturative stress. A key factor in stress reduction is the availability of a **social support network**, just as it is in dealing with the breakdown of a close relationship. However, choosing to integrate is a process that takes considerable time, and in many instances, competes with a host culture´s emphasis on assimilation (Hogg Vaughan, 2008: 627).

10 Research in social sciences

Social research is the means by which social scientist understand, explain and predict social world. This term covers a wide range of activities from theoretically driven "pure" research, to the pragmatic and varying tasks carried out by researchers in community.

As a science, social psychology has at its disposal an array of different methods for conducting empirical tests of hypothesis. There are two broad types of method, **experimental** and **non-experimental**: each has advantages and limitations.

From methodological view there are two broad approaches, that is **quantitative research** and **qualitative research**.

10.1 Research proposal

Major parts of prepared research project:

1) **Abstract:** (max 0.5 page): very briefly discuss major need/motivation for the study, major hypotheses, major contribution and major conclusions (all must be very brief).
2) **Introduction** (1-1.5 pages): Here you must make it clear to the reader what you have done throughout the study, and why should read your whole study. Actually, this intro part should be a summary of the major issues discussed in the study. Must stress the need/motivation for the study. Why this study is important? How does it improve prior studies. What has been done so far? What are their major conclusions and their major limitations. Should state your major hypotheses, major methodology used (dataset, regression analysis or logistic or what else, for which period, which countries etc). Then you should summarize your major conclusions.
3) **Critical evaluation of the financial reporting in the country you examined**: [for example, Germany] (1.5-2.5 pages): This section applies mostly to those who have analyzed data from any country except, USA. You must critically evaluate (not just describe) the financial reporting of that country (and possibly relate it to the USA, where applicable). Must prepare a table in the appendix and show major financial reporting differences (e.g. more or less conservative) between your country and USA and critically discuss the similarities and differences in this section.

4) **Theoretical framework** (2-3 pages): In this section you should develop the theoretical framework of your study. In this framework should afterword be linked with your methodology part (i.e with your regression models).
5) **Literature review, motivation and hypotheses** (max 3-4 pages): Here you should critically evaluate (not summarize) the related literature, all major studies that relate to your topic. What I suggest that you should do, is to prepare a table (insert in appendix) with the major characteristics of the related studies (such as authors, year of publication, major variables used, major models used, major results, major hypotheses, etc). Then you should critically discuss above results from table in this section.

   You should also make it very clear what the motivation/need of your study is. What researchers have done in the past, what conclusions they drew and what are their major limitations and how your study will improve these prior studies.

   It should also motivate your hypotheses. State each one separately and explain why they are important, how they are linked to your theoretical framework and what your expectations are for the results.
6) **Metodology** (2.5-4 pages):

   Here you should discuss:

   a. **Dataset and measurement of variables**, i.e. what data you used, where you found them (i.e. "Compustat" or GV, version month, year). Years examined, outliers used and why, state number or observations you used each time (for each year, for each model).

      Should also describe, define each variable used.

      By reading this part, someone should be able to collect all data from scratch and replicate your study.

   b. **Empirical Models**: Should discuss your models to be used to test the hypotheses. Should relate your models to your theoretical framework that you have already developed.
7) **Empirical results** (3-4 pages): Here you should critically evaluate your empirical results. Break results into subsections, possibly by the hypotheses you used.

   Should do:

   Critically evaluate your results (not just description).

   Compare your results - to your theoretical framework,

   - to your hypotheses and

- to the prior studies.

Must explain if your results are consistent to your hypotheses, or if not, and why?

Must compare and contrast your results to prior studies. Consistent or inconsistent and why?

8) **Conclusions and recommendations** (1 to 1.5 pages): Here you should summarize your major issues discussed in the study such as: make it clear to the reader what you have done throughout the study, should be a summary of the major issues discussed in the study. Must stress the need/motivation for the study. Why this study is important? How does it improve prior studies. What has been done so far? What are their major conclusions and their major limitations. Should state your major hypotheses, major methodology used (dataset, regression analysis or logistic or … , for which period, which countries etc). Then you should summarize your major conclusions, are they consistent to your hypotheses? You should also state the major limitations of your study, if any. Finally, you should state some recommendations for improving this study or this type of research.
9) **Bibliography**: All studies should be in Alphabetical order (last name first) (see any journal or paper that I gave you for guidance)
10) **Appendix TABLE xx**: Measurement of Variables. All variables used in the study must be described here. Should show their exact formulas. (Output from the Compustat or Global Vantage describing these variables should be attached at the end of your study) Table xx: Financial reporting systems in YOUR country vs. USA or vs. … Here you should present major financial reporting characteristics of your country vs. US or vs. any other relevant country.
11) **Table xx: Literature Review**: Here should summarize all related studies, and identify major methodological and empirical characteristics, including major hypotheses, major conclusions.
12) **Table xx: Descriptive statistics**: Here you should have the major basic statistics of your variables: i.e, means, medians, std dev, min, max, lower and highest quartile, etc Also: correlation analysis of the major x and y variables (should use Tables with results prior to taking out the outliers and then the same tables after taking out outliers. It must state number of observations in each case). For bankruptcy studies, this may not apply. Make sure that next to each year or variable should state the number of data-points used.
13) **Table xx: Empirical results**: Here you should include all your regression results.

