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B.Sc. [Psychology]

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SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Authors:

Dr Vasantha R Patri, *Director and Chairperson of Indian Institute of Counselling, New Delhi*
Units (1.0-1.2, 2.3, 7, 8.0-8.2, 8.4-8.8)

S.S. Chauhan, *Professor and Dean (Retd.), Faculty of Education, Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla*
Units (2.0-2.2.1, 8.3.5)

J. S. Chandan, *Retd Professor, Medgar Evers College, City University of New York*
Units (10.0-10.1, 10.2.1-10.2.2, 10.4-10.4.1, 10.5-10.9)

Vikas® Publishing House: Units (1.3-1.10, 2.2.2-2.2.3, 2.3.1-2.3.2, 2.4-2.8, 3-6, 8.3-8.3.4, 9, 10.2, 10.2.3, 10.3, 10.4.2, 11-14)

SYLLABI-BOOK MAPPING TABLE

Social Psychology

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UNIT 9: Conformity and Deviation:

Conformity – Deviation – Social mobility – Crime and delinquency.

UNIT 10: Leadership and Social Power

Leadership and Social Power: Leadership and dominance – Institutional leaders – Dominant leaders – Persuasive leaders – Expert – Experimental studies – Traits – situational test – Factorial studies – Democratic Vs. authoritarian leaders – Leaders and the led – Theories of leadership – Emerging pattern of rural leadership in India – Social Power – Bases of power – Exchange theory.

BLOCK IV: OPTION AND BEHAVIOUR

UNIT 11: Public Opinion

Propaganda and Prejudice: Public opinion – Meaning – Process – Steps in opinion formation – Role of leaders – Gauging public opinion – Survey method – Propaganda –Its relation to education – Language and propaganda – Role of suggestion – Techniques – Prejudice – Characteristics – Growth – Forms of hostile action – Methods to reduce prejudice.

UNIT 12: Collective Behavior

Mass society – Audience – Mob behavior – Kinds of mobs – Theories of crowd behavior – Rumours and mass hysteria, fads and crazes – Social movements.

UNIT 13: Social Change

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UNIT 14: Social Conflicts and their resolution

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INTRODUCTION

Social psychology is a flourishing discipline. It explores the most essential questions of the human psyche. Why do people help or harm others? How do influence professionals get people to do what they want and how can they inoculate themselves against the professionals' sometimes-insidious persuasion tactics? Why do social relationships exert such powerful effects on people's physical health? These are some of the questions that everyone has in their minds, and Social Psychology provides answers to these questions, and it does so with clever, ingenious research methods. Social psychology is the study of the relations between people and groups. Scholars in this interdisciplinary area are typically either psychologists or sociologists, though all social psychologists employ both the individual and the group as their units of analysis.

Despite their similarity, psychological and sociological researchers tend to differ in their goals, approaches, methods and terminology. They also favour separate academic journals and professional societies. The greatest period of collaboration between sociologists and psychologists was during the years immediately following World War II. Although there has been an increasing isolation and specialization in recent years, some degree of overlap and influence remains between the two disciplines.

This book, *Social Psychology*, will introduce the students to some of the research and other methods used by social psychologists. Social psychologists are trained in rigorous experimental methods within the academic discipline of psychology. Their approach to the field focusses on the individual and attempts to explain how the thoughts, feelings, and behaviour of individuals are influenced by other people. Psychologically-oriented researchers emphasize the immediate social situation and the interaction between person and situation variables. Their research tends to be empirical and quantitative, and it is often centred around laboratory experiments, but there are some computational modelling efforts in the field. Contemporary social psychology is 'characterized by a fundamental commitment to the experimental method'. Psychologists who study social psychology are interested in such topics as attitudes, social cognition, cognitive dissonance, social influence, and interpersonal behaviour, including altruism and aggression. All these aspects and characteristics of social psychology are discussed in this book.

This book has been designed keeping in mind the self-instruction mode (SIM) format and follows a simple pattern, wherein each unit of the book begins with the Introduction followed by the Objectives for the topic. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner, and is interspersed with Check Your Progress questions to reinforce the student's understanding of the topic. A list of Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit. The Summary and Key Words further act as useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text.

BLOCK - I

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY – AN OVERVIEW

UNIT 1 INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Structure

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Other people are central to our lives because we are in a social relationship with them. The presence of others may be real (as when you are in a classroom, party, movie house, etc.), or imagined (you think of what your friend would feel not being invited to the housewarming ceremony). So, one definition of social psychology is that it is the scientific study of the nature and causes of individual behaviour in a social situation. The term 'behaviour' includes thoughts and feelings. Social psychology is the study of social behaviour and the mental experience of people in social contexts. Many authorities view it as occupying the area between sociology on the one hand and individual psychology on the other. It includes the study of social interaction and communication, both verbal and non-verbal, behaviour in groups, social attitudes and persuasion, interpersonal attraction and social relationships, leadership and social influence, aggression and anger, altruism and helping behaviour, attribution and social cognition, bargaining and negotiation, conformity and social influence processes, cooperation and competition, group decision-making, group dynamics, leadership and group performance, obedience to authority, prejudice and inter-group conflict, self-presentation and impression management, sex roles, sexual behaviour, social learning and socialization.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Provide an overview on social psychology
- Explain how social psychology is different from other disciplines
- Discuss the nature and goal of social psychology
- Describe the scope of social psychology

1.2 SCOPE AND METHODS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

The birth date of social psychology is often given as 1908, when two influential early texts by McDougall (a psychologist) and Ross (a sociologist) were published, but the field did not really evolve a separate identity of its own until the mid-1930s and did not gain momentum until after World War II. The early development of social psychology was dominated by theories and research generated in the United States, although many of the most influential pioneers, including Fritz Heider and Kurt Lewin, were emigrants from Europe. After the foundation of the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology in 1967, pressure began to build towards reducing the global dominance of American social psychology. European social psychology has maintained the American tradition of experimental research, but has also tended to give more prominence to non-experimental approaches, such as discourse analysis, social representations research and various qualitative methods.

World War II and its impact

After a decade of little progress, World War II and later part showed growth in several directions. The role of group membership and its influence on individual behaviour, personality traits and social behaviour was explored. The cognitive dissonance theory developed by Festinger (1957) was another landmark. The theory focussed on how human beings disliked inconsistency between their attitudes and behaviour and proposed that there was a motivation to reduce it. This opened up a significant research area. This gave impetus to the study of social attraction, pro-social or helping behaviour, social perception, stereotypes and a host of other related topics. Such types of research led to the growth of the applied field in social psychology. Areas like health, organizations, legal process and environmental issues were studied in terms of the individual in these contexts.

Looking to the future it becomes clear that issues like ethnicity, migration, conflicts, catastrophes (natural and otherwise), population, effects of technology, and so on would gain a lot of importance. The essence of the focus is bound to be the contextualization of social behaviour aimed at human welfare.

The links of social psychology to psychology

The emergence of social psychology was very gradual. So, no clear markers are identifiable. As mentioned, the earliest use of the term social psychology is credited to William McDougall (1908), who published a book titled *Introduction to Psychology* based on the notion of instincts. This view does not enjoy much currency in modern times. The second recorded evidence is a book written by F.H. Allport (1924), called *Social Psychology*. He proposed that social behaviour arises from several factors including the presence of others and their actions. This view is much closer to present day interpretation.

These were followed by the definitive studies of two pioneers Mazafer Sherif and Kurt Lewin. Sherif (1935) studied social norms by which any group rules were developed for managing a set of individuals. Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) studied leadership and group processes. This marked the beginning of the systematic scientific study of social psychology.

Origins of social psychology

The word 'social' has been traced to the Sanskrit word 'sacati' which means 'follows' or 'accompanies'. This is also related to the Latin term 'socialis'. The Greek and the Roman languages also have 'sharing' as one of the concepts associated with social.

Aristotle in his treatize on politics indicated an instinctual basis for man's social interactions in society. These linguistic explorations speak about the recognition of social interactions as the main stay of human existence.

1.2.1 Nature and Goal of Social Psychology

According to psychologist Gordon Allport, 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' (1985). Social psychology looks at a wide range of social topics, including group behaviour, social perception, leadership, non-verbal 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 to understanding social behaviour.

The goal of social psychology is to understand cognition and behaviour as they naturally occur in a social context, but the very act of observing people can influence and alter their behaviour. For this reason, many social psychology experiments utilize deception to conceal or distort certain aspects of the study. Deception may include false cover stories, false participants (known as confederates or stooges), false feedback given to the participants, and so on.

The practice of deception has been challenged by some psychologists who maintain that deception under any circumstance is unethical, and that other research strategies (e.g. role-playing) should be used instead. Unfortunately, research has

shown that role-playing studies do not produce the same results as deception studies and this has cast doubt on their validity. In addition to deception, experimenters have at times put people into potentially uncomfortable or embarrassing situations (e.g., the Milgram experiment, Stanford prison experiment), and this has also been criticized for ethical reasons.

To protect the rights and well-being of research participants, and at the same time discover meaningful results and insights into human behaviour, virtually all social psychology research must pass an ethical review process. At most colleges and universities, this is conducted by an ethics committee or institutional review board. This group examines the proposed research to make sure that no harm is done to the participants, and that the benefits of the study outweigh any possible risks or discomforts to people taking part in the study.

Furthermore, a process of informed consent is often used to make sure that volunteers know what will happen in the experiment and understand that they are allowed to quit the experiment at any time. A debriefing is typically done at the conclusion of the experiment in order to reveal any deceptions used and generally make sure that the participants are unharmed by the procedures. Today, most research in social psychology involves no more risk of harm than can be expected from routine psychological testing or normal daily activities.

1.2.2 Scope of Social Psychology

An underlying assumption in the development of social psychology has been the belief that some aspects of human nature are the same in all cultures and across history. So, although we want to understand the extent to which our behaviour changes in different social and cultural contexts, we are fairly confident that there are some important and basic aspects of human nature which are not affected by changes in social circumstances. Indeed, if there were no common bases for comparison, differences and similarities across cultures could not be assessed at all. This means that social psychologists are interested in variations in social reactions and their origins and in the consistency or predictability of human behaviour. In the twenty-five years after World War II, social psychology continued to be an active growing field of scientific enquiry. Attention continued to be focussed on the influence of groups and group membership on individual behaviour, but the field expanded into virtually every area of social interaction. In the introduction to the very influential *Handbook of Social Psychology* published shortly after World War II, Gordon Allport (1954) argued strongly that we can improve our social welfare via the systematic application of social science and, in particular, social psychology. This optimistic view of social psychology is held even more strongly today. The 1954 edition of the *Handbook of Social Psychology* also assigned great importance to the role of methodology in the complex field of social psychology, and development of research methods in this area is still continuing today.

In the last twenty-five years, the development of social psychology has continued with the addition of new areas of research such as attribution—how we

infer the causes of behaviour of others and of ourselves—the study of gender roles and gender-role stereotyping and the study of helping or prosocial behaviour. Underlying the recent developments in social psychology have been two major themes. The first has been an increasing emphasis on using our knowledge of cognitive processing to understand the complexities of social phenomena. The second discernable trend is an increasing interest among social psychologists in analysing current social problems and applying their knowledge to practical issues, such as organizations and workplace settings. These trends reflect an increasing awareness of the need to draw on our knowledge of basic psychological theory and research in order to help understand the complexities of our social world.

1.2.3 Social Psychology and Other Sciences

Since social psychology focusses on the study of the individual in the social context of other individuals, sociologists study the individual as a member of a social group—the society. Anthropologists look into the genesis of the human being in a larger ethnic/cultural context. Economists examine the individual's economic/commercial behaviour in the context of monetary/economic factors.

Marketing people are keen on studying consumer behaviour of an individual in terms of business/buying behaviour. Political scientists seek to study human political behaviour in the context of leadership, governance, international relations, etc. These show that such disciplines are related, but their perspectives differ. Also, the basic principles as gained from research in the field of psychology have become the backbone for their applications in the allied fields involving human behaviour.

How is social psychology different from other disciplines?

It is important to understand how social psychology differs from other disciplines. Social psychology is often confused with folk wisdom, personality psychology and sociology. What makes social psychology different? 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 focusses on individual traits, characteristics, and thoughts, social psychology is focussed on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that social environment and interaction has on attitudes and behaviour.

Finally, it is important to distinguish between social psychology and sociology. While there are many similarities between the two, sociology tends to looks at social behaviour and influences at a very broad-based level. Sociologists are interested in the institutions and culture that influence social psychology. Psychologists, instead, focus on situational variables that affect social behaviour. While psychology and sociology both study similar topics, they look at these topics from different perspectives.

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Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'social psychology'.

2. What is the goal of social psychology?

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1.3   PRACTICAL VS SCIENTIFIC KNOWLEDGE

The most prominent difference between a routine player and a specialist can be seen with their depth of knowledge. A routine player has the practical knowledge required for undertaking all the daily tasks however he may not be aware about the science and technology involved in the task, the social specialist would regard all activities around him in a logical, detailed, rational, clear, and reliable way due to his scientific knowledge. Both styles have their pros and cons. Most people have several skills that make them seem like an expert analyst of society however this knowledge is taken for granted by the routine player as it has been acquired through experience.

The social world can be experienced in two distinct ways. The routine player's approach may be understood as the practical knowledge as he has learnt everything by experience and these help the performance of various tasks but this knowledge through practice and experience need not always be detailed, logical or even reliable. For instance, a lady working in the kitchen knows how to operate a microwave efficiently but that does not mean she will be able to explain the internal mechanism of the gadget, the knowledge is limited to its operation required for daily needs, the knowledge is practical rather than scientific. In the same way the everyday players have a practical knowledge about the social world they live in, the approach is different for acquiring knowledge of the logical, detailed rational and reliable social world.

The social expert as compared to a routine player would question everything even it may seem simple and indisputable. This implies that the social expert sees the world as a stranger would perceive it; they try to understand processes that would be taken for granted by the routine player. The expert of social world would consider all facts after properly verifying and understanding the logic. Just as an example, it is universally presumed that females tend to gossip more than the males, the universal consensus makes it seem like a fact which need not be investigated, however a social expert would substantiate this statement with facts based on a thorough investigation and it will not be surprising in case the expert delivers a very unexpected inference. As stated earlier both the styles have pros and cons, the expert understands the logic and precision in the same way the routine player takes it for granted. The routine player reaches the same conclusion as the expert but his ways are much simpler than the other. The understanding of the social world may not always be easy and it may require a deeper and detailed justification.

Practical knowledge: The knowledge acquired by an individual with the help of daily life experiences may be referred to as practical knowledge. They could also be understood as aspects of an individual's life resulting from their conduct or circumstances. The expertise and facts developed by a physician while doing his routine check-ups or techniques of building stamina learnt by an athlete due to regular practice may be regarded as examples of practical knowledge

Scientific Knowledge: The scientific knowledge may be referred to as the detailed information and doctrines attained with the help of a prolonged training and examination. The examination is lengthy as it explores all the aspects before coming to a conclusive decision, these conclusions are based on the laws, principles, perceptions and prototypes.

Steps involved in acquiring scientific knowledge are as follows:

- **Gathering Information:** Information is gathered through observations made by the sense organs of the individual or with the help of a gadget such as the microscope, sound recorder, X-ray machine, etc. The facts acquired through straight observation may be referred to as empirical evidence.

- **Inquiring and Examination:** The empirical evidence helps the scientists to inquire about their occurrence and examine the sources.

- **Finding Answers:** on the basis of inquiries and examinations answers to the hypothesis is deducted, these have to be workable, rational and accountable.

- **Analysing the hypotheses:** The scientists supports their hypotheses on the basis of experiments, they conduct them in different circumstances to reach a conclusive analysis. All factors affecting the results have to be analysed.

- **Creating laws and theories:** The findings mostly correspond with an existing theory or law however in few cases a fresh and innovative theory is established. The theory has to be universally accepted to become a concept of science.

- **Sharing the Results:** The last step of scientific knowledge involves the scientists to communicate the results with others. The sharing of information is done with the help of books, research journals and also by conducting seminars and workshops where the thesis could be made public.

Check Your Progress

3. What do you understand by the routine player's approach?

4. What is practical knowledge?

1.4 SOCIAL INTERACTION AND SOCIAL INFLUENCE AND SOME VARIABLES UNDER STUDY

In social psychology, a vigorous system of social happenings amid people or groups of people is referred to as social interaction; the interactions leads to an alteration in the actions as well as the reactions of the people, as per the actions of the other. The interactions in the society can be segregated as unintentional, recurrent, consistent and controlled.

In other words, social exchange among people in a society is social interaction. The communication forms the basic foundation of the structure in the society and thus becomes vital for all inquiries and analysis about the social system. These communications may be deliberated between dyads (two groups) or triads (three groups) or bigger social groups.

Social interactions become the basis of all social structures and cultures in the society. All the rules, organisations and systems of the society are formulated on the style of interactions between people. Social interactions help in developing the symbols of social development that are communicated to all new members and the younger generations.

The sociologist Erving Goffman was the one who developed the novel discipline of studying social interactions known as microsociology, or social interaction. The process through which individuals react and act towards people around them is referred to as social interaction. In other words, social interaction consists of all acts performed by people towards other and the reactions that are received on the basis of these actions. This would also include a general inconsequential conversation between two friends or even strangers.

According to Goffman, even these inconsequential interactions between people are part of social interaction and have great relevance to the field and they should not be ignored. There are several behaviours included in social interactions and for this reason they have been categories in five headings namely: discussion, competition, cooperation, conflict and oppression.

Microsociology empirically studies the social interaction and concentrates on the nature of routine social interactions between humans and their agencies. Symbolic interactionism and ethnomethodology are the two main methods used for the study; psychosocial studies, conversational analysis and human-computer interaction have been incorporated later as sub-divisions of the study.

Through symbolic interactionism, it is argued that humans and the society are parts of each other, the argument is supported on the basis of two statements, first being, both are an outcome of social interaction and secondly they are understood in relation to each other.

Ethnomethodology is a branch of symbolic interactionism, under this, questions are raised as to how interactions among people is the basis of collective social order when individuals are not able to understand each other completely and they have varied point of views.

Ethnomethodology explores the methods individuals use to create a sense of order in a specific organisation or community. It is an ethnographic approach of inquiry in sociology developed by Harold Garfinkel, the American sociologist. The objective of the study is to be able to document the procedures and practices which are used by the members of the society for understanding their surroundings. The term "ethnomethodology" was put together by Garfinkel in 1954 when he was working on a research paper on juries.