14) **Table xx:** other info relevant to your study (see major study in your area that you replicated)
MAY add graphs etc.

10.2 Methodology – choice of research strategy

The choice of an appropriate method is determined by a range of factors to do with the nature of the hypothesis under investigation, the resources available for doing research (e.g. time, money, participants) and the ethics of the method. Confidence in the validity of a hypothesis is greatly enhanced if it has been supported a number of times by **different research teams** using **different methods**. Methodological pluralism helps to minimize the possibility that the findings is a result of a particular method, and replication by different research team helps tpo avoid **confirmation bias** – a tendency for researchers to become personally involved in their own theories to such an extent that they lose a degree of objectivity in interpreting data.

Deduction & Induction

In logic, we often refer to the two broad methods of reasoning as the **deductive** and **inductive** approaches.

Deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific. Sometimes this is informally called a "top-down" approach. We might begin with thinking up a **theory** about our topic of interest. We then narrow that down into more specific **hypotheses** that we can test. We narrow down even further when we collect **observations** to address the hypotheses. This ultimately leads us to be able to test the hypotheses with specific data - a **confirmation** (or not) of our original theories.

Inductive reasoning works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalizations and theories. Informally, we sometimes call this a "bottom up" approach (please note that it's "bottom up" and *not* "bottom**s** up" which is the kind of thing the bartender says to customers when he's trying to close for the night!). In inductive reasoning, we begin with specific observations and measures, begin to detect patterns and regularities, formulate some tentative hypotheses that we can explore, and finally end up developing some general conclusions or theories.

These two methods of reasoning have a very different "feel" to them when you're conducting research. Inductive reasoning, by its very nature, is more open-ended and exploratory, especially at the beginning. Deductive reasoning is narrower in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses. Even though a particular study may look like it's purely deductive (e.g., an experiment designed to test the hypothesized effects of some treatment on some outcome), most social research involves both inductive and deductive reasoning processes at some time in the project. In fact, it doesn't take a rocket scientist to see that we could assemble the two graphs above into a single circular one that continually cycles from theories down to observations and back up again to theories. Even in the most constrained experiment, the researchers may observe patterns in the data that lead them to develop new theories.[85]

Diagram comparing the **sequences** in inductive approach (I) and deductive approach (D):

I: **Observation → Pattern → Tentative hypothesis → Theory**

D: **Theory → Hypothesis → Observation → Confirmation**

These two approaches form foundations of two distinct methodologies**:**

Qualitative research and Quantitative research

Quantitative research is about "quantities". It is about measurement, saying how much of something there is, about explaining why something happened and perhaps predicting under what circumstances it might happen in the future. Most, though not all, quantitative research is conducted at **"macro" level**, that is, it is interested in explaining and predicting aggregate behaviour and its characteristic. Quantitative research is rooted in the scientific tradition of studies of the social world and depends on **statistical** and **mathematical** techniques. The principal form of quantitative method is the **social survey**, though experiments and "quasi experiments" are also used.

Qualitative research is conversely about the **qualities** things have. In mostly originates in a different tradition in the humanities (though many believe this does not preclude it being scientific). The important characteristic of qualitative research is that it is about interpreting

[85] http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/dedind.ph

and coming to understand the social world at a **micro-level**. Research is usually with small groups or individuals and aims to understand intentions, meanings and actions. The techniques of this approach include unstructured **in-depth interviewing**, **group interviewing** and **observation**.

10.3 Qualitative research

What is qualitative research?

Qualitative researchers are primarily concerned with practice and process rather than outcomes. That is, they focus on the process that is occurring instead of the outcome of that process. The focus is on participants' perceptions and experiences and the way they make sense of their lives.

Qualitative research, also called field research, typically involves fieldwork in which the researcher observes and records behavior and events in their natural setting. The researcher physically goes to the people, setting, or site in order to observe the subject as it normally and naturally occurs or behaves.

In a sense, you've been doing qualitative research your whole life. We do field research whenever we observe or participate in social behavior and try to understand it, whether in a college classroom, in a doctor's waiting room, or on an airplane. Whenever we report our observations to others, we are reporting our field research efforts.

Methods of data collection

- **Direct observation**: The researcher studies people in their natural environment, simply observing interactions and behaviors as an outsider, without participating.
- In-depth **interviews**: The researcher interviews participants in-depth and one-on-one. The interviewer typically has a general plan of inquiry but not a specific set of questions that must be asked in a particular order. Rather, it flows more like a conversation in which the respondent guides the direction of the interview.
- **Participation:** The researcher observes behavior by participating in the group and gaining first-hand experiences.

- **Immersion:** The researcher immerses themselves into the setting, living among the participants for months or years. The researcher "goes native" to get an in-depth and longitudinal understanding of the subject.
- **Focus group**: The researcher interviews a small group of participants at the same time. The focus groups are generally more structured and contain 10-15 participants at a time. Focus groups are used often in market research.