Social Influence and their Variables

Social influence is the impact on people's reactions, opinions or behaviours by others in a society; this could be intentional or unintentional. There are many forms of social influence, it is visible in conformity, socialization, pressure of friends, compliance, governance, persuasion, sales, and selling. In 1958, Herbert Kelman a psychologist from Harvard acknowledged that social influence has three extensive variabilities, these include:

- **Compliance:** when people maintain their personal opinion but give the impression of agreeing with others.
- **Identification:** when people get swayed by celebrities or well-liked and respected personalities.
- **Internalization:** when people whole heartedly consent to a view or belief.

According to Morton Deutsch and Harold Gerard people confirm with others expectations in order to fulfil two of their psychological requirements, firstly they want to be correct and secondly they wished to be liked and accepted by people. The former is referred to as informational social influence, it is a kind of influence where people willingly receive information from others and regard it as facts. This influence works most during internal uncertainty is present. The latter influence is referred to normative influence; it is conforming to the optimistic expectations of all. According to the typology presented by Herbert Kelman, normative influence results in public compliance, while informational influence results in personal acceptance.

Social Influence Variables

Social influence concerning a transformation in behaviour, belief, or way of thinking so that it aligns with the normally accepted standards is referred to as conformity. This type of social influence is exceedingly persuasive and most popular. Researchers in the field of social psychology have listed two types of conformity, these are informational conformity or social proof, this variety is same as Kelman's internalization and the other is normative conformity, same as kelman's 'compliance'.

Peer pressure is one such case where an individual's actions may not be personal choice but are done in order to have good relations with friends. Conformity resulting from peer pressure falls under two of Kelman's varieties namely identification and compliance.

Compliance or acquiescence reveals conformity in public, even while the person is non-complaint in private. Completely parallel to this is conversion here there is alignment between internal and external behaviour. What seems like conformity could actually be congruence. Congruence takes place when a person's thinking is aligned with others.

In the absence of conformity, all its variables such as compliance, conversion, and congruence, there exists non-conformity with practices like independence and anti-conformity. Independence or dissent is non-alignment with group members but private alignment of beliefs is present. Anti-conformity is similar to independence however there is no personal alignment as well, this behaviour could be rebelliousness or stubbornness or it could be an indication that the individual is considering all the views.

In some cases the behaviour of minority influences the majority, this influence is mostly operated with the help of informational social influence but opposing to the normative social influence since most people will not be in favour of the minority.

A self-fulfilling prophecy is a prophecy that openly or incidentally, on its own becomes a fact because of optimistic feedback concerning belief and behaviour. This fact could be a source of influence on people. Self-fulfilling prophecy was coined by sociologist Robert K. Merton, in 1948; he used it in one of his articles.

Reactance is a variable of anti-conformity; it is form of a social pressure.

Social influence that is due to an authoritative figure is referred to as obedience. There are three famous experiments that have established that individuals are prone to obedience when influenced by a figure of authority, these examples include the Milgram experiment, experiment of Stanford prison in Zimbardo, and the Hofling hospital experiment.

The process of persuasion involves propelling self or others for adopting an outlook with help of rational methods. Robert Cialdini included six types of persuasions and according to him these were 'weapons' that helped in social influence, these included reciprocity, commitment, social proof, authority, liking, and scarcity. These brought about conformity with the help of direction, it involved appealing to reason or emotions.

Six weapons of influence are as follows:

- **Reciprocity:** People are always likely to return favours.
- **Commitment:** Individuals are mostly not inconsistent. They hardly ever change their mind once committed to a concept.
- **Social proof:** Individuals tend to follow others in a social group.
- **Authority:** Obedience to authority is second nature to most people.

- **Liking:** Most individuals are influenced by people they admire.
- **Scarcity:** An apparent constraint of resources will create demand.

Psychological manipulation is another variable of social influence. The objective in this method is to alter the behaviour of individuals by using means that are offensive, misleading, or devious in order to benefit the manipulator. Though manipulation of this kind is not always done for benefiting an individual, a doctor often tries to manipulate his patients to let go of unhealthy practices.

Abusive power and control are also used as a means of social influence. The objective is to frighten the individuals so that they do not voice their beliefs.

Another way of negative social influence is propaganda; the facts are altered to benefit a particular individual or a group.

Hard power is the used for military and economic gains. This is mostly practiced by political bodies and completely contrasting from soft power where the social influence is managed in a diplomatic manner using culture and history.

Factors of social influence are as follows:

- **Unity:** among people helps in socially influencing them as they are consistent and dedicated.

- **Status and Reputation:** people considered as experts will be able to employ social influence as their views would be credible and earn the trust of the people. People from the media will be able to influence others more easily like the political leaders use their speeches to influence the public; in the same way film stars or other celebrities are able to influence people easily due to their social status.

- Power and authority are crucial variables of social influence; a person with authority can make people follow instructions easily as compared to other members of the group. For instance, for a kindergarten student, authority of the teacher is more than the parents.

- Culture also helps in exerting social influence, people tend to follow others in the group and maintain the norms and values of the group.

- Emotion and mood could have an impact on an individual and result in conformity or anti-conformity. According to a study conducted in 2009, fear helps in increasing the conformity towards the group.

1.5 SOCIETY AND CULTURE: INTERPERSONAL RESPONSE TRAITS

The role of perception and inspiration in the control of social behaviour can be understood only when the reactions of the individual towards his surroundings are considered. It is also important to comprehend actions and communications of the individual in relations to others. Every individual as a result of his upbringing,

surroundings or experiences tends to develop a different temperament and responds towards his fellow beings in typical manner. These temperaments may be denoted to as interpersonal response traits, they help in describing the social human, to interpret their behaviour and to anticipate their actions. Therefore, the initial understanding at this point is that the behaviour of an individual in a social setting is based upon the interpersonal response traits and these are reasonably constant and unwavering temperaments. These make them react in characteristic ways towards others. Consequently this means that individuals in a society develop certain interpersonal response traits and these characterise their social mannerism during varied situations of the society. The next notion is that the individual's interpersonal response traits are the outcome of the distinctive experiences in satiating the most recurrently and most penetratingly roused desires. A roused desire could therefore be satisfied instantly or postponed. The individual's methods of fulfilling his desires and the manner in which he eases the hindrance in the way of his desires could have flexible or defective outcomes on the subsequent behaviour of the individual. Few of the basic interpersonal response traits can be characterized into three main dispositions: Role disposition; Sociometric disposition and Expressive disposition.

Role disposition

The person is likely to display one or more of the listed role dispositions.

- **Ascendance:** persons who don't mind being noticed and an individual who does not mind being conspicuous, and is go to any extents to fight for his moralities. Such individuals are not timid by nature
- **Dominance:** such individuals are assertive, strong-minded and self-assured. They are not docile.
- **Social impassive:** such individual are involved in actively and like to be in the fore-front.
- **Self-reliant:** very independent and self-sufficient. People with this disposition are not dependent on anyone.

Sociometric Disposition

These are displayed in person's social relationships.

- **Accommodating:** such people do not judge others and they try to see positive-ness of their nature.
- **Cordiality:** such people love to make friends and they are very social.
- **Sociability:** people who are very friendly by nature and welcoming.
- **Understanding:** such people are sympathetic and concerned about the wellbeing of others.
- **Empathy:** people who are considerate and do not wish to harm other intentionally.

Expressive Disposition

People with expressive disposition would display following traits:

- **Competitiveness:** people with such a disposition are very competitive and regard every one as their rival. They view all relationships as a competitive event. The other extreme disposition of this trait is non-competitiveness.

- **Antagonistic:** such people tend to be very quarrelsome and aggressive. The extreme of this trait is non-aggressive.

- **Awkward-ness:** people with this trait are not very comfortable around others, they are very self-conscious and do not like to be the centre of attraction.

- **Exhibitionistic:** such people also have a tendency towards flamboyance in their mannerism and sense of dressing in order to attract attention of the others, the extreme trait of this disposition is people who feel awkward when given too much attention.

Social behaviour is influenced by the actions and conduct of others; as a result it could be socially accepted or not accepted.

Check Your Progress

5. Who developed the novel discipline of studying social interactions known as social interaction?

6. What is social interaction?

1.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Social psychology is the scientific study of how people's thoughts, feelings and behaviours are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.

2. The goal of social psychology is to understand cognition and behaviour as they naturally occur in a social context, but the very act of observing people can influence and alter their behaviour.

3. The routine player's approach may be understood as the practical knowledge as he has learnt everything by experience and these help the performance of various tasks but this knowledge through practice and experience need not always be detailed, logical or even reliable.

4. The knowledge acquired by an individual with the help of daily life experiences may be referred to as practical knowledge.

5. The sociologist Erving Goffman was the one who developed the novel discipline of studying social interactions known as microsociology, or social interaction.

6. The process through which individuals react and act towards people around them is referred to as social interaction.

1.7 SUMMARY

- Social psychology is the study of social behaviour and the mental experience of people in social contexts.

- The birth date of social psychology is often given as 1908, when two influential early texts by McDougall (a psychologist) and Ross (a sociologist) were published, but the field did not really evolve a separate identity of its own until the mid-1930s and did not gain momentum until after World War II.

- After a decade of little progress, World War II and later part showed growth in several directions.

- The role of group membership and its influence on individual behaviour, personality traits and social behaviour was explored.

- According to psychologist Gordon Allport, 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' (1985).

- While personality psychology focusses on individual traits, characteristics, and thoughts, social psychology is focussed on situations. Social psychologists are interested in the impact that social environment and interaction has on attitudes and behaviour.

- The most prominent difference between a routine player and a specialist can be seen with their depth of knowledge.

- The knowledge acquired by an individual with the help of daily life experiences may be referred to as practical knowledge.

- The scientific knowledge may be referred to as the detailed information and doctrines attained with the help of a prolonged training and examination.

- In social psychology, a vigorous system of social happenings amid people or groups of people is referred to as social interaction; the interactions leads to an alteration in the actions as well as the reactions of the people, as per the actions of the other.

- Social influence is the impact on people's reactions, opinions or behaviours by others in a society; this could be intentional or unintentional.

- Social influence concerning a transformation in behaviour, belief, or way of thinking so that it aligns with the normally accepted standards is referred to as conformity.

- Psychological manipulation is another variable of social influence. The objective in this method is to alter the behaviour of individuals by using means that are offensive, misleading, or devious in order to benefit the manipulator.

- Social behaviour is influenced by the actions and conduct of others; as a result it could be socially accepted or not accepted.

1.8 KEY WORDS

- **Behaviour:** The term 'behaviour' includes thoughts and feelings.

- **Ethnicity:** Ethnicity is the fact or state of belonging to a social group that has a common national or cultural tradition.

- **Folk wisdom:** Folk wisdom is the body of knowledge and experience that originates from the beliefs and opinions of ordinary people.

- **Scientific knowledge:** Scientific knowledge may be referred to as the detailed information and doctrines attained with the help of a prolonged training and examination.

- **Ethnomethodology:** Ethnomethodology is a branch of symbolic interactionism, under this, questions are raised as to how interactions among people is the basis of collective social order when individuals are not able to understand each other completely and they have varied point of views.

1.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. Give an overview of social psychology.

2. What was the impact of World War II on individual behaviour, personality traits and social behaviour?

3. How is social psychology different from other disciplines?

4. What is the most prominent difference between a routine player and a specialist?

5. Write a short note on the study of microsociology.

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the nature and goal of social psychology.

2. Describe the scope of social psychology.

3. Discuss the various steps involved in acquiring scientific knowledge.

4. Social influence has three extensive variabilities. Explain them in detail.

5. Identify the various factors of social influence and describe them.

6. Few of the basic interpersonal response traits can be characterized into three main dispositions. Discuss these dispositions.

1.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2   METHODS OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Structure

2.0   INTRODUCTION

As discussed in the previous unit, social psychology is the study of social behaviour and the mental experience of people in social contexts. Many authorities view it as occupying the area between sociology on the one hand and individual psychology on the other. The early development of social psychology was dominated by theories and research generated in the United States, although many of the most influential pioneers, including Fritz Heider and Kurt Lewin, were emigrants from Europe. After the foundation of the European Association of Experimental Social Psychology in 1967, pressure began to build towards reducing the global dominance of American social psychology. European social psychology has maintained the American tradition of experimental research, but has also tended to give more prominence to non-experimental approaches, such as discourse analysis, social representations research and various qualitative methods. In this unit, you will deal with the various methods of social psychology. This unit will also explain the concept of social development in animals, children and infants.

2.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the three research methods commonly used in psychology
- List the various advantages and disadvantages of experimental method
- Explain the observation method

- Enumerate the four steps of perspective taking
- Explain the process of social development in children and infants

2.2 EXPERIMENT METHOD

Now we will discuss the most important method of scientific enquiry: experimental method which has been developed in psychology by the continuous efforts of psychologists to make an objective and scientific study of human behaviour. One of the major contributions of behaviourism is the development of experimental method to understand, control and predict behaviour. The experimental method is considered to be method par excellence for use in certain areas of educational psychology. It is the most precise, planned, systematic and controlled observation. According to some psychologists, only experiments make possible controlled observation, variation of factors, perfect quantification and rigorous objective checking of hypotheses. The experimental method uses a systematic procedure called experimental design. The term experimental design has two different meanings. One is that experimental design represents the six basic steps referred above which are generally followed in an experiment. The second meaning of experimental design is more restrictive. It is a procedure for assigning subjects to experimental conditions and selecting an appropriate statistical procedure. Experimental design provides important guidelines to the researcher to carry out his research systematically. On the soundness of the design depends findings of the research study. The layout of a design depends on the type of the problem the investigator wants to investigate. Readers should know that no one design solves all the problems of a research study.

There are many problems in educational psychology on which research cannot be conducted in laboratory set-up. Such problems are studied in actual classroom situations. A variety of experimental designs have been developed by researchers in recent years. To acquaint the readers with the basic structure of experimental design we will give an example of laboratory experiment and then few experimental designs which can be used in actual classroom situations, will be briefly mentioned.

1. Laboratory Experiment

Some problems can be conveniently studied in the laboratory where the experimenter can control all variables except the one under study. The experiments can be conducted on individuals or a group of subjects. Thorndike's experiments on cats, Ebbinghaus' experiments on memory, mirror drawing, attention, perception and learning are all examples of laboratory experiments. A sample of laboratory experiment is given below:

1. *Name.* Maneesh *Age.* 10 years. *Sex.* Male.
2. *Date.* 6.2.83. *Time.* 10 a.m.

3. *Physical and mental condition.* Normal.

4. *Problem.* To study the problem of bilateral transfer of training.

5. *Apparatus and material.* Mirror drawing experiment apparatus, stop-watch, paper, pencil and stylus.

   Instruction. Detailed instructions are given to the subject to perform the task.

6. *Experimental design and data*

S. No.	Trial	Time	Error
1.	Right hand		
2.	-do-		
3.	-do-		
4.	-do-		
5.	-do-		
6.	-do-		

S. No.	Trial	Time	Error
1.	Left hand		
2.	-do-		
3.	-do-		
4.	-do-		
5.	-do-		
6.	-do-		

7. *Analysing the results.* The investigator analyses the data obtained from the subject.

8. *Conclusions.* The investigator on the basis of his analysis of data draws certain conclusions.

2. Experimental Designs outside the Laboratory

Experimental designs can be divided on the basis of two important factors: the control procedure and the number of groups involved in an experiment. The type of control employed in an experiment plays an important role in determining the reliability and validity of the conclusions drawn from the experiment. The number of groups involved in an experiment is important to determine the control procedure and the type of research problems an investigation may answer. The number of groups may vary from one, two, three to an infinite number of groups depending on the type of problem and nature of control procedure employed by the experimenter. Following are the samples of experimental designs.

A. One Group Design

1. One group post-test design: This type of design is the simplest one. It is commonly called pre-experimental design. In such type of experiment no formal comparison is possible, for there is no second group with which comparison can be made. Let us illustrate with an example: suppose a teacher treats 10 students who are addicted to smoking in a period of three months. At the end of the period six students give up smoking. Such types of designs do not control any of the sources of invalidity.

2. One group pre-test-post-test design: This is also a simple design and is considered to be a rather poor design though better than one group post-test design. In this design the experimenter first tests a group on some aspects of behaviour and then gives special treatment (*X*) to the same group. He tests the performance of the group after the special treatment. He statistically analyses the data and calculates the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the group.

The paradigm of the design is as follows:

Pre-test	*Independent variable*	*Post-test*
T_1	X	T_2

Example: Suppose in the beginning of the semester, we administer test of educational psychology to students of M.Ed. and then we teach them the subject throughout the semester. At the end of the semester we administer post-test (*T*2), and find out the difference between the scores on the initial and final tests.

B. Two Group Designs

Researches in education and psychology have often been criticised of being loosely controlled. In recent years more rigorous designs have been evolved by using statistics to make researches more scientific and objective.

Generally researchers use two parallel group techniques to see the effects of an independent variable on some dependent variable. Two groups are equated on the basis of significant variable. One group is called experimental and the other is called control group. The experimental group is subjected to a certain experience or to a specific treatment whereas the control group is not given any type of special treatment. After providing special treatment to the experimental group, both the groups are administered the same final test. The scores are statistically compared and conclusions are drawn as regards the effect of special treatment on the experimental group.

1. Pre-test-post-test design: In this design both experimental and control group are administered pre-test and then the experimental group is given special treatment (*X*) whereas the control group is not given any type of treatment. After the special treatment post-test is administered to both the groups. The paradigm is as follows:

S.No.	Group	Pre-test	Treatment	Post-test
1.	Experimental	T_1E	X	T_2E
2.	Control	T_1C	No training	T_2C

2. Randomized control-group pre-test post-test design: The researcher in this design follows the procedure as given here:

(*i*) He selects a subject by random method.

(*ii*) Assigns subjects to group and *X* (Treatment) to groups by random method.

(*iii*) Tests the *Ss* on the dependent variable.

(*iv*) Keeps all conditions the same for both the groups except for exposing the experimental *S* but not the control group to the independent variable for a specific time.

(*v*) Test the '*Ss*' on the dependent variable.

(*vi*) Finds the difference between the two.

(*vii*) Compares the results to see whether the application of *X* (treatment) caused a change in the experimental group.

(*viii*) Applies an appropriate statistical procedure.

3. Matched two group design: A matched two group design is a modification of the totally randomized two group design described above. In this design, both groups are matched in terms of some variable. The experimenter feels he would influence the dependent variable. Suppose we want to test the retention of two types of words closely associated and disassociated. We believe that I.Q. will influence how well a person can retain words, so we match the two groups on I.Q. Let us be more concrete to understand this point. Suppose there are ten subjects with I.Q. as follows:

Subjects	I.Q.
1.	110
2.	110
3.	90
4.	90
5.	80
6.	80
7.	80
8.	80
9.	70
10.	70

In order to divide the ten subjects into two matched groups of 5 subjects each, we first divide the ten subjects into five pairs by going down the list making 1 and 2, 3 and 4 and so on. We then randomly assign one of each pair to either group A or B by flipping a coin.