Strengths of qualitative research

Field research is especially effective for studying subtle nuances in attitudes and behaviors and for examining social processes over time. The main strength of this method, then, lies in the depth of understanding that it allows. Rarely is field research challenged as being "superficial."

Another advantage of qualitative research is the flexibility it permits. Researchers can modify their field research design at any time and as often as they like. Further, one is always prepared to engage in field research, whenever the occasion should arise, as there is little to no preparation needed. You could not as easily initiate a survey or conduct an experiment in this manner.

Field research can be relatively inexpensive as well. Other social scientific research methods may require expensive equipment or an extensive research staff, but field research typically can be undertaken by one researcher with a notebook and pen.

Weakness of qualitative research

Field research has several weaknesses as well. First, qualitative research is not an appropriate means for arriving at statistical descriptions of large populations. Observing casual political discussions in restaurants, for example, would not yield trustworthy estimates of future voting behaviors of the total voting population. Nevertheless, the study could provide important insights into how political attitudes are formed.

Field research also has a potential problem with reliability. Reliability can also be thought of as dependability: If you made the same measurement or observation again and again, would you get the same result? In field research, since observations and interpretations are

subjective and personal, the researcher must take pains to address this and prevent their personal opinions and feelings from biasing their results[86].

10.4 Quantitative research

Quantitative research is research that uses numerical analysis. In essence, this approach reduces the data into numbers, such as the percent of teenage mothers in Florida. The researcher knows in advance what he/she is looking for and all aspects of the study are carefully designed before the data is collected. The objective of quantitative research is to develop and employ mathematical models, theories and/or hypotheses pertaining to phenomena.

Quantitative research is generally done using scientific methods, which includes the following steps:

- Developing models, theories, and hypotheses of what the researcher expects to find.
- Developing instruments and methods for measuring the data.
- Experimental control and manipulation of variables.
- Collecting the data.
- Modeling and analyzing the data.
- Evaluating the results.

Methods of data collection

- **Surveys or questionnaires** with closed-ended questions.
- Using **secondary data** (data that someone else has collected).
- **Experiments** (with a control group and an experimental group).

Strengths of quantitative research

The greatest strength of quantitative research is that it produce quantifiable, reliable data that are usually generalizable to some larger population. Quantitative analysis also allows

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[86] http://sociology.about.com/od/Research/a/Overview-Of-Qualitative-Research-Methods.htm

researchers to test specific hypotheses, in contrast to qualitative research, which is more exploratory.

Weakness of quantitative research

The greatest weakness of the quantitative approach is that it decontextualizes human behavior in a way that removes the event from its real world setting and ignores the effects of variables that have not been included in the model. It also lacks a depth and richness of data that is present with qualitative research. Because there are so many participants using quantitative methods, it is impossible to know the details about each and every one.[87]

10.5 Selecting and Sampling

Sampling is a **more formal process of selection**, though at what point we should talk of sampling as opposed to merely selecting, is not clear-cut.
Sampling is a "search for typicality". A sample of a larger aggregation is an attempt to represent the latter in miniature, whereas a selection just implies the most suitable choice, for whatever purpose. Although sampling is more usually associated with quantitative methods, it is also an important issue in interpretative methods, even though the term is used less often there.

The term **population** in this context is statistical term that refers to a collection of persons, groups, events or things about which we wish to generalize.

Types of samples

The best sampling is probability sampling, because it increases the likelihood of obtaining samples that are representative of the population.

Probability sampling (Representative samples)

Probability samples are selected in such a way as to be representative of the population. They provide the most valid or credible results because they reflect the characteristics of the

[87] http://sociology.about.com/od/Research/a/Overview-Of-Quantitative-Research-Methods.htm

population from which they are selected (e.g., residents of a particular community, students at an elementary school, etc.). There are two types of probability samples: random and stratified.

Random sample

The term random has a very precise meaning. Each individual in the population of interest has an equal likelihood of selection. This is a very strict meaning -- you can't just collect responses on the street and have a random sample.

The assumption of an **equal chance of selection** means that sources such as a telephone book or voter registration lists are not adequate for providing a random sample of a community. In both these cases there will be a number of residents whose names are not listed. Telephone surveys get around this problem by random-digit dialing -- but that assumes that everyone in the population has a telephone. The key to random selection is that there is no bias involved in the selection of the sample. Any variation between the sample characteristics and the population characteristics is only a matter of chance.

Stratified sample

A stratified sample is a mini-reproduction of the population. Before sampling, the population is divided into characteristics of importance for the research. For example, by gender, social class, education level, religion, etc. Then the population is randomly sampled *within* each category or **stratum**. If 38% of the population is college-educated, then 38% of the sample is randomly selected from the college-educated population.

Stratified samples are as good as or better than random samples, but they require a fairly detailed advance knowledge of the population characteristics, and therefore are more difficult to construct.

Non-probability samples (Non-representative samples)

As they are not truly representative, non-probability samples are less desirable than probability samples. However, a researcher may not be able to obtain a random or stratified sample, or it may be too expensive. A researcher may not care about generalizing to a larger

population. The validity of non-probability samples can be increased by trying to approximate random selection, and by eliminating as many sources of bias as possible.