C. Multigroup Design with One Independent Variable (ANOVA)

Two group paradigms are most common in education and psychology but events in nature do not always conveniently order into two groups. Sometimes the investigator has to compare the effect of different values of some variable or has to see the effect of several alternative variables on more than two groups. The procedure for carrying out one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is the same as for two group designs. The distinguishing feature between the two types of investigation is the type of statistical analysis used.

D. Factorial Design

Factorial design is employed where more than one independent variable are involved in the investigation. Factorial designs may involve several factors which are symbolically represented in the following way:

Design	*Symbolic*
Two factors	$A \times B$
Three factors	$A \times B \times C$
Four factors	$A \times B \times C \times D$
N factors	$A \times B \times C \times D \times N$

E. Small N Design

We have briefly mentioned various experimental designs which are termed as large N group designs. In all large N group designs, the number of subject is large who are divided into two groups. The large N group design is not always applicable in classroom situation. In many instances, the psychologist or teacher is faced with situations in which large N is not possible, for example delinquency, problem of indiscipline, etc. With the introduction of statistics in psychology, it is possible to conduct scientific research on small N group.

Merits of Experimental Method

1. Experimental method is the most systematic procedure of solving problems. It provides reliable information. Research is conducted under rigorously controlled conditions. The major advantage is the ability of the experimenter to control the application and withdrawal of independent variables.

2. The findings of experimental method are verifiable by other investigators under identical conditions in which the initial experiment was conducted.

3. It provides objective and precise information about the problems.

4. Use of computers in data analysis in recent years has opened new frontiers of possibilities for the study of complex problems.

5. It advances our stock of knowledge of cause-effect relationship in the behaviour of students and provides guidelines to solve teaching-learning problems.

6. It tests the traditional beliefs and throws new light on the problems and opens avenues for future progress.

7. It provides innovative ideas for further experimentation.

8. The experimenter can apply controlled procedure more precisely in laboratory experimentation. The experimenter can record the dependent variables more precisely.

Weaknesses of Experimental Method

1. The main objection raised against experimental method is that an experiment is an observation of an artificially determined pattern of behaviour as

Thorndike's cat experiments or Skinner's rat experiments. Thus, we can say that the experimental method sets its own limit by setting the experimental situation to study behaviour.

2. Experimental data do not provide insight into the total behaviour of the subject. We know that behaviour is, for all practical purposes, an interaction between the organism and its environment. Obviously there is more than one way for such interaction to take place. G.S. Klein criticising the experimental method remarked that the appearance of significant relations was often prevented by the rigorous experimental procedure of keeping variables constant. Instead of grasping the process as whole the experimentalists often omit important factors by their tendency to eliminate and isolate experimental variables or to keep them constant.

3. Another limitation of experimental method in educational psychology stems from the fact that experiments cannot handle too well the patterns of covert behaviour of children in laboratory. Overt violent types of actions (riots) do not fit into a laboratory setting and moreover experimental method cannot accurately test the entire gamut of human drives and feelings.

4. Psychologists have criticized the fact that mostly the experiments have been conducted on rats, cats and dogs. Principles have been deduced on the basis of experiments on animals. How far it is justifiable to generalize those principles and laws for human beings has not yet been conclusively decided.

5. The experimental method is time-consuming and costly. Every teacher cannot be expected to conduct experiments as it requires specialized knowledge and skills.

6. All problems of educational psychology cannot be studied by experimental method. No doubt the method of research employs the scientific procedure of acquiring knowledge but due to complexity and tremendous variability of human mind and human phenomena, experiments in social sciences are not possible in the same sense as they are in physical sciences where we can repeat experiments a number of times under controlled and practically identical conditions.

7. In recent years psychologists and religious leaders have raised ethical questions in connection with administration of some psychological tests which encroach upon the privacy of the subjects. Certain situations may not be created because they are not socially acceptable as it is not possible to purchase human infants and raise them in extreme deprivation.

8. The Gestalt psychologists criticise the experimental method because of its quantification aspect. They criticise the inappropriate, imprecise and faulty apparatus of psychologists. It is not possible to construct tools that will make accurate and sufficiently discriminating measurements of individual differences.

9. In many cases investigators cannot manipulate human beings and cannot adjust class schedules to meet the requirements of the research designs that are most theoretically desirable.

10. Social scientists cannot generalise their findings to all human beings. Experiments only produce statements of probability. Certainty cannot be achieved through experimentation.

2.2.1 Observation

With the development of psychology as an objective science of behaviour, the method of introspection was replaced by careful observation of human and animal behaviour to collect data by research workers. Observation literally means looking outside oneself. It is one of the important and basic methods for collecting data in almost all types of research studies. It produces one of the basic elements of science—facts which are collected by observing overt behaviour of the organism in order to locate underlying problem and to study developmental trends of different types. The overt behaviour is the manifestation of covert conditions within the organism. The study of overt behaviour gives indirectly the clue to the mental condition of the organism. The development of systematic observation as a method of collecting data generated interest in developmental psychology and many studies on developmental characteristics of children were conducted which made great contribution to the field of child psychology. Observation may be of different types, direct and indirect, natural and artificial, scheduled and unscheduled, participant and non-participant. We will describe only two types of observations here:

1. **Natural observation:** In natural observation we observe the specific behavioural characteristics of children or adults in natural settings. Subjects do not become conscious of the fact that their behaviour is being observed by someone. The teacher can observe the behaviour of his students on the playground or in any other social situation when students may not be conscious of his presence. In child clinic, one-way screen is used to observe the behaviour of deviant children. The observer can observe the behaviour of children but they cannot see the observer.

2. **Participant observation:** It is the kind of observation in which the observer becomes the part of the group which he wants to observe. He establishes perfect rapport with the group of children or adolescents so that they may not become conscious of his presence and may not hide their actual behaviour.

Observational studies are particularly very important and yield significant results on developmental characteristics of children. No doubt, observation is a scientific technique of collecting data whose results can be verified and relied upon to locate behavioural problems of different types but it suffers from the following limitations.

Limitations of Observation

1. Observation is useful only for collecting data about overt behaviour which is manifested in a number of activities. This overt behaviour does not provide reliable information regarding the internal mental process. We can only guess about the mental state of the individual on the basis of overt behaviour which may or may not be true. It becomes very difficult to draw any conclusion in case of adults who can hide their actual behaviour in the presence of the observer. In such cases observation fails and yields no tangible results which may throw light on the actual behaviour of the subjects.

2. Subjectivity of interpretation is another limitation of observation. The observer may interpret his sensations of external stimulus on the basis of his past experiences. He may be biased in his interpretation by his likings, dislikings and values, etc. His observation may be influenced by his perception of the situation when he makes inferences on the basis of scanty sensory cues. It also suffers from impressionism, prejudice and distraction, etc. It has also been found in some studies that strong personal interests tend to make the researcher see only those things which he wants to see.

3. The method of observation leaves the matter of accounting for the facts 'How and why' side of interpretation of data.

4. Observation is subjected to two kinds of errors, sampling error and observer's error. The first error occurs because of inadequacies of selecting the situation to be observed. Observer's error may be due to the knowledge and background of the situation to be observed. Sometimes, the observer is not familiar with the total situation and hence he may commit errors.

Suggestions for Improvement

In recent years improvements have been made in the method of observation to make it a more objective and reliable instrument of collecting data for research purposes. Following suggestions are given in order to eliminate types of errors:

1. **Use of mechanical devices:** Generally observers do not record their observations immediately on the spot. It is a wrong practice. The observations should be immediately recorded. They should not be left on memory for future because there is every possibility of their being contaminated by personal prejudices and biases of the observers. Sometimes important incidents are left out by failure of recall. The use of mechanical devices such as movie camera or tape recorder may be made to improve the reliability of observation. Use of a system of notation or shorthand may be used for recording purposes.

2. **Definite objectives:** The investigator must in advance specify in clear and definite terms the objectives of the observation. A detailed analysis should be made of behavioural characteristics which are to be observed.

3. **Schedule:** The investigators must decide the time and hour of observation and the schedule should be honestly followed. A detailed schedule in the form of questions or statements should be prepared in advance to note down the observations. The method of recording observation should be made clear. It will be more reliable and objective data if numerical value is assigned to various aspects of behaviour. Detailed instructions should be spelt out to minimize variations in recording observations by different investigators.

4. **Training:** Observation is not a haphazard activity. It is a systematic and scientific method which requires skills, competencies, aptitude, and proper training for observers. The investigator before starting observation must acquire the broad background in the field of his problem. He should train himself to counteract his emotional and intellectual biases in order to report accurate observation. For this purpose he may get rigorous training on similar problems. He should develop keenness and alertness to identify minor incidents in observation. He should make comprehensive and complete notes of all pertinent incidents.

5. **Preciseness:** He should make his observation in precise, concrete and unambiguous form. His description should mean the same thing to other investigators which they mean to him. It will be more reliable if the investigator describes his data quantitatively because numerical measures are more precise than word descriptions which make possible further treatment of the problem by statistical analysis.

2.2.2 Correlational Method

The correlation method is a technique that helps in measuring the possibility of two variables being related to one and other. Most Psychologists frequently want to decide the relation between two behaviours. One of the methods for assessing is with the help of correlations. At times, there is an association between two measurements and thus an increase in one is bound to increase the other establishing a positive correlation. Furthermore there is negative correlation one value of one variable increases in an orderly manner while the other value reduces. For instance, higher score of a student in a test is directly correlates with the amount of time spent studying, this is positive correlation, the high score is due to spending more hours studying and fewer score is due to less number of hours studying. The poor score is due to more number of incorrect answers, the increased number of incorrect answers is because of less hours spent studying, and when the correlation between variables is viewed from this angle it will project a negative correlation: increased number of incorrect answers is connected with fewer number of hours studying. Here value of the former variable increases while the later decreases. Correlations make it possible to assess if the two variables of a group are methodically related. But there may be instances where a student is unable to get high score in spite of

spending many hours studying; these exceptions will not establish that the two variables are not connected. It merely establishes that exceptions are always a possibility.

In psychology, correlational method is used as an initiating step of any experiment. The method can be useful where it is not possible to conduct the experiment. It helps in determining the possibility of a relation among the variables and the extent of the relationship.

It is very essential to understand that the approach of correlational does not permit to make conclusive statements. The correlation method was developed by British scientist Sir Francis Galton. A mathematical formula was formulated by the British statistician Karl Pearson. There are a number of diverse kinds of correlations; the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation is the most popular of them.

Three kinds of correlation methods are as follows:

- The first kind is referred to as natural observation; the variables are observed and recorded without interference in their natural environment. For instance, a teacher could observe the student's performance in class to judge his success at the end of the session. The method is useful when experiments cannot be conducted although the method does not give prompt results and there is no control over the variables.

- The second kind is referred to as survey research. It requires that information is gathered with the help of surveys conducted on random group, the participants may be made to answer the questionnaires. Surveys are often conducted by companies in order to judge the success of their new product, the surveys help in predicting its popularity as well its usefulness. This method gives prompt results and it is also easy to undertake however the reactions of the partakers can alter the results in many ways.

- The third kind is referred to as archival research. It analysis the information gathered by previous researchers. This data helps in saving time as the research has already been done and the researchers are able to use the information free of cost. But the researchers may not find the exact variables in the archival records and would need to scrutinise large quantities of information in order to establish the relationship between the variables. The method of gathering the information also will not be under the control of the researcher.

Relationship between Variables

The method of correlations helps in suggesting that the variables are related to one and other but it is unable to substantiate that the variable can bring about changes in the other. When the tested variables are not associated there cannot be a causal link among them. For instance if the student is not attending regular classes, he is bound to perform badly at the end of the session. There is a casual connection

between low attendance and bad performance, these are the two variables and from this it cannot be proved that the student will get good grades in case the attendance is more.

2.2.3 Situational Observation

Researches in psychology are often carried out with the help of observational methods, these methods help in observing and describing the behaviour of the subject. Researchers that opt for this method are able to employ changeable quantities of control on the environment where the observation is being conducted. Due to this the researches based on observation help in creating a buffer between the researches that use extremely regulated methods of experiments and between those that are casual and involves just conversations.

Situation observation implicates that the behaviour of the subjects is studied in several varied locations involving diverse situations and circumstances. When the subjects are observed in different situations the researchers are able to decrease the possibility that the obtained outcomes are pertaining to a specific situation, it increases the scope of the research when several situations are involved. As a result situational observations considerably increase the peripheral legitimacy of the results. In comparison to researches that are conducted by observing the subjects in a specific setting. The researches with this method are able to involve more number of subjects. Though, the researchers use similar subjects in all situations. A valid example of situational observation can be seen in the study conducted by LaFrance and Mayo in 1976, the research was about the dissimilarities in the direction of the gazes during a conversation. Under this, observations were held on couples in different situations during a conversation, various venues such as the college canteens, eateries, airport and waiting lounges at the hospitals, and business centres were used. This method enabled the researchers to notice a large variety of people and they belonged to varied classes, ages, sex, race and status, therefore the external legitimacy of the research was enhanced considerably.

Check Your Progress

1. Mention some examples of laboratory experiments.

2. Differentiate between the experimental group and control group.

3. Define correlation method.

2.3 DEVELOPMENT OF SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR

Understanding the causes of social behaviour forms the centrepiece of social psychology. This means identifying those factors that shape our feelings, thoughts and behaviour, in social situations (refer Figure 2.1).
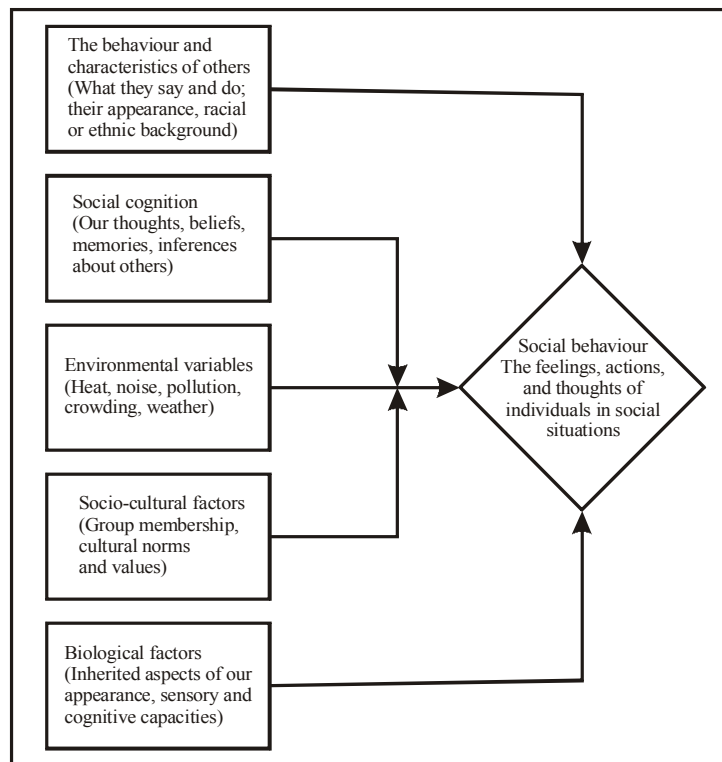
Fig. 2.1 *Understanding Social Behaviour*

Social behaviour: A summary of its major causes

Social behaviour—made up of our thoughts, feelings and behaviour—stems from several causes. The following points explain Figure 2.1 better:

- **Box 1:** How would our feelings, thoughts and behaviour be affected when we are introduced to a person who is attractive, smart and pleasant, with a smile?

- **Box 2:** Someone jumps the queue while we are law-abiding and waiting for our turn, patiently.

- **Box 3:** Recall how irritated and unpleasant we were in routine interaction with others on a hot, sweaty/humid day in contrast to the cooler, comfortable times.

- **Box 4:** Remember how we relate better to those persons who share our cultural, linguistic and value orientations as compared with those, who are different in these respects.

- **Box 5:** Our own appearance, strengths and limitations in terms of our capabilities and other personal attributes that have a significant impact in terms of determining our social behaviour.

Social behaviour and social thoughts can be better understood from the following findings of a study about people with ASD (autism spectrum disorders). Our friends

are people who make us feel good about ourselves. While this is a simple truth, creating those friendships is a complex process, especially for individuals with ASD, with their pervasive social learning challenges.

Another truth, one gleaned from years of working with high-functioning individuals with ASD and discussing their social desires with them, is that all persons on the autism spectrum want people to be friendly to them. They desire friendships and dislike having enemies. They are no different from neurotypical people in their desire to create and maintain healthy relations. The difference in is their brain's ability to negotiate the subtlety of keeping relations friendly.

Children and adults with ASD have difficulty interpreting others' intended social messages. They also more frequently send 'mis-cues' to others about their own social intentions. Even many higher functioning students with Asperger Syndrome go unaware of how other people perceive them, and the unintentional message their social actions send. They may be oblivious to the fact that others see them as sullen and do not desire their friendship because they fail to initiate or respond to a social greeting.

It is important to break down these complex concepts into concrete, understandable steps. To begin with, let us understand when and where social thinking is involved. It is a common misconception, especially among students that social thinking is involved only in social interactions, such as hanging out with friends or playing a game. It takes much discussion for students to begin to realize that social thinking is active any time they share space with others, even if they are not in direct communication. How many of us move our shopping carts out of the way of a fellow shopper walking down the same aisle of a grocery store? That is social thinking.

Social thinking is active not just when we are in the company of others but any time we are thinking about others. When alone, do not we analyse past social interactions in our heads, wondering if the other person perceived our actions in the intended way? We make a call or send an e-mail to clarify a message or offer an apology when we realize we may have been misinterpreted, or that our actions were just plain wrong. This is again social thinking at work.

Social thinking dominates our overall thinking time in a day. We use social thinking before, during and after a social encounter. Social thought helps us determine how best to shape our behaviour so that others have good thoughts about us in return. If our goal is to help our students become better social thinkers, simply teaching a social skill is not enough. We must also teach these students about the presence of other people's own minds and social thoughts.

A useful strategy with middle school and older students is to use 'The Four Steps of Perspective Taking'. These steps help students recognize and consider the extent to which we think about others and adjust our behaviour even in the absence of intentional communication.

We engage the following four steps in any social interaction:

(i) **Step 1:** As soon as two people share a common space, they have a thought about each other. I have a thought about you; you have a thought about me.

(ii) **Step 2:** I consider the other person's intentions and motives. If they seem suspicious, I will monitor the person more closely. The other person will also consider my intentions and motives.

(iii) **Step 3:** Each person considers what the other may be thinking about him. Is it positive, negative, neutral? Is there a history between us upon which we weigh these thoughts?

(iv) **Step 4:** I monitor and possibly modify my behaviour to keep the other person thinking about me the way I want them to think about me. They are doing the same for me.

These four steps happen within milliseconds and at an intuitive level, below our immediate consciousness. The first three steps involve social thought; behaviour is involved only in Step 4.

It should be kept in mind that this process is based on the basic assumption that we all desire people to have reasonably nice thoughts about us, even when our encounters are brief. Embedded in this assumption is its opposite: we do not want people to have bad thoughts about us. It can be challenging for people with ASD to just perceive that others have different thoughts, let alone think that we all have good thoughts and weird thoughts about others. Most people with ASD never stop to consider that they, too, have bad thoughts about other people.

Many people appreciate the role that social memories play in day-to-day interaction. We all have social emotional memories of people based on how they make us think about them over time. Those people whose actions plant 'normal' to 'good' thoughts in other people's minds are much more likely to be considered friendly and have higher chances of making friends than those who create a lot of weird thought memories in the minds of others. The reason we may go call a friend or co-worker to apologize for how our actions may have been interpreted is to foster better social memories about ourselves in their brain.

2.3.1 Animals, Social Life of Insects, Dominance and Status, Mammals

Animal social behaviour is the way they interact with each their own species, they create simple groups and their behaviour collaborates during sex and parenting or the take part in quarrels because of territory and accessibility of their companions, or merely interact with each other. Interaction defines social behaviour and it is not dependent on the distribution. Bundling up is not needed for social behaviour; it only helps in increasing the chances of interaction. When a lion makes a roaring sound for asserting his dominance and presence, he is doing a social action. The social life of animals has drawn attention of many animal behaviourists and evolutionary biologists, and there are many documentaries filmed in order to capture the amazing multiplicity of social interactions among animals.

The Extent of Social Behaviour among Animals

The extent can be clearly understood by seeing the benefits of sociality for the individual animals involved. Since cooperating with others is innately unsafe and can cost a lot, in spite of this the animals interact with each other. They bunch up together and exhibit social behaviour.

An advantage of bunching enhances accessibility of food as animals are able to gather and share information and due to the cooperation between them they are able to defend themselves against members of other groups. On the other hand, nearness to own species upsurges the possibility of cannibalism, parasitism, and disease. This is very well described in the studies of American cliff swallows; the study suggested the initial advantages of bunching and formation of colonies. The formation of colonies led to other advantages like predators could be detected more efficiently but all the benefits came with a high cost, this included susceptibility to parasites like ticks, fleas etc. was increased, there were frequent incidences of food being stolen and now hunting had to be carried out in faraway areas.

There were few benefits that overlapped with the disadvantages for instance; formation of colonies provided the males the opportunity to mate with other females apart from their prime mate however this was not so advantageous for males with cuckold tendency. In the same way colonies allowed the females to lay eggs in alternate nests but this practice of conspecific brood parasitism became a problem for the pair in whose nest the eggs were laid. Grouping helped in detection and over-powering the prey but at the same time the prey had to be shared between many. Another fact is that all members of the group are not dominating and the ones who dominate tend to cost the weaker into subordination. For social behaviour, to sustain in a population the subordinates have to benefit from the group or they would opt to leave the group and live and multiply individually.

At the same time bunching up has many advantages, the members are able to stay safe during winter months as they remain close and keep each other warm, better defence increases the chances of survival, resources are gathered easily and better utilised. Mutual attraction is another cause for aggregation in animals. The attraction could be towards a limited source or after hatching of eggs, especially in case of bark beetles, they are mutually attracted to a fallen log of a bark and towards the smell of others in their species.

Irrespective of the factors of attraction, grouping helps in enhancing not only the interaction but also cooperation and provides all the benefits of living in a group. The interaction between genetically related members of a group would always reflect nepotism.

Animals of eusocial species exhibit the height of social behaviour. There groups are multigenerational where huge majority of individuals work together to help reasonably small reproductive group members. The behaviour is mostly found in insects and only in two mammals. The members of this species display great

task specialization, thus making their colonies very effective for accumulating resources.

Reproductive interactions are also prone to the approach of the benefits and cost aspects. For instance in several species the reproductive behaviour is developed for achieving numerous mating, but this comes with the cost of increasing the risk of transmitting diseases sexually and in some cases can lead to injuries as well. Animal behaviour during mating involves sending signals of the intention for mating, attracting the mates, wooing, coupling, and behaviour after copulation. Behaviour of the parents can range between no care to extreme care by the parents as well as the other members of the group. Biologists have referred to interactions as investments that help in mating and increase the chances of the survival of the young-ones due to the efforts of the parents.

Social behaviour involves dominance and preservation of territories, irrespective of the numbers. Territorial species have a tendency to be scattered as per the countryside randomly. Territorial behaviour involves having control over the space and this may lead to aggression against the intruders.

Therefore, it is clear that the social behaviour among animals is an intricate arrangement of the benefits and the cost of living in a group, supremacy interactions, clashes between the sexes, favouritism with relatives in the group and lastly cooperation. The social behaviour of animals is very diverse and provides the evolutionary biologists with lots of material for understanding their processes.

Social Life of Insects

Insects living in colonies are considered to be social insects. They have a system of division of labour and they perform their duties on the basis of this division.

Numerous species of insects live in colonies and for this reason they are referred to as social insects. They all have three basic characteristics; these are: group assimilation, division of labour, and overlapping of generations. All species of termites, ants, bees and wasps are examples of social insects.

Caste of the social insects are distinguished on the basis of their social structure, functions, and conduct, the chief ones are the ones involved in reproduction, the queen and the others act as her workers and the soldiers of the colony. The members of the reproductive caste not only perform the primary function of reproducing but they also decide the venue for the colony and start the process of digging. The workers are responsible for looking after the collection of food, take-care of the eggs and larvae, and construction and repair work of the nest and as the name suggests the soldiers are responsible for safeguarding the colony from external threat.

General characteristics of Social Behaviour of Insects

- Parental care is part of natural behaviour among social insects. The young ones are given food, shelter and protection.

- Social insects build their nest with rich structures that protect them from predators, help in storage of food and care of the young.

- Polymorphism is the existence of numerous forms in a species. It denotes the speciality of individuals in a species. In the animals displaying polymorphism, those at the core reproduce and the ones at the boundary protect and take the brunt of the enemy, they do not reproduce. These are organisms are also referred to as super-organisms occasionally. The social insects are the most noticeable illustrations of super-organisms. These are present in two classes of Insects, Isoptera and Hymenoptera.

- All members of the colony are produced by a single female, it is a matriarchal society and all are having the same types of genetic factor.

- The nests sometimes attract extra populations; these are few varieties of aphids, beetles, mites etc. They are attracted due to the conducive temperature and extra food. Ants and termites protect and feed the extra members as well.

- Unified colony helps in keeping the members together. They have extreme team spirit and feeling of belonging. This helps in keeping the social insects together. There is enough supply of food in the colonies for feeding the larvae.

- When food is exchanged or shared between different species of insects it is known as trophallaxis. Termites and ants feed one and another with the help of their mouths. Food is exchanged between the adults and the offspring as well. Trophallaxis is an essential occurrence in determining and regulating the castes in the colony of termites.

- The feature of communication is very intriguing in social as well as non-social insects. Communication is carried out with the help of chemical, optical, tactile and audio signals. Chemical communication takes place due to the secretions called pheromones from the body.

- Exiting their nests in order to relieve the congestion is known as swarming. The process usually occurs in the summer months and spring time.

Dominance and Status

Individuals in a group are organised according to their domination and status. This takes happens when individuals competing for resources becomes aggressive.

The best illustration of dominance is presented by Schjelderup-Ebbe through his observations of chickens, he realised during his study that their rankings followed a predictable pattern, the rankings are established due quarrels because of food, and the looser always submitted to the winner. Every member of the flock is aware about the chickens ranked above them and the ones below them. Schjelderup-Ebbe named the top-ranked chicken as 'despot'. Chicken that dominate frequently remind the subordinates about their higher social status by

pecking painfully on them. He also felt that the hierarchy was accepted through hereditary and was not inculcated. As a result of this expressive system of hierarchy, the phrase 'pecking order', that had been put together by Schjelderup-Ebbe came to be recognised as a sign of dominance. The research became the basis of several other researches in the following years; it was used to understand the dominance hierarchies of other birds such as dark-eyed juncos as well. The research helped in understanding the social ranking among cattle and macaques, it was used to understand the behaviours of other extremely developed social beings, and even the social hierarchies of humans were understood with the help of the research. It was established that dominance in social system is a feature of the life cycle of all living beings.

Dominance hierarchies may be despotic or linear. When dominance of a single individual prevails it is a despotic hierarchy. In a linear hierarchy, as illustrated in pecking order study of Ebbe the dominating chicken dominates all the chickens below him and the ones above him dominate him as well. Dominance is a part of all social animal species; it prevails among primates even though they usually live in groups. Dominance hierarchies are known to exist among fishes, birds, and mammals. They could be basic linear structures that are established due to the physical strength of individuals living in a group as a result of a competition over resources. Multifaceted social interactions between individuals in the group also have a direct impact on the dominance hierarchies.

Among animal living in a group, the leader is dominates every one and dominance is established by winning battles and other exhibitions of strength. In animals mating is also largely dependent on the dominance hierarchies.

Social Behaviour of Mammals

Mammals are an excellent species for investigating the constrictions and tractability of social behaviour as they exhibit a very wide range of social systems, together with similar deviation in social intricacy, social flexibility, mental ability and ability of reasoning. Mammals are capable of exhibiting extra variant as compared with social behaviour of other species such as birds and social insects as their development pace is longer and they have comparatively more time, moreover they have a longer life span thus giving the individuals time to establish long-term social relations personally and with the group and lastly they have the mental ability (brain size) of reasoning that is not there in other species.

This does not imply that the social behaviour of other species does not have the features like intricacy and complexity; rather there is adequate proof to recommend that similar principles are present in the social behaviour of species other than mammals. For instance in few species of birds it has been found that they live in pairs or groups and there are few that live strictly in pairs and cannot tolerate intruders, this trait indicates pattern is seen in mammals and birds. Likewise, one-to-one mating has been known as a phylogenetically vigorous state for the

development of willing breeding in mammals as well as social insects and birds. The other species also exhibit reasoning abilities, parental care is seen in other species also especially birds. Lastly, individuals of all species are known to exhibit different behaviour as per the contexts, changes in the environment. The mammals tend to behave as the other species do in most circumstances; they are not supreme in any way. The differences in their social behaviour occur due to the factors mentioned earlier and internal pregnancy and lactation are two added features that to some extent have an impact on their behaviour.

Social System Components

Mammals have a social system that can be divided into three components, these are connected with each other however differ heuristically.

Social organization is determined with the help of their size, structure, unity and genomic structure of a social unit. There are three primary social organizations, in the first system the older individuals may lead a solo life; in the second system pairs may be formed with opposite sex and coordinate the activities and in the third system the individuals may form groups by associating and coordinating their activities with more members of the same species.

The mating system is different among mammals and this plays an important role in the social behaviour and interactions among individuals. On the basis of the regular number of males and females as mating, the pattern can be separated as monogamous, polygynous, polyandrous and promiscuous. A specific system of mating signifies the result of the reproductive strategies and presence of conflicts based on sexual interaction. The decisions about mating are flexible, there is a difference in the number of male and females, age factor, mating preference and the decisions are effected by characteristics of social organization or dominance. For instance, among the groups of wolves, meerkats and tamarins, in spite of the presence of multiple females in the group only one of them will be reproducing. The mating system is controlled by male or female dominance. The dominance is affected by factors such as size of the group and interactions within the group.

Finally the social structure is determined with the number of social relationships. Every dyadic social relationship is demarcated by the importance and designing of interactions among its members. Interactions between the individuals of a species are determined by a number of factors such as age, gender, kinship, authority, disposition and circumstance. Thus there is lot of flexibility in behaviour of an individual and they tend to behave differently towards other members of the species. However in spite of the variations there are certain factors that keep the social relationships inflexible, these include sharpness of dominance grades or levels of tolerance, they are extremely inflexible and help in characterising the pattern of dominance in a species. Therefore most of the social behaviour of the mammals can be deliberated through the level of flexibility and constrictions on activities.

2.3.2 Social Development in Children and Infants

Social development may be referred as the progression that helps the children to interact with people around them. While growing up the child develops and perceives their individual personality in the community they live, the skill of communication is also learnt by interaction and actions. Social development is frequently in reference with the ability of the child to develop relations in life, making friends, handling conflicts with peers.

Social development has a direct influence on several other developments and experiences of the child. Children with an ability to interact in a vigorous manner with individuals in their life are able to learn many new things and enhance their vocabulary; they are able to overcome the pressure from their peers in school life and handle adult life challenges as well. Strong social development helps the child in the following manner:

- Development of language skills
- Improves the ability to interact with children and elders
- Helps in building confidence and self-esteem
- Build up learning skills
- Ability to resolve conflicts
- Builds a positive attitude
- Develops a sociality and friendliness

The social development during infant and younger age lays the foundation of relationships of adult life. Healthy development is very essential. Parents, family members and teachers are instrumental in social development of the young ones.

Check Your Progress

4. What is social thinking?

5. State any two general characteristics of social behaviour of insects.

2.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Thorndike's experiments on cats, Ebbinghaus' experiments on memory, mirror drawing, attention, perception and learning are some examples of laboratory experiments.

2. The experimental group is subjected to a certain experience or to a specific treatment, whereas the control group is not given any type of special treatment.

3. The correlation method is a technique that helps in measuring the possibility of two variables being related to one and other.

4. Social thinking is what individuals do when interacting with other people: namely, they think about them.

5. The two general characteristics of social behaviour of insects are as follows:

   - Parental care is part of natural behaviour among social insects. The young ones are given food, shelter and protection.

   - Social insects build their nest with rich structures that protect them from predators, help in storage of food and care of the young.

2.5 SUMMARY

- The experimental method is considered to be method par excellence for use in certain areas of educational psychology.

- It is the most precise, planned, systematic and controlled observation.

- There are many problems in educational psychology on which research cannot be conducted in laboratory set-up. Such problems are studied in actual classroom situations.

- Experimental designs can be divided on the basis of two important factors: the control procedure and the number of groups involved in an experiment.

- Two group paradigms are most common in education and psychology but events in nature do not always conveniently order into two groups.

- Factorial design is employed where more than one independent variable are involved in the investigation.

- Experimental method is the most systematic procedure of solving problems. It provides reliable information.

- The main objection raised against experimental method is that an experiment is an observation of an artificially determined pattern of behaviour as Thorndike's cat experiments or Skinner's rat experiments.

- Observation literally means looking outside oneself. It is one of the important and basic methods for collecting data in almost all types of research studies.

- In natural observation we observe the specific behavioural characteristics of children or adults in natural settings.

- Observational studies are particularly very important and yield significant results on developmental characteristics of children.

- The method of observation leaves the matter of accounting for the facts 'How and why' side of interpretation of data.

- The correlation method is a technique that helps in measuring the possibility of two variables being related to one and other.

- Situation observation implicates that the behaviour of the subjects is studied in several varied locations involving diverse situations and circumstances.

- Social thinking is active not just when we are in the company of others but any time we are thinking about others.

- Animal social behaviour is the way they interact with each their own species, they create simple groups and their behaviour collaborates during sex and parenting or the take part in quarrels because of territory and accessibility of their companions, or merely interact with each other.

- Insects living in colonies are considered to be social insects. They have a system of division of labour and they perform their duties on the basis of this division.

- Mammals are an excellent species for investigating the constrictions and tractability of social behaviour as they exhibit a very wide range of social systems, together with similar deviation in social intricacy, social flexibility, mental ability and ability of reasoning.

- Social development has a direct influence on several other developments and experiences of the child. Children with an ability to interact in a vigorous manner with individuals in their life are able to learn many new things and enhance their vocabulary; they are able to overcome the pressure from their peers in school life and handle adult life challenges as well.

2.6   KEY WORDS

- **Behaviourism:** Behaviourism is a systematic approach to understanding the behaviour of humans and other animals.

- **Factorial Design:** Factorial design is employed where more than one independent variable are involved in the investigation.

- **Natural Observation:** In natural observation we observe the specific behavioural characteristics of children or adults in natural settings. Subjects do not become conscious of the fact that their behaviour is being observed by someone.

- **Participant Observation:** It is the kind of observation in which the observer becomes the part of the group which he wants to observe.

- **Eusociality:** Eusociality, the highest level of organization of sociality, is defined by the following characteristics: cooperative brood care, overlapping generations within a colony of adults, and a division of labour into reproductive and non-reproductive groups.

2.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. What is the experiment method?
2. Write a short note on ANOVA.
3. What are the various advantages and disadvantages of experimental method?
4. Identify the various limitations of observation method.
5. What do you understand by the term 'situation observation'?
6. Enumerate the four steps of perspective taking.

Long Answers Questions

1. Discuss the three research methods commonly used in psychology.
2. Explain the observation method in detail.
3. Describe the two types of observations.
4. There are three kinds of correlation methods. Discuss each one of them with suitable examples.
5. Explain the process of social development in children and infants.

2.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 3   INDIVIDUAL, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

Structure

3.0   INTRODUCTION

Individual refers to existence as a distinct entity. Individuality also mentioned as selfhood is a feature of an individual; mainly the presence of the being is distinct from others and the individual possesses self needs, aims, liberties and duties. The precise definition of an individual has always been an essential part of many disciplines like biology, law, psychology and sociology. In this unit, you will deal with the concepts like individual, society and social reality. This unit will also discuss the socio-economic status, open and closed societies, primary and secondary cultural groups, rural and urban language, child rearing practices and values.

3.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain how individual have a very close relation with the society

- Describe the concept of social reality

- Discuss socio-economic status (SES)

- Explain how language plays an important role in differentiating various social groups

- List the various factors affecting child rearing practices

3.2 INDIVIDUAL, SOCIETY AND SOCIAL REALITY

Since the fifteenth century, in statistics and metaphysics, an individual is defined as 'indivisible', stereotypically defining any mathematically single unit, but occasionally it refers to 'a person'. Since the seventeenth century, individual specifies distinctiveness, as per individualism.

Over the years both individuality and individualism have matured and in present times a compos mentis adult person is commonly regarded by state of law as an 'individual human being'. Person who deny individual liability also are regarded in the same way. An individual has to take the liability of the activities, decisions and commands as they are answerable to law within their country as well international.

Being a social animal an individual has a normal need to live an accompanying life with other individuals. Individual requires a society for existence as well as subsistence.