Quota sample

The defining characteristic of a quota sample is that the researcher deliberately sets the proportions of levels or strata within the sample. This is generally done to insure the inclusion of a particular segment of the population. The proportions may or may not differ dramatically from the actual proportion in the population. The researcher sets a **quota**, independent of population characteristic. Example: A researcher is interested in the attitudes of members of different religions towards the death penalty. In Iowa a random sample might miss Muslims (because there are not many in that state). To be sure of their inclusion, a researcher could set a quota of 3% Muslim for the sample. However, the sample will no longer be representative of the actual proportions in the population. This may limit generalizing to the state population. But the quota will guarantee that the views of Muslims are represented in the survey.

Purposive sample

A purposive sample is a non-representative subset of some larger population, and is constructed to serve a very specific need or purpose. A researcher may have a specific group in mind, such as high level business executives. It may not be possible to specify the population - they would not all be known, and access will be difficult. The researcher will attempt to zero in on the target group, interviewing whoever is available.

A subset of a purposive sample is a **snowball sample** -- so named because one picks up the sample along the way, analogous to a snowball accumulating snow. A snowball sample is achieved by asking a participant to suggest someone else who might be willing or appropriate for the study. Snowball samples are particularly useful in hard-to-track populations, such as truants, drug users, etc.

Convenience sample

A convenience sample is a matter of taking what you can get. It is an accidental sample. Although selection may be unguided, it probably is not random, using the correct definition of everyone in the population having an equal chance of being selected. Volunteers would constitute a convenience sample.

Non-probability samples are limited with regard to generalization. Because they do not truly represent a population, we cannot make valid inferences about the larger group from which they are drawn. Validity can be increased by approximating random selection as much as possible, and making every attempt to avoid introducing bias into sample selection.

A convenience sample is a matter of taking what you can get. It is an accidental sample. Although selection may be unguided, it probably is not random, using the correct definition of everyone in the population having an equal chance of being selected. Volunteers would constitute a convenience sample.

10.6 Constructing a questionnaire

Questionnaires are used a lot in social science research and knowing how to construct a good questionnaire can be an important and practical skill to have. Here you will find tips on good questionnaire formatting, item ordering, questionnaire instructions, question wording, and more.

Questionnaire formatting

The general format of the questionnaire is easy to overlook, yet it is something that is just as important as the wording of the questions asked. A questionnaire that is poorly formatted can lead respondents to miss questions, confuse respondents, or even cause them to throw the questionnaire away.

First, the questionnaire should be spread out and uncluttered. Oftentimes researchers fear that their questionnaire looks too long and therefore they try to fit too much onto each page. Instead, each question should be given it's own line. Researchers should not try to fit more than one question on a line because that could cause the respondent to miss the second question or get confused.

Second, words should never be abbreviated in an attempt to save space or make a questionnaire shorter. Abbreviating words can be confusing to the respondent and not all abbreviations will be interpreted correctly. This could cause the respondent to answer the question a different way or skip it entirely.

Lastly, ample space should be left between questions on each page. Questions should not be too close together on the page or the respondent might be confused as to when one question ends and another begins. Leaving a double space between each question is ideal.

Formatting individual questions

In many questionnaires, respondents are expected to check one response from a series of responses. There may be a square or circle next to each response for the respondent to check or fill in, or the respondent might be instructed to circle their response. Whatever method is used, instructions should be made clear and displayed prominently next to the question. If a respondent indicates their response in a way that is not intended, this could hold up data entry or cause data to be miss-entered.

Response choices also need to be equally spaced. For example, if you're response categories are "yes," "no", and "maybe," all three words should be equally spaced from each other on the page. You do not want "yes" and "no" to be right next to each other while "maybe" is three inches away. This could mislead respondents and cause them to choose a different answer than intended. It could also be confusing to the respondent.

Question wording

The wording of questions and response options in a questionnaire is very important. Asking a question with the slightest difference in wording could result in a different answer or could cause the respondent to misinterpret the question.

Oftentimes researchers make the mistake of making questions unclear and ambiguous. Making each question clear and unambiguous seems like an obvious guideline for constructing a questionnaire, however it is commonly overlooked. Often researchers are so deeply involved in the topic being studied and have been studying it for so long that opinions and perspectives seem clear to them when they might not be to an outsider. Conversely, it might be a new topic and one that the researcher has only a superficial understanding of, so the question might not be specific enough. Questionnaire items (both the question and the response categories) should be so precise that the respondent knows exactly what the researcher is asking.

Researchers should be cautious about asking respondents for a single answer to a question that actually has multiple parts. This is called a double-barreled question. For example, let's say you ask respondents whether they agree or disagree with this statement: "The United States should abandon its space program and spend the money on health care reform". While many people might agree or disagree with this statement, many would not be able to provide an answer. Some might think the U.S. should abandon its space program, but spend the money elsewhere (not on health care reform). Others might want the U.S. to continue the space program, but also put more money into the health care reform. Therefore, if either of these respondents answered the question, they would be misleading the researcher.