Individual has a very close relation with the society. Basically, it is the society that helps in preventing the individual from behaving in an anti-human manner with the help of rules, duties and customs. The society also exists because of the individual. The individual survives and performs all the activities in a society however society is nonentity. It is there to work for individuals and the fact is that life of the individuals and the society are closely associated as individuals are physically and mentally trained to survive in groups that are a part of the society. Society is needed for continuance of individuals. Individual is dependent on the society. Individual is bounded and involved by culture in the society and he is compelled by it to adhere to the standards prescribed by it. There is a strong relationship between the two as they are conjointly reliant on each other. They grow and develop with the help of one and other. The eventual aim of society is to endorse moral and contented life for the individual. The conditions and opportunities required for overall development of individuals are created in the society. The harmony between individuals is ensured in the society.

Society

A society may be defined as a group of individuals involved in determined social interaction or a big social group having similar geographical or social territory and usually follow one political authority and central cultural beliefs. Societies may be categorized according to the arrangements of social relationships among the individual, these individuals have common culture and organisations thus any given society can be understood as the summing up of all the relations between its living members.

In broader sense and as per the thinking of the structuralist, a society could be explained as an economic, social, industrial or cultural structure, consisting of

individuals with varied dispositions. From this explanation society can be understood as the neutral associations individuals have among each other and the physical world. Society helps in establishing the social environment of the individuals.

The activities of an individual are liberated and limited by the society this helps them to live a fulfilling life. Society is a structure of practices and measures of authority that helps in controlling the behaviour of individuals. Society is a constantly evolving system. The existence of a society is possible when the people living in it behave and maintain cordial relations with each other.

Humans are not the only living beings living in a society, there are several animal species like birds, social insects that have societies. Humans need society for their survival and in the same way societies cannot exist in the absence of their members. The relation between both is complex yet interesting and none of the sociologists have been able understand their dependence and the conflicts. They have not been able to resolve the conflict as well.

Many thinkers have tried to explain their relation. Functionalists believe that individuals help in the formation of the society with the help of the impact of associations like family, school and place of work. Herbert Spencer, Emile Durkheim and along with Karl Marx were initial functionalists, they looked at society independent of the individual. Durkheim regarded, 'society is reality'; it's origin and importance is prior to the individual. Through the discussion of the collective consciousness the thinker indicated that individual's attitude, viewpoints and emotions are affected by social interactions and relationships and eventually the influences of the society. The theory of 'collective representation' was used for understanding of phenomena like religion, madness and the notion of social unity. His views were completely contrasting with Auguste Comte, as for him individual was merely an abstraction, Durkheim allotted him a more substantial position and believed that he was an outcome of the influences of the group and social culture. The importance of society in the construction of personality of the individual cannot be denied. Both social interactions and human association help in the development of an individual's personality.

Social Reality

Social reality is not same as biological reality or individual cognitive reality as it represents the level of phenomenology that has been developed as a result of social interaction and thereby outdoing motives and actions of the individual. In the language of common man, social reality can be regarded acceptance of the community's social doctrines that contain the reasonably established laws and social exemplifications. Radical constructivism will thoughtfully define social reality as the product of regularities between viewers.

Social Reality for Schütz, Durkheim, and Spencer

Philosophers of the phenomenological tradition, mostly Alfred Schütz, have treated extensively the issue of social reality. He has made use of the term 'social world' to

label this different level of reality. As a part of the social world, Schütz differentiated between social reality which could have been experienced openly (umwelt) and a so the social reality away from the direct perspective, experience of this would require effort. He felt that ethnomethodology reconnoitred the silent structure of individual's routine capabilities and abilities with social reality. The concept has been discussed earlier in several disciplines including sociology. Émile Durkheim laid stress on the diverse nature of the social realm, and the notion of reality. Herbert Spencer developed the phrase super-organic in order to differentiate level of social reality from the biological and psychological levels.

Social Reality for John Searle

For John Searle, language was crucial for the creation of social reality, he employed the theory of speech in order to discover the nature of social reality, he felt that aspects like matrimony, property, employing, sacking, war, revolutions, get-togethers, administration, conferences, unions, parliaments, businesses, laws, restaurants, holidays, lawyers, lecturers, physicians, feudal knights fell under the rubrics of social reality. Searle maintained that these institutional realities intermingled together and formed 'systematic relationships' that helped in creating a multifaceted social reality.

He stressed on language as a source of social reality since 'language is precisely designed to be a self-identifying category of institutional facts'; it is a system of symbols that have been accepted by everyone, he further stated it importance, and said, language, 'persist through time independently of the urges and inclinations of the participants.'

Objectivity of Social Reality

Social theory has been surrounded with the debate, if existence of social reality is independent of human involvement or else, as believed in social constructionism that it is merely a creation of humans for the process of continuous interactions.

According to Peter L. Berger the process of construction of social reality has following steps: externalization, objectivation and internalization. On the same lines R. D. Laing stressed that, 'once certain fundamental structures of experience are shared, they come to be experienced as objective entities...they take on the force and character of partial autonomous realities, with their own way of life'. However along with this Laing also maintained that these socially real grouping were merely the varied views and actions of the members.

The survival of a social reality free of individuals or the ecology would clash with the outlooks of perceptual psychology, also with the views of J. J. Gibson, and with all the economics theories of ecology.

It has been argued by John Searle that 'a socially constructed reality presupposes a reality independent of all social constructions'. Simultaneously he accepted that humans themselves constructed social realities and the best way to understand the unrelenting presence of established facts is merely that the individuals

openly involved and an adequate number of members of the related communities need to continuously acknowledge and agree to the presence of these facts.

Measuring Social Reality

In case the authenticity of social reality has to be accepted then there has to be a scientific method of measuring, and this measurement should be connected with the exploration of trust. Francis Fukuyama argued that trust is an integral part of the social capital of any community and it profound roots that are based in history and culture. The scholars in the field of sociology frequently refer to theories of the measurement of trust as theories of social capital, in order to highlight its association with economics, and the capacity to measure productivities in the similar sense.

Propaganda

An essential feature of social reality is the principle of 'big lie'. It establishes that people are prone to believe an extreme lie than a less extreme truth. There are many events throughout history that easily confirm to this feature. Effective propagandists existed in ancient times and their presence is even stronger now. Many examples from politics and theology (e.g., the claim that the Roman Emperor was in fact a 'god') demonstrate that this principle was known by effective propagandists from early times, and continues to be applied to this day. Noam Chomsky and Edward S. Herman have proven the thesis of 'big lie' with several examples.

Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'individual'.

2. What is a society?

3. What is an essential feature of social reality?

3.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Socio-economic status (SES) is an economic and sociological collective aggregate. It helps in recognising the economic and social status of individuals or their families in comparison to the others. The SES is recognised on the basis of earnings, education, and profession. While considering the SES of a family the entire household income along with the individual incomes would be considered, the joint earnings, education and professions of family members will be examined, but for working out the SES of an individual only his personal attributes will be calculated. SES is mostly helpful in depicting the society's overall economic disparity. There are commonly three levels of socioeconomic status, namely high, middle, and low, these levels describe the stand of the family or an individual in the society. The assessment has to be made after considering any one of the three variables.

It has been observed that individuals having less income and educational qualifications are more prone to health problems such as respiratory disorders, viral infections, arthritis, heart disease, and mental disabilities, etc. The conditions at the place of work could be one of the reasons for these ailments among people with low income.

In families with high SES, education is regarded as an essential aspect and lot of stress is given to it. Education is not on the priority list of the families with low SES as their children are made to work from young age in order to supplement the income of the family. Food and shelter take precedence over education.

3.3.1 Open Society and Closed Society

In an open society some levels of disparities would be present however the individuals would have the option to enhance their social class or step down to a lower class in society. An ideal society is the one that is open but such a state is not possible in the practical world. In such a society individuals as a result of their efforts, matrimony, or sheer luck could move to a higher social class. USA is in some ways an open society although there are many hurdles that have to be conquered.

The moving up the social ladder is not easy and accompanies many difficulties and responsibilities, some of them are:

Often individuals competing for a higher status in society lack the required capability and their failures leads to frustration and disheartenment.

Individuals trying to achieve higher status have to devote a lot of time and effort as a result they may not be able to spend adequate time with their loved ones. It has been often observed that people tend to compromise on their morals and values for achieving better status.

People after climbing to a higher status might lose out on few meaningful relations and experience loneliness.

Closed Societies

In closed societies, an individual's status in society is determined from the time of birth and is permanent. The person does not have an option to change the status all through their live. This may be stated to as ascribed status. Societies where caste system prevails the individuals do not have the liberty to change their caste and resulting in a closed society system. The caste in which the individual is born remains with his entire life; in fact his children will also belong to the same caste. The marriage alliances also have to be arranged within the caste and members are prohibited from marrying into other castes. In India, there were four main castes, the Brahmins comprising of priests, scholars and teachers; then were the Kshatriyas comprising of rulers, fighters and administrators; next were the Vaishyas comprising of farmers and merchants and the lowest in the system were the Shudras comprising of manual worker and domestic help. The harijans

were considered to be lower than the shudras as well and often referred as untouchables by members of higher class.

People living in a closed society cannot become a part of the upper class as the levels are dependent on the castes rather than the economic status.

3.3.2 Primary and Secondary Culture Groups

When two or more individuals interacting with each other have common features and mutual sense of belonging, it can be stated that belong to a common social group. The term social group has been systematically defined by the famous social psychologist Muzafer Sherif, according to him individuals in a social unit interact with each other for the purpose of:

- Achieving collective objectives

- Have agreed upon sharing work

- The relationships are developed around status

- Have common norms, values and morals pertaining to the well-being of the group

- Have agreed to fairly punish all defaulters of the group

According to sociologists on the basis of their characters social groups can be divided as primary or secondary group. A primary group is usually a social group that is small in size and members are closely knit together. The members share an affectionate relation with all their members. They share joy and sorrow together. The groups are culturally also similar. The aim of the primary groups is to strengthen their bonding and other aspects are not so important. Family is an example of primary social group.

The conception of the primary group was done Sociologist Charles Cooley, he introduced the concept in the book, Social Organization: A Study of the Larger Mind in 1909. The personal identities of individuals are essentially developed with the help of the primary group they belong to. According to him primary groups had a great impact on the individuals and indirectly on the overall social system.

Functions of Primary Groups

The primary groups provide their members with care, support, concern, affection, etc. The examples of primary groups can be family, close friendship, groups formed in church, support groups during crisis. Here the relationships are lasting and sometimes lasts till the individual's life. These groups help in positive development of the members and provide mental strength as well.

As compared to primary groups, secondary groups are larger and members are not closely knit together, they are formed in order to achieve a specific goal. The interaction between the members is more formal and impersonal. Since they are formulated for achieving specific objectives hence their existence ceases as

soon as the objective is achieved. People are mostly not emotionally attached with the secondary group members as they are in a primary group.

Cooley outlined the difference between the two groups; according to him people became a part of the primary group as soon as they were born whereas the secondary group membership came much later in life. The individual for his overall wellbeing had to be a member of a primary group but secondary membership is always optional. Some examples of secondary groups could be place of employment, class-mates, patient-doctor, team of sport players etc. A secondary group over a period of time can take shape of a primary group.

Functions of Secondary Group

- Individuals are a part of the secondary group for a specific purpose and their responsibilities are predefined.
- The groups help in fulfilling the interest and hobbies of the members
- Provide an opportunity to interact with people belonging to different walks of life
- Helps in professional life of the members
- New friendships are created through the secondary group

3.3.3 Rural and Urban Language

Language plays a very important role in differentiating various social groups. It helps the individuals belonging to various cultural and ethnic groups to interact with each other. In a society that houses multiple cultures the language helps in maintaining the identity of the cultural groups. There is a chance that the society could be divided on the basis of diversity of language however it helps in binding the ethno-linguistic groups as it maintains their mutual ancestry and traditions, particular traits of culture. The urban societies are able to stay connected with their rural roots with the help of the language. Language works towards bringing the urban society closer to the multi-ethnic rural society.

Language is continuously developing; few olden phrases are no longer in use as they have been replaced by new expressions. The obsoleted phrases are sometimes preserved with the help of the rural language.

3.3.4 Child Rearing Practices

Child rearing practices may be defined as the practices used by the elders mostly the parents for helping and sustaining the child's physical, emotional, social, and rational development starting from the time the child is born and continuing till maturity. Parents do not merely share a biological relationship with the children; they are involved in the complexities of bringing up the child as well.

Biological parents are the obvious care-givers of the child but the role is also shared by close relatives like grand-parents, aunts and uncles or even friends

of the family. The responsibility of rearing a child lies with the society and the government as well. In many cases, children receive parental care from individuals other than their blood relations. The skills of parenting are not always same and every parent may not be a master of these skills. Parents are considered to be 'good parents' when they master these skills and as a result brings up their children well. Styles of parenting have been different, historical period, race, social status are some of the aspects that have affected the styles.

Factors Affecting Child Rearing Practices

- Methods of child rearing are affected by social status, family wealth and culture. The changing cultural values, changes in tradition and norms of society all affect the practice.

- The parental investment theory of psychology also proposes that gender plays an important role in deciding the practices.

- Another factor affecting child rearing is the social class of the family.

Styles and Practices

The style of parenting clearly indicates the general atmosphere of the household. According to developmental psychologist Diana Baumrind there are mainly three styles that are adopted by parents in order to bring up their young children, these are authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Later one more style was added to the list that was style of non-involvement. The child rearing practices are closely related to the mental and emotional stability of the parents.

Parents using the authoritative style depend on reinforcement through positive means and very rarely resort to punishing the child. Parents are considerate of the feelings of their child and their expectations are as per the capabilities of the child. This style has been considered more effective in bringing up the children than other practices like extremely tough authoritarian style or the docile permissive style. Parents adopting the authoritarian practices are very strict and have high expectation from their children. They do not mind punishing the child as they expect firm obedience. Parents using this rearing practice have been known to use corporal punishment as a result the children always remain submissive and they are not lively and cheerful as compared to other children. Children raised with such practices also tend to be hostile and moody. An extreme of authoritarian style is permissive child rearing practice. Parents in this style are not very demanding and never reprimand their children. Though the children respond well to this practice but in some cases they tend to be overly spoilt and are not very accommodating towards needs of others. Neglectful parenting, the fourth style that is occasionally used as a practice for rearing children is known to make children deviant and irresponsible. Their social relations, academic performance and mental development suffer when parents do not take interest in their activities.

There is no perfect practice that can be provided for rearing children. Parenting is a complex task and depending on the temperament of the child the parents need to balance the pros and cons of all the styles and try to give the best to their children.

3.3.5   Values

Systems of values are reactionary and unbending beliefs; they have an impact on the person's ethical behaviour and ultimately on the intent. Values may be defined as all-encompassing inclinations regarding suitable options of actions or consequences. In a way a person's sense of correct and incorrect is reflected through the values inculcated within. Values are represented through the conduct of the individual. The attitude and the conduct of people are influenced by ethical or moral values, ideological values, social values, and artistic values.

Cultural and personal values of an individual are closely related to each other. They behave either in accordance or against the usual norms. Social system with common values makes up for its culture, the values within the culture outline the social anticipations and mutual identifications of the moral, attractive and positive. In the absence of established personal values, the norms outlined by the culture will not matter and would lead to the disintegration of the culture.

Internal guide for good, bad, relevant, meaningful is in form of personal values. Positive personal values are bond to generate good actions and have an impact on the choices of the individual. Personal values of groups result in creating the opinion of the public. These become the basis of the formulation of laws, customs and traditions.

Different cultures accentuate values that are followed and shared by the members. The society values can be judged by the degree of honour and reverence given to views of different groups.

Values communicate the norms of a culture, but they have a more universal and rational approach as compared to norms. Norms deliver guidelines for conduct in particular situations, whereas values help in identifying the good and the bad. On one hand norms are principles, outlines, rules and conductors of normal behaviour, values are intellectual concepts of what is imperative and meaningful. The national flag being hosted on a national event is a norm that reflects the patriotic values.

Check Your Progress

4. What is socio-economic status?
5. Mention the three levels of socioeconomic status.
6. Define the concept of child rearing practices.

3.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. An individual is one that which exists as a distinct entity. Individuality is the state or quality of being an individual; particularly of being a person separate from other people and possessing their own needs or goals, rights and responsibilities.

2. A society may be defined as a group of individuals involved in determined social interaction or a big social group having similar geographical or social territory and usually follow one political authority and central cultural beliefs.

3. An essential feature of social reality is the principle of 'big lie'. It establishes that people are prone to believe an extreme lie than a less extreme truth.

4. Socio-economic status (SES) is an economic and sociological collective aggregate. It helps in recognising the economic and social status of individuals or their families in comparison to the others.

5. There are commonly three levels of socioeconomic status, namely high, middle, and low, these levels describe the stand of the family or an individual in the society.

6. Child rearing practices may be defined as the practices used by the elders mostly the parents for helping and sustaining the child's physical, emotional, social, and rational development starting from the time the child is born and continuing till maturity.

3.5 SUMMARY

- Individual refers to existence as a distinct entity. Individuality also mentioned as selfhood is a feature of an individual; mainly the presence of the being is distinct from others and the individual possesses self needs, aims, liberties and duties.

- Being a social animal an individual has a normal need to live an accompanying life with other individuals. Individual requires a society for existence as well as subsistence.

- A society may be defined as a group of individuals involved in determined social interaction or a big social group having similar geographical or social territory and usually follow one political authority and central cultural beliefs.

- In broader sense and as per the thinking of the structuralist, a society could be explained as an economic, social, industrial or cultural structure, consisting of individuals with varied dispositions.

- Social reality is not same as biological reality or individual cognitive reality as it represents the level of phenomenology that has been developed as a result of social interaction and thereby outdoing motives and actions of the individual.

- Philosophers of the phenomenological tradition, mostly Alfred Schütz, have treated extensively the issue of social reality. He has made use of the term 'social world' to label this different level of reality.

- Social theory has been surrounded with the debate, if existence of social reality is independent of human involvement or else, as believed in social constructionism that it is merely a creation of humans for the process of continuous interactions.

- An essential feature of social reality is the principle of 'big lie'. It establishes that people are prone to believe an extreme lie than a less extreme truth.

- Socio-economic status (SES) is an economic and sociological collective aggregate. It helps in recognising the economic and social status of individuals or their families in comparison to the others.

- The SES is recognised on the basis of earnings, education, and profession. While considering the SES of a family the entire household income along with the individual incomes would be considered, the joint earnings, education and professions of family members will be examined, but for working out the SES of an individual only his personal attributes will be calculated.

- In an open society some levels of disparities would be present however the individuals would have the option to enhance their social class or step down to a lower class in society.

- In closed societies, an individual's status in society is determined from the time of birth and is permanent.

- When two or more individuals interacting with each other have common features and mutual sense of belonging, it can be stated that belong to a common social group.

- The primary groups provide their members with care, support, concern, affection, etc.