As a general rule, whenever the word **and** appears in a question or response category, the researcher is likely asking a **double-barreled question** and measures should be taken to correct it and ask multiple questions instead (Williams, 2003).

Ordering items in a questionnaire

The order in which questions are asked can affect responses. First, the appearance of one question can affect the answers given to later questions. For instance, if there are several questions at the beginning of a survey that ask about the respondents' views on terrorism in the United States and then following those questions is an open-ended question asking the respondent what they believe to be dangers to the United States, terrorism is likely to be cited more than it otherwise would be. It would be better to ask the open-ended question first before the topic of terrorism is "put" into the respondents' head.

Efforts should be made to order the questions in the questionnaire so they do not affect subsequent questions. This can be hard and nearly impossible to do with each question, however the researcher can try to estimate what the various effects of different question orders would be and choose the ordering with the smallest effect.

Questionnaire instructions

Every questionnaire, no matter how it is administered, should contain very clear instructions as well as introductory comments when appropriate. Short instructions help the respondent make sense of the questionnaire and make the questionnaire seem less chaotic. They also help put the respondent in the proper frame of mind for answering the questions.

At the very beginning of the survey, basic instructions for completing it should be provided. The respondent should be told exactly what is wanted: that they are to indicate their answers to each question by placing a check mark or X in the box beside the appropriate answer or by writing their answer in the space provided when asked to do so.

If there is one section on the questionnaire with **closed-ended questions** and another section with **open-ended questions**, for example, instructions should be included at the beginning of each section. That is, leave instructions for the closed-ended questions just above those questions and leave the instructions for the open-ended questions just above those questions rather than writing them all at the beginning of the questionnaire.[88]

Descriptive and explanatory surveys

A great many surveys simply collect data in order to **describe** something: views on taxation, capital punishment etc. These are the simplest of all surveys, though they may collect data on a vast number of variables and the design of the survey and its questions might be quite sophisticated. Moreover, they allow descriptions between populations or over time. **Comparisons** between similar surveys in different countries, or over time are possible and may later be used to produce more complex **secondary** explanatory analyses. Nevertheless in themselves they go no further than to simply describe.

Often, however, surveys set out to **explain** things in the context of a theory rather than describe them. This presents a challenge for the survey researcher, for unlike experiments in the natural science, surveys cannot show that A caused B, though they cannot show that the association between A and B is so strong that a causal link is very likely. However, strong association does not mean on thing caused another. Explanations are answers to **"why" questions** and are usually thought of as explaining a cause or causes.

Experiments. Strictly speaking, experimental designs are separated from survey designs, but they use of survey method is often embedded in an experiment, especially in evaluation research. Descriptive and explanatory surveys depend only on observations, that is we "observe" respondents characteristics and views through our questions, whereas an

[88] http://sociology.about.com/od/Research-Tools/a/Constructing-A-Questionnaire.htm

experiment is the deliberate manipulation of some aspects of the environments by the scientists.

Longitudinal studies. There are a variety of longitudinal studies, but all depend on taking measures of a group **at least twice, over time**. The time period may be month or years. Their great advantage is that change or continuity in individual characteristic or views can be studied over time. The commonest design is **panel** studies in which a group of people are followed over time, **cohort studies** in which people with a common characteristic (birth date, graduation date, etc.) are studied at various future points, for example British National Child development Study which was based on all of the people born in one week in 1958 (Williams 2003).

10.7 Experiments

An experiment is a "hypothesis test" in which something is done in order to see its effects on something else.

Casual experimentation is one of the most important and common ways in which people learn about their world. It is an extremely powerful method because it allows us to identify the causes of events and thus gain control over our surrounding.

Not surprisingly, systematic experimentation is the most important research method in science. Experimentation involves **intervention** in the form of manipulation of one ore more **independent variables**, and then measurement of the effect of the treatment (manipulation) on one or more focal **dependent variables**. Generally speaking, independent variables are dimensions that the researcher hypothesizes will have an effect and that can be varied. Dependent variables are dimensions that the researcher hypothesizes will vary as a consequences of varying the independent variable.

Social psychology is largely experimental, in that most social psychologists would prefer to test hypothesis experimentally if at all possible, and much of what we know about social behaviour is based on experiments.

A typical social psychology experiment might be designed to test the hypothesis that violent television programmes increase aggression in young children. One way to do this would be to assign twenty children randomly to two conditions in which they individually

watch either a violent or a non-violent programme, and then monitor the amount of aggression expressed immediately afterwards by the children while they are at play. **Random assignment of participants** reduces the chance of systematic differences between the participants in the two conditions. Likewise, the television programme viewed in each condition should be identical in all respects except the degree of violence (Hoggh and Vaughan, 2008).

The laboratory experiment

The classic social psychology experiment is conducted in a laboratory in order to be able to control as many potentially confounding variables as possible. The aim is to isolate and manipulate a single aspect of a variable, an aspect that may not normally occur in isolation outside the laboratory. Laboratory experiments are intended to create **artificial** condition.

Laboratory experiments allow us to establish **cause-effect relationship** between variables. However laboratory experiments have a number of disadvantages. Because experimental conditions are artificial and highly controlled, laboratory finding cannot be generalized directly to the less "pure" conditions that exist in the "real" world outside the laboratory. However, laboratory findings address theories about human social behavior and on the basis of laboratory experimentation we can generalize these theories to apply to conditions other than those in the laboratory. Laboratory experiments are intentionally low on **external validity** or **mundane realism** (i.e. how similar the conditions are to those usually encountered by participants in the real world) but should always be high on **internal validity** or **experimental realism** (i.e. the manipulations must be full of psychological impact and meaning for the participants).

Laboratory experiments can be prone to a range of bias. There are **subject effects** which can cause participants´ behaviour to be an artifact of the experiment rather than a spontaneous and natural response to a manipulation. Artefacts can minimized by carefully avoiding demand characteristic (Orne, 1962) **evaluation apprehension** and **social desirability**. Demand characteristics are features of the experiment that seem to "demand" a particular response: they give information about the hypothesis and thus inform helpful and compliant participants about how to react to confirm the hypothesis. Participants are thus no longer naïve or **blind** regarding the experimental hypothesis. Participants in experiment are real people, and experiments are real social situations. Not surprisingly, participants may want to

project the best possible image of themselves to the experimenter and other participants present. This can influence spontaneous reactions to manipulations in unpredictable ways. There are also **experimenter effects**. The experimenter is often aware of the hypothesis and may inadvertently give cues that cause participants to behave in a way that confirms the hypothesis. This can be minimized by a **double-bind procedure**, in which the experimenter is unaware of which experimental condition they are running.

Since the 1960s, laboratory experiments have tended to rely on psychology undergaduates as participants. The reason is a pragmatic one - psychology undergaduates are readily available in large numbers. In almost all major universities there is a research participation scheme, or a "subject pool", whereby psychology students acts as experimental participants in exchange for course credits or as a course requirement. Critics have often suggested that this is over reliance on a particular type of participant may produce a somewhat distorted view of social behaviour –one that is note easily generalized to other sectors of the population. In their defence, experimental social psychologists point out that theories, not only experimental findings, are generalized, and that replication and methodological pluralism will ensure that social psychology is about people not just about psychology students (Hoggh and Vaughan, 2008).

The field experiment

Social psychology experiments can be conducted in more naturalistic settings **outside the laboratory**. For example, we could investigate the hypothesis that the prolonged eye contact is uncomfortable and cause "fight" by having an experimenter stand at traffic lights and either gaze intensely at the driver of a car stopped at the lights or gaze in opposite direction. The dependent measure would be the speed at which the car sped away once the lights changed (Elsworth, Carlsmith & Henson, 1972). Field experiments have high external validity and, as participants are usually completely unaware that an experiment is taking place, are not reactive (i.e. no demand characteristic are present). However, there is less control over extraneous variables, random assignment is sometimes difficult to obtain accurate measurements or measurements of subjective feelings (overt behaviour is all that can be measured). (Hoggh and Vaughan, 2008)

Non experimental methods

Systematic experimentation tends to be preferred method of science, and indeed it is often equated with science. However, there are all sorts of circumstances where it is simply impossible to conduct an experiment to test a hypothesis. For instance, theories about planetary systems and galaxies can pose a real problem: we cannot move planets around to see what happens! Likewise, social psychological theories about the relationship between biological sex and decision making are not amenable to experimentation, because we cannot manipulate biological sex experimentally and see what effects emerge. Social psychology also confronts ethical issues that can proscribe experimentation. For instance, hypotheses about the effect on self-esteem of being a victim of violent crime are not at all easily tested experimentally – we would not be able to assign participants randomly to two conditions and then subject on group to a violent crime and see what happened!

Where experimentation is not possible or not appropriate, social psychologists have a range of non-experimental methods from which to choose. Because these methods do not involve the manipulation of independent variables against a background of random assignment to condition, it is almost impossible to draw reliable causal conclusion. For instance, we could compare the self esteem of people who have been victims of violent crime with those who have not. Any differences could be attributed to violent crime but could also be due to other uncontrolled differences between the two groups. We can only conclude that there is a **correlation** between self-esteem and being the victim of violent crime. There is no evidence that one causes the other (i.e. being a victim may lower self-esteem or having lower self-esteem may increase the likelihood of becoming a victim). Both to be **correlated** or **co-occurring** effects of some third variable, such as chronic unemployment, which independently lowers self-esteem and increases the probability that one might become victim. In general, non-experimental methods involve the examination of correlation between naturally occurring variables and as such do not permit us to draw causal conclusions.

Case studies.

The case study allows an in-depth analysis of a single case (either a person or a group) or a single event. Case studies often employ an array of data collection and analysis techniques involved structured and open-ended **interviews** and **questionnaires** and **observation** of behavior. Case studies are well suited to the examination of unusual or rare phenomena that

could not be created in the laboratory: for instance, bizarre cults, mass murders or disasters. Case studies are useful as a source of hypotheses, but findings may suffer from researcher or subject bias (the researcher is not blind to hypothesis, there are demand characteristic and participants suffer evaluation apprehension), and findings may not easily be generalized to other cases or events (Hoggh and Vaughan, 2008).