- As compared to primary groups, secondary groups are larger and members are not closely knit together, they are formed in order to achieve a specific goal.

- Language plays a very important role in differentiating various social groups. It helps the individuals belonging to various cultural and ethnic groups to interact with each other.

- Child rearing practices may be defined as the practices used by the elders mostly the parents for helping and sustaining the child's physical, emotional,

social, and rational development starting from the time the child is born and continuing till maturity.

- Values may be defined as all-encompassing inclinations regarding suitable options of actions or consequences.

3.6 KEY WORDS

- **Structuralism:** In sociology, anthropology, and linguistics, structuralism is the methodology that implies elements of human culture must be understood by way of their relationship to a broader, overarching system or structure. It works to uncover the structures that underlie all the things that humans do, think, perceive, and feel.

- **Functionalism:** Functionalism (or structural functionalism) is the perspective in sociology according to which society consists of different but related parts, each of which serves a particular purpose.

- **Social Reality:** Social reality can be regarded acceptance of the community's social doctrines that contain the reasonably established laws and social exemplifications.

- **Primary Group:** A primary group is usually a social group that is small in size and members are closely knit together.

3.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. How does individual affect society?
2. What do you understand by the concept of social reality?
3. What is the objectivity of social reality?
4. Write a short note on socio-economic status (SES).
5. Differentiate between an open society and closed society.
6. What are the various factors affecting child rearing practices?

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain how an individual has a very close relation with the society.
2. Describe the relationship between an individual and society.
3. Discuss the principle of 'big lie'.
4. What are the various functions of primary and secondary groups?
5. Explain how language plays an important role in differentiating various social groups.

3.8 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - II

SOCIAL PERCEPTION AND INTERACTION

UNIT 4   PERCEPTUAL PROCESS

Structure

4.0   INTRODUCTION

Social perception is a study that understands the manner in which individuals develop impressions about other people and try to create their individuality. Individuals understand feelings and emotions of others by gathering information, then noticing their outward appearance, gestures and verbal communication. A lot of information is learnt by the expressions of their face, hand movements, body language and even the tone of their speech. A clear illustration of social perception in case of a disagreement is visible by the action of eyes being rolled; this is a real-world pattern. There are four main components of social perception. They are observation, attribution, integration, and confirmation.

In this unit, you will learn about the concept of social perception. This unit will also discuss the cognitive theory, nature of person perception, impression formation, halo effect, stereotype, order effect, and attribution process.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of social perception
- Describe the process of infant perception
- Discuss the fundamentals of cognitive theory
- Mention the various methods used for studying impression formation
- Describe the halo effect
- Discuss the several types of order effects
- Differentiate between explicit and implicit stereotypes

4.2 SOCIAL PERCEPTION

The rough basis of social perception is gathered through observations, this component is an interaction between three sources, and these are, people, circumstances and actions. The sources act as proof in assisting the formation of impressions and understanding the behaviour of others. One more essential component of social perception is attribution. Attribution acts as a source for understanding a person's personality as it relates the person's behaviour in different circumstances. In order to completely understand the influence of individual or situational attributions, the perceivers of the society need to integrate all the information that is available so that an amalgamated impression can be created. The final impressions are confirmed after understanding the basis of all the information. Social perception is essentially formed by a person's existing inspirations, feelings, and reasoning capability. Reasoning capability or cognitive load is the entire degree of mental strength employed on the memory. All this together helps in determining the traits of people and their interpretation by others.

The interest in social perception can be dated back to the seventeenth century; this was also the time of the origin of social psychology. A number of researches began in order to explore social perception. In present times, its significance has been completely realised and many processes and theories have been evolved for better understanding of the subject.

4.2.1 Process of Infant Perception

The process through which a human new-born or infant achieves responsiveness towards the stimulus from external sources is defined as infant perception. The infant is able to respond to external stimuli with the help of the functional sensory systems; the child's vision is fairly controlled, and the senses of hearing, smelling and touch are also reasonably developed. Infants however do not have the knowledge of perception; they develop their perceptual knowledge only with age

and experience of the things around them. Once their senses develop, they are able to manage information gained with the help of various sensory modalities. The coordination process is called intermodal perception, starts during early days of infancy and becomes better through the infancy.

Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'social perception'.
2. What are the four main components of social perception?

4.3 COGNITIVE THEORY

Cognitive theory is a methodology to psychology; it tries to describe human behaviour with the help of interpreting the human thought processes. For instance, a therapist uses the cognitive theory principles while teaching individuals the difference between destructive and constructive thought processes. With the help of cognitive theory she tries to change them into constructive thoughts.

Cognitive Theory Fundamentals

The hypothesis of cognitive theory is based on the assumption that thoughts are the chief determining factors of emotions and behaviour. During the mental process the information is processed and this helps the theorists to associate the functions of brain of the humans with a computer. Under the pure cognitive theory (one more methodology of psychology), behaviourism is completely rejected as it regards cause and effect to be the basis of complicated human behaviour.

Over the time there have been attempts to combine the cognitive theory and behaviourism into a broad cognitive-behavioural theory (CBT). This unification enables the psychotherapists to employ the methods of both the approaches and assists in the achievement of goals of their clients.

Social Cognitive Theory

Social cognitive theory is a subgroup of cognitive theory and it is used by psychotherapists for the treatment of phobias and additional psychological conditions. It is mainly engrossed in interpreting others behaviour, two good examples of social cognitive theory can be seen in campaigns used in commercials and situations concerning pressures from peer groups.

4.3.1 Personal Factors

Personal factors are basis of a person's personality, these are an amalgamation of qualities such as mental, physical, and ethical, these are different for all humans. The key to success is having strong personal factors. These are also determining factors of good leadership. Virtuous personal factors help in individual to develop control over self and make the right choices in life. With positive attitude individuals

will be able to direct their thoughts, have emotional stability and temperamental control.

The personal factors have to be self-developed. An individual's self is made up of many aspects, it includes his perception concerning his parents, the rules he has cultured, the impressions about friends and colleagues, the failures and successes and notions about the recompenses deserved by the individual.

The process of self-development transmutes from dependency to self-direction, from recklessness to self-discipline, from witlessness to acquaintance, from unskilfulness to skill from dishonesty to honesty and from self-centeredness to caring for others as well as self. Evolving and sustaining good personal factors is a process that is ever-changing.

The manner in which a person deals with a situation independently or his speech is impacted by several factors. The significant factors impelling the social and personal life of a person's attitude are as follows:

1. Skills are the qualities an individual acquires from the surroundings and some are inbuilt qualities. Skills can be largely categorized as:

    - **Intellectual skills:** The speaking and analytical reasoning capabilities of the individual
    - **Physical skills:** Physical power, stamina and body coordination of the individual
    - **Self-awareness skills**: Internal realisation of the abilities by the individual

    These skills affect the behaviour of the person socially as well as personally. Some have better intellectual skills while others have better physical strength.

2. Gender of the individual have an impact on the social and personal life; females are regarded as care-takers of home and the children.

3. Race and culture also have an important impact at a personal as well as social level, there are many who tend to stereotype the behaviour of people on the basis of their race and culture. In today's time there is a strong need to accept the diversity of the society and it should not become the basis of determining the personal factors of individuals.

4. Perception is a rational process of transmuting sensory stimuli into eloquent information. The process involves using the interpretations of the mind in judging about people and their surroundings. These are divided into the following six categories:

    - Perception of sound
    - Perception of speech
    - Perception of Touch by touching a surface
    - Perception of Taste by detecting the flavour with the help of the taste buds

- Perception of other senses, these include balance, acceleration, pain, time, sensations experienced in throat and lungs
- Social perception helps in understanding the behaviour of others

5. Attribution is the sequence of perceiving behaviour along with understanding the reason for the behaviour of individual based on personal factors or the circumstances. The framework of attribution is based on three measures, namely:
    - **Unanimity:** The level where individuals in similar situations will behave in same fashion
    - **Uniqueness:** The level where the behaviour of the individual will be completely dependent on personality and circumstances
    - **Uniformity:** The rate of reoccurrence of behaviour

6. Attitude is the intangible cultured reaction or may be the reaction of an individual's total cognitive process over a span of time.

The above factors are responsible for the manner in which individuals behave. These formulate the personality of the individual and are reflected in every aspect of their lives starting from their style of talking, walking or even socialising.

4.3.2 Person Perception

Person perception denotes the common inclination to formulate impressions about others. Few kinds of person perception take place incidentally and need conjecturing information regarding the person founded on observations of behaviours or founded on information from a secondary source. There are few kinds of person perception that take place straight away and need little contact with the other person. Direct or indirect kinds of person perception offer a base for creation of consequent judgments and help in shaping the interactions of the future.

In the field of social psychology, person perception has been traditionally mentioned as the perception of others that forms the judgments of characters and personalities. Assume that Bill hit a dog, from this what will be the impression of the observer? Most of the initial researches examining these kinds of impressions were based on the attribution theory. According to Fritz Heider, people attributed the behaviours of others to internal factors like personality, temperaments, etc., or external factors like situational limitations, however he felt that people were mostly inclined to create attributions from internal factors. The primary observations influenced the research for many years and delivered an essential base for two correlated theories. The covariation model of Harold Kelley explained how individuals differentiated between the attitudes of others centred on modest factors adjoining perceived behaviours. In the same way, theory of correspondent inferences by Edward E. Jones and Keith Davis defined as to how the behaviour of individuals inferred their personalities. The theories established that people's behaviour were instrumental in person perception.

4.3.3 Nature of Person Perception

There are several personal attributes which the observers would wish to know regarding other people, all the attributes are not observable openly, for example honesty and loyalty of a person are not known outwardly, these traits have to be detected by with the help of constant observations of the individual's actions or it can be realised with the information provided by a secondary source. In all situations the common perception of an individual is an outcome of insinuation, and the decades old attribution theories continue to be useable in accepting the manner in which these perceptions take place.

Observations of the observers help in making judgments. Traditional studies of social psychology tried to analyse these observations in the laboratory. Researchers studied the attitudes of hypothetical individuals with a disliked political position. Some of the actions were voluntary; but there were times that these actions were forced. In all the researches the observers reported that the individual's behaviour exhibited the real attitude, also during the situations that had been coerced. Therefore, observers have a tendency to accept that behaviours deliver attitudes and temperaments, and this happens during forced situations as well. These perceptions are termed as correspondent inferences, and the inclination to attribute movements to temperamental factors may be defined as the correspondence bias and the fundamental attribution error.

After the early reports several researchers made an attempt to apprehend exactly what is the cause of these inferences, and this led to the emergence of three factors. Harold Kelley, for instance, recognised that temperamental inferences are particularly possible while certain behaviour is unique; uniform; and unanimous. According to Jones and Davis these inferences are mostly likely once a specific behaviour is not expected.

Of lately, examiners have observed the psychological processes that document these inferences. There is involvement of two processes. The first process is reasonably reflexive and results in temperamental inferences during most situations. The second process is substantially extra reflective and has a tendency to be correct for the restraints enforced by circumstances.

Some of the modern researches have described the temperamental inferences as universal. The inclination is so powerful that it takes place unintentionally. Study of person perception using the attribution approach exposed a lot about how impressions of others might develop with the help of observations. Nevertheless person perception also discusses judgments that take place in a direct manner.

Direct Person Perception

Several personal qualities of people are observed directly and are instantly noticed. Attributes such as gender, race, and age fall in this category. Researchers feel that these personal characteristics are inescapable, and that observers spontaneously

classify individuals under these categories. They are among the initial impressions observed about others. Due to their voluntary-ness and rapid-ness these judgements have been referred to as obligatory. In social psychology, gender and race have attained substantial attention.

4.3.4   Impression Formation

In social psychology, impression formation has been referred to as a process where specific sections of information about others are combined so that a universal impression of the individual can be formed. The basis of this complete process relies on the belief that people expect unanimity and consistency in others personalities. Therefore, a person's impression of others needs to be unified in the same way.

There are two main theories proposing the explanation of the manner in which the process of unification occurs. The Gestalt approach comprehends the construction of a common impression as the summation of numerous interconnected impressions. Fundamental of this approach relies on the notion that a person tries to form an intelligible and eloquent impression of a new person, earlier impressions considerably sway or tint the analysis of consequent information. Opposing the approach of Gestalt was the cognitive algebra approach of information integration theory, according to this the experiences of individuals are assessed individualistically, and then they are united with the earlier assessments to create a continuously changing impression of an individual. Study of person perception is an essential and connected aspect of forming impression, this involves behaviour observation, building dispositional attributions, and modifying the inferences on the basis of available information. Solomon Asch (1946) has been accredited for undertaking pivotal research on impression formation.

Methods Used for Studying Impression Formation

Solomon Asch used three methods for studying impression formation; these are free response, free association, and a check-list form. A fourth method was added during latest researches, this was founded on the Likert scale with broadcasters like extremely favourable and extremely unfavourable. Impression formation uses a combination of few or all the four methods for making precise evaluations.

4.3.5   Halo Effect

The halo effect is a sort of mental predisposition in this the general impression about a person is influenced by how an individual thinks about the character of that person. Basically, the general impression of a person is influenced by the estimations of his particular qualities. The impression people have about celebrities is a classic example of the halo effect. As most people consider them to be eye-catching, popular, and frequently congenial, they think they are smart, compassionate, and witty as well.

It has also been referred to as the physical desirability stereotype and basic principle of halo effect is that the 'what is beautiful is good', people have the routine tendency to regard good-looking individuals more positively about the traits of their personality or appearances in comparison to those not so attractive. Halo effect is often employed for achieving a universal influence of a congenial personality as it helps in achieving a subjective judgment in favour of a person. Therefore, feelings mostly overcome reasons during appraisal of others. The term was used for the first time in 1920 by Psychologist Edward Thorndike, in his paper titled 'The Constant Error in Psychological Ratings.'

4.3.6 Stereotype

A belief that is over-generalisation of group of people has been referred to a stereotype in social psychology. The generalisation takes place as people assume that the stereotypes are facts about every individual person in the group. Even though these generalizations are helpful while taking decisions however they may not be completely applicable for all in the group. Prejudices are encouraged by stereotyping and they may occur due to many factors.

Explicit Stereotypes

People who agree to articulate and acknowledge to others are referred to as explicit stereotypes. It also denotes to stereotypes that are knowingly used to judge individuals. Individuals may try to deliberately regulate the usage of explicit stereotypes, even while their effort to regulate could be ineffective.

Implicit stereotypes

It is a general stereotype that men mostly play games on computer but in reality many of the gamers are women. Implicit stereotypes are the ones that lie on the sub-consciousness of the individual any they may not be under their control or even be aware about them.

A thought broadly accepted with regards to particular category of people or specific manner of conduct of a group may be also referred to as stereotype in social psychology. There would be chances that this thought or belief may not be the actual truth. There are many theories and concepts of stereotype that exists in psychology and other disciplines. The word stereotype originates from the French adjective stéréotype and comes from two Greek words 'stereos' meaning firm, solid and 'typos' meaning impression.

4.3.7 Order Effect

Order effects discuss the variances in the responses of the participants of the researches resulting from the order of the experimental materials that has been presented to them. All researches are prone to order effects. For instance, in a research based on survey individuals could respond to the questions in a different way subjected to the order in which they have been questioned. Nevertheless,

order effects are of exceptional concern in within-subject designs; that means if the similar partakers are part of all situations and the researcher wishes to equate replies among situations. The tricky part is with the order in which the situations have been submitted as it may have an impact on the result of the study.

Types of Order Effects

- There are many reasons for the occurrence of order effects. Practice effects takes place in cases where the partakers are warming up or trying to enhance their performance over a period. Partakers sometimes do not perform well since they are exhausted or not interested. The exhaustion effects are possible in case the process is very long and the assignment is monotonous or tedious.

- Carryover effects take place in cases where the outcome of an experimental situation is carried forward. This is possible if the experimental situations trail each other rapidly. These are dependent on specific series of situations. For instance, estimates of heights of individuals could be less once when exposed to qualified basketball players in comparison to their exposure to qualified jockeys.

- Interference effects takes place in cases where earlier reactions interrupt performance on a consequent task. The probability is high in cases where the second task swiftly starts after the first and the reactions of the task are conflicting with the earlier task.

Methods of Controlling Order Effects

- In order to reach to a meaningful outcome of the study a variety of methods are used by the researchers to lessen or regulate the order effects. The selection of the method is dependent on the nature of the effects expected.

- Warm up exercises before starting the actual experiment will help in reducing the practice effects.

- Short and interesting tasks will help in reducing the fatigue effects.

- By increasing the time between situations the carryover and interference effects can be lessened.

- Differentiating the order situations in a systematic manner helps the researchers to reduce order effects. They need to present every situation frequently in every ordinal location. This process is called counterbalancing. Occasionally due to the presence of several orders the researchers are not able to incorporate all in the study, the partakers are presented with random orders or only a few orders are included in the study.

4.3.8 Attribution Process

Individuals are enthused to allocate reasons to all their actions and conducts. In the field of social psychology the attribution process helps the individuals to explicate the

reasons of behaviour and actions. The attribution theories help in explaining this process. In the starting of twentieth century Fritz Heider began to research the process of attribution, his theory was carried forward by Harold Kelley and Bernard Weiner.

External Attribution

External attribution can also be referred as situational attribution; it denotes the interpretations made about behaviour of others that have been caused due to the individual's circumstances. For instance, when the tire of Rohan's motorcycle got punctured he blamed the pot-holes in the road for the puncture; he made sense of the situation by making attributions to the poor condition of the main road, without realising that his inability to drive properly could also be the cause for the puncture.

Internal Attribution

When the reason for a particular behaviour is assigned to an internal feature instead of an external factor, this overlaps with the concept of Locus of control, as in this also the individual assigns a personal responsibility for all events occurring in their life.

Accuracy of Judgements

Traits of personality are patterns of thoughts, emotions, and behaviours and these are generally known to be constant throughout and in most circumstances. It is natural to judge the personality traits of self and everyone else. The question is over the accuracy of these judgements. As per the Realistic Accuracy Model (RAM), accuracy of judgments is possible only when appropriate information about the behaviour is available and the person is able to utilize this information properly. According to RAM there are four principal moderators for judging accurate personality, these are properties of the target that has to be judged, the trait that needs to be judged, the information on which the judgment is founded and lastly the person who is making the judgment. Usually individuals are able to develop accurate judgements about the personality and these help them to survive in the multifaceted social world. Many researches have been conducted over the years in order to assert the accuracy of these judgements.

Traditions of Person Perception in India

In India, people are inclined towards several kinds of confirmation biases. They have strong tendency to interpret, discover, and articulate information in ways that verify prevailing opinions. Predetermined biases, stereotypes, and discrimination mostly referred to as social biases help in contributing to such tendencies. Individuals are on most occasions known to exhibit belief doggedness; they have the predisposition to hold incorrect opinions in spite of being refuted.

Another tradition is to place great belief in a common, imprecise description of individuals. For example, persons infer horoscopes as relating to their particular

situation, whereas horoscopes are written for several people and do not pertain to a specific individual.

Check Your Progress

3. Define cognitive theory.

4. What are the three types of skills?

5. What is impression formation?

4.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Social perception is a study that understands the manner in which individuals develop impressions about other people and try to create their individuality.

2. The four main components of social perception are observation, attribution, integration, and confirmation.

3. Cognitive theory is a methodology of psychology; it tries to describe human behaviour with the help of interpreting the human thought processes.

4. The three types of skills are intellectual, physical, and self-awareness skills.

5. In social psychology, impression formation has been referred to as a process where specific sections of information about others are combined so that a universal impression of the individual can be formed.

4.5 SUMMARY

- Social perception is a study that understands the manner in which individuals develop impressions about other people and try to create their individuality.

- The rough basis of social perception is gathered through observations, this component is an interaction between three sources, and these are, people, circumstances and actions.

- Attribution acts as a source for understanding a person's personality as it relates the person's behaviour in different circumstances.

- The process through which a human new-born or infant achieves responsiveness towards the stimulus from external sources is defined as infant perception

- Cognitive theory is a methodology to psychology; it tries to describe human behaviour with the help of interpreting the human thought processes.

- The hypothesis of cognitive theory is based on the assumption that thoughts are the chief determining factors of emotions and behaviour.

- Over the time there have been attempts to combine the cognitive theory and behaviourism into a broad cognitive-behavioural theory (CBT).

- Social cognitive theory is a subgroup of cognitive theory and it is used by psychotherapists for the treatment of phobias and additional psychological conditions.

- Personal factors are basis of a person's personality, these are an amalgamation of qualities such as mental, physical, and ethical, these are different for all humans.

- Gender of the individual have an impact on the social and personal life; females are regarded as care-takers of home and the children.

- Person perception denotes the common inclination to formulate impressions about others.

- In social psychology, impression formation has been referred to as a process where specific sections of information about others are combined so that a universal impression of the individual can be formed.

- The halo effect is a sort of mental predisposition in this the general impression about a person is influenced by how an individual thinks about the character of that person.

- A belief that is over-generalisation of group of people has been referred to a stereotype in social psychology.

- People who agree to articulate and acknowledge to others are referred to as explicit stereotypes. It also denotes to stereotypes that are knowingly used to judge individuals.

- Implicit stereotypes are the ones that lie on the sub-consciousness of the individual any they may not be under their control or even be aware about them.

- Order effects discuss the variances in the responses of the participants of the researches resulting from the order of the experimental materials that has been presented to them. All researches are prone to order effects.

- External attribution can also be referred as situational attribution; it denotes the interpretations made about behaviour of others that have been caused due to the individual's circumstances.

4.6 KEY WORDS

- **Infant perception:** The process through which a human new-born or infant achieves responsiveness towards the stimulus from external sources is defined as infant perception.

- **Cognitive Behavioural Therapy:** Cognitive behavioural therapy is a psycho-social intervention that aims to improve mental health. CBT focuses on challenging and changing unhelpful cognitive distortions and behaviours, improving emotional regulation, and the development of personal coping strategies that target solving current problems.

- **Phobia:** A phobia is a type of anxiety disorder, defined by a persistent and excessive fear of an object or situation.

- **Skills:** Skills are the qualities an individual acquires from the surroundings and some are inbuilt qualities.

- **Explicit Stereotypes:** People who agree to articulate and acknowledge to others are referred to as explicit stereotypes.

- **Implicit Stereotypes:** Implicit stereotypes are the ones that lie on the sub-consciousness of the individual any they may not be under their control or even be aware about them.

4.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. Why is social perception important?
2. What are the significant factors impelling the social and personal life of a person's attitude?
3. What is direct person perception?
4. Write a short note on impression formation.
5. Mention the various methods used for studying impression formation.
6. Discuss the several types of order effects.

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the concept of social perception.
2. Describe the process of infant perception.
3. Discuss the fundamentals of cognitive theory.
4. Elucidate the halo effect.
5. Differentiate between explicit and implicit stereotypes.

4.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 5   LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

Structure

5.0   INTRODUCTION

Language is an essential part of communication, the exchange of message or information among people is referred to as communication, it can be verbal or non-verbal. Method or structure through which humans are able to communicate with each other is referred to as language. It enables two people to interact with each other. Every region or community have their respective language and this helps in conveying a message by using words. In this unit, you will learn about communication behaviour and language and communication. This unit will also discuss, signs, signals, symbols, meaning of meaning, and language and socialization.

5.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the process of communication
- Describe the various channels of communication
- Discuss why symbols are the foundation of human communication
- Critically analyse the scope of language
- Explain the notion of 'meaning' in behaviourism

5.2   COMMUNICATION BEHAVIOUR

Communication behaviour or behavioural communication is a psychological concept which effects individual variances in the manifestation of mental state, desires, and thoughts; it is regarded as a standby for open and one to one communication. Definitely, it denotes the indirect messages that a person uses in order to exhibit the mental state and desires, it has an impact on the behaviour of the individual as well. It is often said that most of human communication is actually carried out without the use of verbal content.

Behaviour of any kind, even absence of expected behaviour, is meant to communicate a message. All actions of people are intended to convey a message. The concept of behavioural communication is regarded as an adjustment of differences in human behaviour. Thus, some individuals have a tendency to employ indirect or behavioural communication more often than their counter parts, this may not be always intentional and they prefer to use the non-verbal means rather than opting for the verbal alternatives of communication. The behavioural pattern of an individual has a direct impact on both spoken as well as unspoken communication. It is not common that people use any particular pattern of behavioural communication constantly. Individuals have to be extremely aware about themselves to be able to identify their own pattern of behaviour. Communication behaviour is of four kinds and these are aggressive, assertive, passive, and passive-aggressive.

Aggressive: An act of anger that may not be intentional is referred to as aggression, the aggressor aims to hurt another person or even an object. The communicator because of the aggression gets into a conflict so that personal attacks and insults could be made. Aggressive communicators try to intimidate so that their needs are fulfilled. Such people are not empathetic towards other; they are mostly rigid and bad listeners. Aggressive communication is exhibited by insulting others, through intimidation, speaking rudely or ignoring others. Glaring, acute stares, stiff posture, high-pitched speech, etc., are some non-verbal behaviours of aggressive communication. Aggressive communication leaves the individuals feeling angry, frustrated, impatient and in some ways superior. This form of commination behaviour leads to loneliness, retaliation, defensive actions and disobedience. Moreover persons experiencing aggressive communication will naturally feel offended, defensive, disgraced, hurt, and sometimes anxious. The behaviour mostly leads to unhappiness but during emergencies it sometimes becomes essential to exhibit aggression as it helps in moving things faster.

Assertive: Another kind of communication behaviour is assertiveness; it enables the individuals to adequately express their wishes and emotions. This form of communication is mid-way juncture of passive and aggressive communication. It is regarded as a form of direct communication and the privileges and feelings of

both the communicator as well as the receiver are respected. There is directness without argument in assertive communication. People using assertive communication are able to maintain healthy relations as conflicts are avoided. Both the parties are cordial. In spite of this the communication behaviour is not used very often. Assertive communication is beneficial for communicator as well as the receiver as both the parties are able to express their opinions without imposing their will on each other. Individuals are able to assert this behaviour non-verbally by seeming relaxed and cheerful, the body language is very receptive as the posture and gestures are not hostile. It is essentially a positive form of communication behaviour that not only helps in solving problems but also helps in building healthy relationships.

Passive: Passive communication is used by individuals having a low-self-esteem and confidence. In their effort to be accepted such people tend to let go of their personal desires and feelings. They tend to suppress their uneasiness so that conflicts are avoided. They easily trust others as they do not have much confidence in their decisions. People exhibit passive communication in many ways and few of the obvious ones are seen in their avoidance of confrontation, inability to make decisions, taking a back seat and going along with others preferences, seeking unnecessary confirmations, etc. The non-verbal forms of passive communication behaviour are visible in people when they tend to speak softly or cautiously, they appear to be shy and do not like to be in the lime-light. Their passive-ness makes them avoid eye-contact and fidget frequently.

Individuals with this behavioural communication tend to be dependent on others and they seem confused and anxious most of the time. This behaviour leads to frustration and resentfulness in the long-run as individuals are bound to get tired of seconding their personal desires and preferences in favour of others. The receivers of this communication also are not at ease as they feel dissatisfied and guilty on several occasions. The pent up frustration could lead to a massive show down for both the parties. However sometimes passive form of communication is required for building strong relationship.

Passive-Aggressive: As the term suggests, this behavioural communication incorporates the styles of passive and aggression. People with this pattern outwardly appear to be passive but they exhibit their anger indirectly. Extremely resentful and frustrated people tend to develop this form of communication style. Their behaviour is reflected in many ways such as extreme forgetfulness or inefficiency. They tend to be highly sarcastic in their conversation, frequently whining, brooding, condescending, and blethering. The non-verbal behaviours are reflected by their expressions on face and eyes. Usually, people behaving in a passive-aggressive style have unbalanced posture and seem jumpy and fidget frequently. They are mostly frustrated although outwardly they seem overly friendly. They have negativity around them and as a result the receivers of passive-aggressive communication are mostly made to feel muddled, annoyed, and hurt. Because of their negative

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vibes people tend to avoid such communicators. Passive-aggressive communicators would resort to making pensive statements, snide compliments, ignoring purposefully by not responding, harming someone, and indulge in self-mumbling rather than facing the issues.

Check Your Progress

1. What is communication behaviour?

2. State the four kinds of communication behaviour.

5.3 LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION: AN OVERVIEW

People all over the world are able to communicate with each other with the help of language. Language and communication are closely inter-connected and common man is not able to easily differentiate between the two terms. They often use them interchangeably without realising that there is a thin line between the two.

Comparison between Language and Communication

Language infers to the system of communication that is dependent on both verbal and non-verbal codes, it is helpful in transfer of information. Communication denotes to the manner in which information is exchanged between groups of people.

Nature

- Language is a tool whereas communication is a process
- In language the stress is on symbols, signs and signals whereas in communication the stress is on only the message.
- Language occurs mostly through auditory channels while communication takes place in all sensory channels.
- Language is dynamic as it is ever changing but the communication is static.

Based on the above comparison language may be defined as tool needed for transmitting emotions and thoughts between two people. It helps in expressing the thoughts and feelings of individuals with the help of randomly created symbols, signs, sounds, gesticulation, stance, etc., all these help in conveying a particular connotation. The only means of communication between two individuals is language. It helps in sharing their thoughts, feelings and ideas with each other. It makes sense out of the abstracted thoughts. People living in different parts of the world have their own language.

In the same way communication can be defined as an act of exchanging ideas, info or message between people with the help of words or symbols that both communicators are able to understand. It is an essential part of an organisation as it provides the basics for the members of an organisation to be able to work

together. Communication can flow in several directions in an organisation, ascending, descending, parallel or diagonal.

Communication is a universal process as it is required at every level and kind of organisation. Two participants are required for communication to take place; there are seven essential elements of the process, these are, source, encoding, message, channel, receiver, decoding and reaction. For the process to be complete it is essential to get a reaction.

Communication takes place through two channels, namely formal and informal communication. It can be further categorised as:

- Verbal Communication
- Oral Communication
- Written Communication
- Non-verbal communication

From the above explanation it can be concluded that as compared to language, communication has a broader scope. Language is an integral part of communication and both need each other for their existence.

5.3.1 Signs, Signals and Symbols

Culture is constructed on symbols. Flags, traffic lights, qualifications, and notions of maths are in way different types of symbols. Therefore, symbols are the foundation of human communication. Language is the most symbolic feature of any culture however symbols have an important role in religion, political affairs, art, and literature along with science, business and in relationships. Symbols help in building and conveying identities. They are the basic means for humans to construct meaning, organize knowledge, convey emotion, and most importantly control the society. The commendable capability of humans in formation and interpretation of symbols helps them to be able to differentiate between minute actions such as winking and blinking of the eye, even though they are similar actions and merely involves closing and opening of the eye. The first action is meaningful as it transmits the message of conspiracy by the winker, but the second action is merely a twitch of the eye and does not have any meaning. Symbols are essential for human thinking and interactions for this reason the study of symbols has become a part of many disciples in recent times.

In simple words, a symbol is something that signifies one more thing as it is closely associated with the earlier thing and there is an abstract connection or apparent semblance between the two. The English word symbol has been derived from the Greek word súmbolon, which means 'tally', 'contract', or 'ticket', and initially it was referred to a token that was broken in two parts and the half was helpful in confirming the identity of the other. The word has its roots in the Greek words, syn ('together') and ballein ('to throw'), and as a result has the rough implication of 'to throw together'.

Almost anything can act as a symbol as long as it conveys information relevant for particular group, there need not be a connection between the group and the symbol as long as it is able to convey the required message about the customs and the traditions. On the basis of this assumption, language may be regarded as a symbol. In English the word 'water' is a name given to a liquid and the members of English language do not contest its name. Actually symbols do not have a specific meaning besides the connotations given to them.

A signal usually articulates a connection between the one giving the signal and the other who is receiving the signal. It could be casual or dynamic. All living things use signals, every time the signifier triggers or provokes a specific action, for instance male birds attract the females with a sound in order to arouse them or illuminating brake lights of the car help in signalling the traffic behind that the car is about to stop.

A sign generally has a singular meaning, in this the signifier and signified are diligently associated and usually have similar context, and the signification is also frequently metonymic. For instance for a hunter searching for a deer, a hoof print is a sign of his target. In some fields like military, science and business signs are regularly used as codes, this is because the codes helps in establishing the conventional relationship between the signifier and signified moreover the signs have to be very accurate.

The notion of signs and signals is expanded by symbols. Their character has a rich meaning as they are manifold, flexible, diverse, encrusted, intricate, and often built on representational connotations that emphasize an resemblance among things belonging to varied backgrounds and otherwise would not be linked. Their relevance can be realised by their originators.

Whether a mark is a symbol, signal, or sign is understood not only by the object it represents but also its usage. Actually, the mark can be used as any of the three pertaining to the situation, as in case of the colour red, it acts as a sign of blood in a painting showing the crucifying of Christ, it acts as a traffic signal for stopping the movement of vehicles and lastly in a national flag it acts as a symbol. The symbols are also dependent on the cultures in which they are used for instance, in earlier times, in Rome red was related with Mars, god of war, and in China colour red is considered auspicious as it symbolises luck, wealth, success, happiness, and also the colour of the wedding dress. In the same way in most parts of the world red rose symbolises love.

5.3.2 Language: a Cultural Product

Language is not merely a means of communicating internal thoughts and expression verbally or non-verbally with other members of the community. The scope of language is much broader as the native language of people help in providing intimate as well as general details about the lives of the individuals. Anthropologists have

often spoken about the relationship that exists between language and culture. It will not be wrong to regard language as an integral part of the culture. In anthropological sense culture reflects every aspect of life of human beings. According to English anthropologists Sir Edward Burnett Tylor culture is '*acquired by man as a member of society*,' therefore a vast area of human life and behaviour is covered by the culture and language is obviously a vital part in this scenario. Both society and language are crucial. Language develops in a social surroundings and man has been a part of a society since its origin.

Spread of Language and Culture

The transmission of language is possible through the culture as it has to be learned. Parents teach their children to talk in their native language, they help them to improve their vocabulary and correct them, children also learn from their interactions with others. Educational institutes help in accruing the skills of the second language along with its literature and grammar. Since language is spread as part of culture, it can also be agreed that culture also is predominantly spread with the help of language, to such an extent that it is openly imparted. It is because of language that the human-race has a history and animals do not have one. Animals learn by imitating their seniors and with unprompted imitation they are able to undertake all their organisational tasks. Although they continue to perform all their complex task but they have not been able to evolve any further. In the last five thousand years also their behaviour has not changed. The only changes that have been experienced in some of the species have been an outcome of the domestication undertaken by humans. In comparison to the animal species human behaviours have undergone several changes and cultural evolution has taken place as a result. The credit for the diversity in the behaviour and culture can be attributed to the human languages. The consequences of behavioural change have led to a change in the culture as well.

In humans, till now the biggest part of learned behaviour where culture also plays a part has been communicated by verbal instruction, it has not spread due to imitation. During infant stage some level of imitation is visible in the process of learning but it is hardly noticeable and its occurrence is not consistent.

Language helps in acquiring various skills, practices, merchandises, ways of social control, and they can be spread to different parts of the world. With the help of verbal language information can be spread to many communities and new skills can be acquired. Changes in techniques would create new and improved environments. The process spread even faster with the help of written language. It helped in fast spread of changes in all fields to different parts of the world. Therefore the role of language cannot be undermined in the spread of culture.

5.3.3 Meaning of Meaning

The concept of meaning has not only been used in psychology but it also features in field of philosophy, etymology, semiotics and sociology. The usage of the term in

several disciplines is known to be overlapping. In every field the term 'meaning' has been used and developed differently however its development in a specific field can be linked with its developments in the other fields. At profound level, individually the developments are related with a position of epistemology. Therefore the concept of 'meaning' has diverse uses in diverse traditions of epistemology of every field. For instance, the logical positivists linked 'meaning' with its scientific proof. The meaning of meaning is as a result assumed in a different way in diverse departments of psychology.

Notion of 'Meaning' in Behaviourism

Conferring to Skinner, the modern variant of meaning is 'idea'. As an idea, a meaning has to be articulated or transferred by an expression. A meaning describes the occurrence of a certain term in that sense in case there was a diverse meaning that could be articulated, there could have been an appearance of a different word. Meaning has few benefits in comparison to ideas since there is a chance that they could be positioned in the external part of the skin, therefore Skinner felt that observation of meanings could be made openly.

Notion of 'Meaning' in Cognitive psychology

Jerome Bruner is regarded among the founding fathers of cognitive psychology, he had written that in the initial stages itself the emphasis on information started and efforts were made to develop the process of information rather than the meaning. He wrote: *'Very early on, ... emphasis began shifting from 'meaning' to 'information', from the construction of meaning to the processing of information. These are profoundly different matters. The key factor in the shift was the introduction of computation as the ruling metaphor and of computability as a necessary criterion of a good theoretical model. Information is indifferent with respect to meaning...'*

German Critical Psychology

German critical psychology offers a framework of metatheoretical in researches of psychological as well as computational tasks. An essential aspect of this has been the historical and logical development of the category of meaning. This analysis has exhibited meaning as a subjective term; it is not a property of things and merely exits as mind's eye of reason. Therefore, it is not possible to define meaning and assign it with a common definition. A meaning arises as per the production in the society and depends on its usage.