Archival research

Archival research is non experimental method that is useful for investigating large-scale widely occurring phenomena that may be remote in time. The researcher assembles data collected by others, often for reasons unconnected with those of researchers (cf. **secondary data**). Archival methods are often used to make comparisons between different cultures or nations regarding things such as suicide, mental health or child-rearing strategies. The archival method is not reactive, but it can be unreliable because the researcher usually has no control over the **primary data** collection which might be biased or unreliable in other ways (e.g. missing vital data) (Hoggh and Vaughan, 2008).

10.8 Content analysis

There are two general categories of content analysis: conceptual analysis and relational analysis. Conceptual analysis can be thought of as establishing the existence and frequency of concepts in a text. Relational analysis builds on conceptual analysis by examining the relationships among concepts in a text.

Conceptual Analysis

Traditionally, content analysis has most often been thought of in terms of conceptual analysis. In conceptual analysis, a concept is chosen for examination and the number of its occurrences within the text recorded. Because terms may be implicit as well as explicit, it is important to clearly define implicit terms before the beginning of the counting process. To limit the subjectivity in the definitions of concepts, specialized dictionaries are used.

As with most other research methods, conceptual analysis begins with identifying research questions and choosing a sample or samples. Once chosen, the text must be coded into

manageable content categories. The process of coding is basically one of selective reduction, which is the central idea in content analysis. By breaking down the contents of materials into meaningful and pertinent units of information, certain characteristics of the message may be analyzed and interpreted.

An example of a conceptual analysis would be to examine a text and to code it for the existence of certain words. In looking at this text, the research question might involve examining the number of positive words used to describe an argument, as opposed to the number of negative words used to describe a current status or opposing argument. The researcher would be interested only in quantifying these words, not in examining how they are related, which is a function of relational analysis. In conceptual analysis, the researcher simply wants to examine presence with respect to his/her research question, i.e. whether there is a stronger presence of positive or negative words used with respect to a specific argument or respective arguments.

Relational Analysis

As stated above, relational analysis builds on conceptual analysis by examining the relationships among concepts in a text. And as with other sorts of inquiry, initial choices with regard to what is being studied and/or coded for often determine the possibilities of that particular study. For relational analysis, it is important to first decide which concept type(s) will be explored in the analysis. Studies have been conducted with as few as one and as many as 500 concept categories. Obviously, too many categories may obscure your results and too few can lead to unreliable and potentially invalid conclusions. Therefore, it is important to allow the context and necessities of your research to guide your coding procedures.

There are many techniques of relational analysis available and this flexibility makes for it's popularity. Researchers can devise their own procedures according to the nature of their project. Once a procedure is rigorously tested, it can be applied and compared across populations over time. The process of relational analysis has achieved a high degree of computer automation but still is, like most forms of research, time consuming. Perhaps the strongest claim that can be made is that it maintains a high degree of statistical rigor without losing the richness of detail apparent in even more qualitative methods.

The issues of **reliability** and **validity** are concurrent with those addressed in other research methods. The reliability of a content analysis study refers to its stability, or the tendency for coders to consistently re-code the same data in the same way over a period of time; reproducibility, or the tendency for a group of coders to classify categories membership in the same way; and accuracy, or the extent to which the classification of a text corresponds to a standard or norm statistically.

The overarching problem of concept analysis research is the challengeable nature of conclusions reached by its inferential procedures. The question lies in what level of implication is allowable, i.e. do the conclusions follow from the data or are they explainable due to some other phenomenon? For occurrence-specific studies, for example, can the second occurrence of a word carry equal weight as the ninety-ninth? Reasonable conclusions can be drawn from substantive amounts of quantitative data, but the question of proof may still remain unanswered.

Advantages of Content Analysis

Content analysis offers several advantages to researchers who consider using it. In particular, content analysis:

- looks directly at communication via texts or transcripts, and hence gets at the central aspect of social interaction
- can allow for both quantitative and qualitative operations
- can provides valuable historical/cultural insights over time through analysis of texts
- allows a closeness to text which can alternate between specific categories and relationships and also statistically analyzes the coded form of the text
- can be used to interpret texts for purposes such as the development of expert systems (since knowledge and rules can both be coded in terms of explicit statements about the relationships among concepts)
- is an unobtrusive means of analyzing interactions
- provides insight into complex models of human thought and language use
- when done well, is considered as a relatively "exact" research method (based on hard facts, as opposed to Discourse Analysis).

Disadvantages of Content Analysis

Content analysis suffers from several advantages, both theoretical and procedural. In particular, content analysis:

- can be extremely time consuming
- is subject to increased error, particularly when relational analysis is used to attain a higher level of interpretation
- is often devoid of theoretical base, or attempts too liberally to draw meaningful inferences about the relationships and impacts implied in a study
- is inherently reductive, particularly when dealing with complex texts
- tends too often to simply consist of word counts
- often disregards the context that produced the text, as well as the state of things after the text is produced
- can be difficult to automate or computerize[89]

10.9 Research report

The research report, usually published as a journal article or a book, provides an account of the nature of the research and seeks to justify what-ever conclusions are drawn. This is a final stage only in terms of the individual research project. Most reports indicate questions that remain unanswered and suggest further research that might profitably be done in the future. All individual research investigations are part of the continuing process of research taking place within the sociological community.

The choice of the means of dissemination of results (book, article, conference papers) will depend on who it is you wish to communicate with and why. This may be dictated by who the research is being done for, for example government department-sponsored research will be subject to reporting restrictions. Some academic research may be very subject specific, or technically quite difficult and therefore only suitable for a very specific audience. A great deal of research has many audiences and findings will be reported in different ways and at different levels of technical accessibility (Williams 2003: 191).

[89] http://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~palmquis/courses/content.html

Table: Content of individual sections

Individual Sections	**Content of Each Section**
Title of Report	Concise heading indicating what the report is about
Table of Contents (not always required)	List of major sections and headings with page numbers
Abstract/Synopsis	Concise summary of main findings
Introduction	Why and what you researched
Literature Review (sometimes included in the Introduction)	Other relevant research in this area
Methodology	What you did and how you did it
Results	What you found
Discussion	Relevance of your results, how it fits with other research in the area
Conclusion	Summary of results/findings
Recommendations (sometimes included in the Conclusion)	What needs to be done as a result of your findings
References or Bibliography	All references used in your report or referred to for background information
Appendices	Any additional material which will add to your report

10.10 Ethics in research

There are several reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research. First, norms promote the aims of research, such as knowledge, truth, and avoidance of error. For example, prohibitions against fabricating, falsifying, or misrepresenting research data promote the truth and avoid error. Second, since research often involves a great deal of cooperation and coordination among many different people in different disciplines and institutions, ethical standards promote the values that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness. For example, many ethical norms in research, such as guidelines for authorship, copyright and patenting policies, data sharing policies, and confidentiality rules in peer review, are designed to protect intellectual property interests while encouraging collaboration. Most researchers want to receive credit for their contributions and do not want to have their ideas stolen or disclosed prematurely. Third, many of the ethical norms help to ensure that researchers can be held accountable to the public. For

instance, federal policies on research misconduct, conflicts of interest, the human subjects protections, and animal care and use are necessary in order to make sure that researchers who are funded by public money can be held accountable to the public. Fourth, ethical norms in research also help to build public support for research. People will more likely fund research project if they can trust the quality and integrity of research. Finally, many of the norms of research promote a variety of other important moral and social values, such as social responsibility, human rights, animal welfare, compliance with the law, and health and safety. Ethical lapses in research can significantly harm human and animal subjects, students, and the public. For example, a researcher who fabricates data in a clinical trial may harm or even kill patients, and a researcher who fails to abide by regulations and guidelines relating to radiation or biological safety may jeopardize his health and safety or the health and safety of staff and students.

The following is a rough and general summary of some ethical principals that various codes address[90]:

Strive for **honesty** in all scientific communications. Honestly report data, results, methods and procedures, and publication status. Do not fabricate, falsify, or misrepresent data. Do not deceive colleagues, granting agencies, or the public.

Objectivity: Strive to avoid bias in experimental design, data analysis, data interpretation, peer review, personnel decisions, grant writing, expert testimony, and other aspects of research where objectivity is expected or required. Avoid or minimize bias or self-deception. Disclose personal or financial interests that may affect research.

Integrity: Keep your promises and agreements; act with sincerity; strive for consistency of thought and action.

Carefulness: Avoid careless errors and negligence; carefully and critically examine your own work and the work of your peers. Keep good records of research activities, such as data collection, research design, and correspondence with agencies or journals.

Openness: Share data, results, ideas, tools, resources. Be open to criticism and new ideas.

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[90]http://www.niehs.nih.gov/research/resources/bioethics/whatis/ (part of texts is "adapted from Shamoo A and Resnik D. 2009. Responsible Conduct of Research, 2nd ed. New York: Oxford University Press").

Respect for Intellectual Property: Honor patents, copyrights, and other forms of intellectual property. Do not use unpublished data, methods, or results without permission. Give credit where credit is due. Give proper acknowledgement or credit for all contributions to research. Never plagiarize.

Confidentiality: Protect confidential communications, such as papers or grants submitted for publication, personnel records, trade or military secrets, and patient records.

Responsible Publication: Publish in order to advance research and scholarship, not to advance just your own career. Avoid wasteful and duplicative publication.

Responsible Mentoring: Help to educate, mentor, and advise students. Promote their welfare and allow them to make their own decisions.

Respect for colleagues: Respect your colleagues and treat them fairly.

Social Responsibility: Strive to promote social good and prevent or mitigate social harms through research, public education, and advocacy.

Non-Discrimination: Avoid discrimination against colleagues or students on the basis of sex, race, ethnicity, or other factors that are not related to their scientific competence and integrity.

Competence: Maintain and improve your own professional competence and expertise through lifelong education and learning; take steps to promote competence in science as a whole.

Legality: Know and obey relevant laws and institutional and governmental policies.

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