An identical interpretation was established in cultural studies of science. Cultural studies thus articulate vigorous, expressive notions of meaning, knowledge, and power, which are completely different from the common approaches in the field of philosophy and social theory. It assumed that meaning cannot be an asset

of statements or actions; the word 'meaning' in its place enunciates the manner in which such presentations inferentially take upon and alter the field of previous performances in which they had existed.

5.3.4 Language and Socialization

Socialization is the long lasting learning of the expectations, customs, talents, beliefs, morals and other such aspects required for participating in social matters of the society. A vital tool of socialising is language. Language helps humans to become a part of the society and the process starts during infancy. The child is taught to be a part of the society by those who care for them. Socialisation becomes even more crucial for children who are bilingual. Scheffilin & Ochs (1986) have defined language socialization as an interactional demonstration for a child as it helps in thoughtfulness, sensation, and performing. For understanding, interacting and negotiating the socio-cultural context effectively the child needs to not only grasp the language of the community but he must be able to understand the social relevance of the linguistic practices.

Language socialization according to Schecter & Bayley is the process through which the child is able to grow into the social framework of their culture. Parents help the child to socialise by inculcating the significance of language; they make the child regularly socialize with the linguistic attitudes and practices. According to researches daily interactions help the child to not only socialise but also makes him learn new things about the social environment.

Check Your Progress

3. Define the term 'language'.
4. What are the seven essential elements of the communication process?

5.4   ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Communication behaviour or behavioural communication is a psychological concept which effects individual variances in the manifestation of mental state, desires, and thoughts; it is regarded as a standby for open and one to one communication.

2. Communication behaviour is of four kinds and these are aggressive, assertive, passive, and passive-aggressive.

3. Language may be defined as tool needed for transmitting emotions and thoughts between two people.

4. There are seven essential elements of the communication process, these are, source, encoding, message, channel, receiver, decoding and reaction.

5.5 SUMMARY

- Language is an essential part of communication, the exchange of message or information among people is referred to as communication, it can be verbal or non-verbal.

- Communication behaviour or behavioural communication is a psychological concept which effects individual variances in the manifestation of mental state, desires, and thoughts; it is regarded as a standby for open and one to one communication.

- An act of anger that may not be intentional is referred to as aggression, the aggressor aims to hurt another person or even an object.

- Another kind of communication behaviour is assertiveness; it enables the individuals to adequately express their wishes and emotions.

- Passive communication is used by individuals having a low-self-esteem and confidence.

- Language infers to the system of communication that is dependent on both verbal and non-verbal codes, it is helpful in transfer of information.

- Communication denotes to the manner in which information is exchanged between groups of people.

- Communication is a universal process as it is required at every level and kind of organisation.

- Culture is constructed on symbols. Flags, traffic lights, qualifications, and notions of maths are in way different types of symbols. Therefore, symbols are the foundation of human communication.

- A signal usually articulates a connection between the one giving the signal and the other who is receiving the signal. It could be casual or dynamic.

- A sign generally has a singular meaning, in this the signifier and signified are diligently associated and usually have similar context, and the signification is also frequently metonymic.

- Language is not merely a means of communicating internal thoughts and expression verbally or non-verbally with other members of the community.

- The scope of language is much broader as the native language of people help in providing intimate as well as general details about the lives of the individuals.

- The concept of meaning has not only been used in psychology but it also features in field of philosophy, etymology, semiotics and sociology.

- The meaning of meaning is as a result assumed in a different way in diverse departments of psychology.

- Socialization is the long lasting learning of the expectations, customs, talents, beliefs, morals and other such aspects required for participating in social matters of the society. A vital tool of socialising is language.

- Language socialization according to Schecter & Bayley is the process through which the child is able to grow into the social framework of their culture.

5.6 KEY WORDS

- **Aggression:** An act of anger that may not be intentional is referred to as aggression, the aggressor aims to hurt another person or even an object.

- **Assertive:** Another kind of communication behaviour is assertiveness; it enables the individuals to adequately express their wishes and emotions. This form of communication is mid-way juncture of passive and aggressive communication.

- **Passive:** Passive communication is used by individuals having a low-self-esteem and confidence. In their effort to be accepted such people tend to let go of their personal desires and feelings.

- **Passive-Aggressive:** As the term suggests, this behavioural communication incorporates the styles of passive and aggression. People with this pattern outwardly appear to be passive but they exhibit their anger indirectly.

- **Symbol:** A symbol is something that signifies one more thing as it is closely associated with the earlier thing and there is an abstract connection or apparent semblance between the two.

5.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. What do you understand by the concept of communication behaviour?
2. What are the four types of communication behaviour?
3. Draw a comparison between language and communication.
4. What is the difference between sign and symbol?
5. What do you understand by the concept of 'language socialization'?

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the process of communication.
2. Describe the various channels of communication.

3. Discuss why symbols are the foundation of human communication.

4. Critically analyse the scope of language.

5. Explain the notion of 'meaning' in behaviourism.

5.8   FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 6 SOCIOMETRY

Structure

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Techniques for measuring interpersonal attractiveness may be referred to as sociometry. The technique is employed not only in the field of social psychology but also occasionally in sociology, social anthropology and psychiatry. Assessing the social choices and interpersonal attractiveness form the basis of the measurements. There is a close association of the term with the work of the Australian psychiatrist J.L. Moreno; he had developed the technique for his research. There are many interpretations of sociometry, however the most common application is for measuring the attractiveness in the interpersonal relations, it has equal relevance in psychology as well as sociology. In this unit, you will learn about the interpersonal attraction, and its theories. This unit will also deal with the concept of social motivation.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the various theories of interpersonal attraction

- Identify the several techniques for measuring interpersonal attraction

- Enumerate the different types of social motives

- Describe the causes for interpersonal attraction

6.2 INTERPERSONAL ATTRACTION: SOCIOMETRY

The measure of sociometric helps in assessing the attractions and sometimes the revulsions among people in a group. The primary technique makes the individual members of the group to choose their partner from among the members of the group. They also have to identify who they would not want as a partner. There are several variations of this technique for learning diverse aspects of social inclination. The technique is helpful in understanding the interpersonal relationships within an organisation. A lot of work has been focussing on the conception of sociometric status. This involves leadership studies, process of social adjustment, stretching from figuring out the most preferred to the least chosen individual; the technique helps in understanding the relationship between sociometric status and other variables of the personality like intelligence; it also figures out the prejudices existing within the minority-group.

6.2.1 Theories of Interpersonal Attraction

Theories of interpersonal attraction are used for explaining the choice patterns of sociometry; these are reflections of the key extents of peer relationships: attachment and peer status. The social psychological theories have two main approaches; these are the cognitive consistency theories consisting of Balance Theory developed by Heider in 1958 and the reinforcement approaches consisting of Social Exchange Theory developed by Homans in 1951.

Cognitive Consistency Theories

Let us begin by discussing balance theory.

Balance Theory

In 1958, Heider proposed the Balance Theory for understanding the interpersonal attraction, with his theory he stressed on the need to focus on the perception of the individual in a relationship instead of focusing on other facts. He felt there were many factors for attraction to exist between individuals. Heider felt that friendship selections involved every individual's hunt for constancy between attraction feelings for others along with individual's beliefs, outlooks and values. People go all-out for having a relationship that creates a balance between the manner they feel and the actions taken by them.

Heider employed a triadic formation to demonstrate the two kinds of relationships that could be existent among individuals. He suggested a sentiment relationship involving liking or disliking, and a unit relationship in the individual's consciousness. The later relationship contains the perception whether the two individuals are meant or not meant to be together. In both kinds of relationships, people have a tendency to establish a balanced state, this helps in developing positive sentiments of liking between individuals and the negative sentiments are

forms for those they dislike and feel that they are not meant to be together. For instance, a feeling of discomfort will prevail when the relationship is not balanced. The individuals will try to create the balance by altering their sentiment or by altering the unit relationship.

Several dimensions for attraction between individuals were provided by Heider, among them the reciprocity was the first dimension as he felt that chances of friendship among two individuals will be strong when there is a common attraction. Second dimension is proximity; spending time with each other will help in strengthening the friendship. Heider stated that spending extra time will increase the friendship; there will be formation of a unit relationship inducing positive sentiment and consequently friendship. On the contrary, people could argue that they are able to spend extra time together since they are already friends. Nevertheless, this argument proves that there is accord between the feelings of the individual and his actions. This idea has been supported by several studies as well, it is obvious that spending time interacting helps in increasing the likability among individuals. One of the studies was conducted by Newcomb in 1961, the participants of the study were first year college students, in the starting of the session they were all strangers. During the study every individual's attitude and extent of attraction was taken into account on several occasion, they were once assessed at the beginning of the study as well. By the final stage of the study many positive relationships between individuals with common attitudes had developed. The finding of the study supported the notion that spending time together helps in increasing the friendship.

After this study Newcomb suggested alterations to the Balance Theory of Heider, as he felt that theory given by Heider worked well when there were positive sentiments but it had many hitches in the event of negative relationships. It is simpler to like than dislike others, whereas as per Heider's theory, not liking will help in creating a situation with extra balance. Heider's theory was applied by Newcomb to bigger groups of people, he did not use the triads proposed by Heider. He offered that imbalance between a united group will be observed by individual members of the group. The alerted member will as a result try to decrease the imbalance; this could alter the attitudes and attraction between people and help in ultimately restoring the balance of the group. His study of the college students also supported the notion that groups had balanced situations because of prolonged togetherness.

Cognitive Dissonance Theory by Festinger was developed over the approach of interpersonal attraction; he incorporated same concepts as Heider did in his Balance Theory. It basically deals with change in the attitude of the individuals.

Reinforcement Theories

A completely contracting approach has been presented in the Reinforcement Theories for describing the interpersonal attraction. In these theories it has been proposed that interpersonal relations are greatly influenced by rewards and punishments in the physical environment. They seek to establish that individuals try

to increase their rewards to the maximum and reduce the punishments with the help of their interactions and thus they have great attraction towards individuals that help them to achieve this state. Importance is also given to the dimension of status along with group-valued aspects as measures instead of observed likeness.

One of the reinforcement theories includes the Theory of Social Interdependence developed by Thibaut and Kelley helps in describing the manner in which individuals are dependent on how others behave for attaining beneficial results personally. It is founded in the principle reinforcement is required for recurrent behaviour and people's behaviour is influenced by how others behave towards them. According to Thibaut and Kelley also felt that it is not necessary that both attraction and dependence are linked with each other.

Another reinforcement theory was developed by Aronson; it was called the Gain and Loss Theory. Aronson put forward that constant increment in rewards was required and had more impact than constant rewards. In the same way diminutions in rewards has extra effect instead of discontinuous punishment.

An essential theory of interpersonal attraction was developed by Homans known as the Social Exchange Theory; the theory proposed that specific features are appreciated between diverse groups. The aspects that are appreciated differ from group to group. Individuals representing the appreciated features in a certain group are appreciated by the members of the group as well. Individuals connected with these members are connected with their appreciated value as well. The theory suggests that in the course of interpersonal interactions, a system of costs and benefits is operational. Benefits will be in form of rewards like love and social acceptance. The benefits motivate the individuals and they continue the relationship. The social integration enhances and provided strength to social relationships. The theory also suggests that individuals measure the benefits with the cost (efforts/ investment) in a relationship; the profits will be higher if investment is more. Costs may be in form of time and monetary aspects. It could social as well, in form of disapproval socially, refutation or ridicule. Appreciated persons will have several benefits linked with them and therefore they would be wanted friends.

On the lines of Social Exchange Theory, with extra idea of investment the Equity Theory was proposed by Adams. The costs and rewards were replaced with positive and negative outcomes.

6.2.2 Attraction and Social Interaction

Awareness of physical and social attraction is established on the basis of spoken or unspoken messages. Individuals those are extremely desirable physically are socially attractive as well. Consistent indicators of attraction could be listed as facial proportion, resemblance, proximity, and the awareness of mutual attraction. Evolutionary theory suggests that both men and women attribute attractiveness differently in their companions, this can have an impact on the communication values are different. Essentially the evaluation about attractiveness is established during the initial stages of interaction, in fact it is the attraction that initiates the

social interaction. It has been observed that the pupils of the communicator get dilated when they see an attractive person.

Interpersonal attraction is the attraction among individuals that develops into a relationship of either romantic or platonic nature. It is different from the perception of being attracted physically; it has nothing to do with beauty and attractiveness. The subject of interpersonal attraction has been extensively researched in the field of social psychology. It is associated with the level of like, dislike and hatred among individuals. It may be seen as the dynamism taking place between two individuals which causes them to be drawn or undrawn towards each other. While determining interpersonal attraction, one needs to pay attention towards the assets of the attracted with those of the attractor so that accuracy of the nature of the relationship can be predicted. It is recommended that in order to define attraction, the personalities as well as the circumstances need to be considered.

In the field of social psychology, interpersonal attraction is measured with the help of Interpersonal Attraction Judgment Scale established by Donn Byrne. In this scale the subjects rate other individual on aspects like intellect, awareness of recent events, morality, adaptability, likability, and attractiveness as a partner. The scale is closely related with additional measures of social attraction like social choice, feelings of yearning for an outing, sexual companion or partner, intentional physical proximity, regularity of eye contact, etc. One more technique for measuring the interpersonal attraction is with the help of assessing the verbal replies articulated as these show the level of interest in a person.

Causes for Interpersonal Attraction

A number of factors lead to interpersonal attractions. According to the studies social reinforcement is an essential factor. The most commonly studied consist of physical attractiveness, rate of recurrence of interaction, familiarity, similarity, complementarity, mutual liking, and corroboration.

Check Your Progress

1. Define the term sociometry.

2. What are the two main approaches of social psychological theories?

6.3 SOCIAL MOTIVATION

Social motivation discusses the necessity of human being to interact with each other and to be accepted during these interactions. These interactions are measured as social behaviours that deal directly or indirectly with the response of other people. Social motives are multifaceted motive situations. They are referred to as social since they are adapted in social groups such as the family. Occasionally they are mentioned as secondary motives or learned motives or secondary motives.

There are several social motives. According to Murray there are seventeen different types of social motives. Morgan et al has categorized social motives into the following types:

- Necessity for success
- Necessity for control
- Human antagonism
- Necessity for association

6.3.1 Behaviour is Biogenic and Sociogenic

The basic goal of all individuals in a society is accomplishment of their desires and wants. Every time a necessity raises the living being are focussed on its fulfilment. In the absence of need in living being there would not be any behaviour. For instance, even if a living being is surrounded with water it will drink it only when the feeling of thirst arises, till then it will not be motivated to consume the water. The behaviour to accomplish these needs is automatic and same in all living beings, just like living beings consume food when they are hungry, here hunger is the motive. The need for food begins the search for food, the motive was hunger that started the action and it will continue till food is consumed as that is the goal. Motives are often referred to as 'dynamos' of behaviour.

Behaviour is of two types, namely biogenic or biological and the second is sociogenic or social. The former are also referred to as physiological behaviours. These are vital for the survival of the living beings. Such behaviours get activated in times of physical imbalance as the body at all times maintains equilibrium also referred to as 'homeostasis' in most of its internal body processes.

It is important to maintain balance for normalcy in life. The biogenic behaviour is triggered when the individual feels the need to have food, feels thirsty, needs fresh air, needs to sleep, avoid pain, have personal relationships, companionship, etc.

The biogenic behaviour is found in all living beings but the sociogenic behaviour is specific to humans only. This is referred to as sociogenic as this behaviour is learnt by living in social groups and is required for interacting with other members of the group. According to psychologists social behaviour is motivated due to following factors:

- Desire to achieve the goals of life
- Behaviour motivated due to aggression
- Need to be in power and control
- Material gains
- Inquisitiveness is inherent in humans
- Need to be affiliated also called gregariousness

6.3.2 Social Drives: Need for Affection, Dependence, Aggression, Self-Assertion

Humans are not only driven by physiological drives, there strive to be a part of a group results in them to be driven socially as well. They not only want to belong to a group but also attain a status and position of authority as a result the potency of social drives is much more than that of physiological drives. Some of the reasons for social drive are as follows:

- **Need for Affection:** Primary social drive ascends from this requirement of humans, they not only want to receive affection but reciprocate the affection as well. This two-way need is specific to humans only. It is also found in few bird species along with the domestic pets like dogs. To be wanted is a basic requirement for survival, the will to live is lost when an individual feels unwanted. The need for affection is primarily fulfilled by the family and its relationships. Man needs affection for the balanced development of their personality. In the absence of proper upbringing humans can grow to be selfish. Since they have not received affection they will not learn to give any as well.

- **Dependence:** The second factor for social drive among humans is their inbuilt nature to be dependent on others. Mature nurturing is a vital factor in creating dependency in children and in assisting the process of socialization. The concept of dependency is not feature of human representatives, rather it is a construct that helps humans to formulate social phenomena, and assess behaviour in relation to its suitability or unsuitability in an agreed cultural context. As the child grows the social norms are incorporated because of the dependency on the elders. This dependency allows them to behave as per the confirmed social standards.

- **Aggression:** Aggressive behaviour causes injury to people or things. Acts of aggression are undertaken in order to accomplish specific purposes, as maintained by ego formulation however on few occasions the actions are spontaneous and have nothing to do with ego. The degree of aggression displayed also varies as per the circumstances. Frustration often leads to aggression, and preventing it also leads to several types of reactions. Most critics believe that hostile reactions are an outcome of certain types of frustrations however simple denials evidently lead to many other consequences, like the frustrations may strengthen the power of the reactions resulting later. It is possible to train humans as well as animals to react in a non-aggressive manner in various situations. Thus another reason for humans to be socially driven is to be able to curb their aggressive reactions.

- **Self-Assertion:** Another important reason for social drive is self-assertion; this tends to manifests as self-display as well. It is often noted that humans have a tendency to attempt task that are difficult so that they are able to demonstrate their ability and display strength. Individuals also try to look

different from others by their dressing style. They tend to boast about their professional standing and also try to become a part of an exclusive club or association so that their financial supremacy can be asserted. On some occasions they may contest for economic, political or intellectual liberties. There have been instances of verbal discussions and fist fights also. These are merely techniques for displaying oneself in order to achieve self-assertion. Self-assertion may take the shape of domination as people try to dominate over others as they will this would help them assert themselves. The domination starts from the primary group and extends to the entire secondary group. To be considered as a superior is a form of self-assertion and it is not only visible in adults but has been observed among children and animals as well.

6.3.3 Achievement Motivation

Motives have a very crucial place in social relationships. Individuals get into interpersonal relationships so that they are able to accomplish certain goals. Every individual has their own achievement motivation while entering into relationships; the reasons could range from securing a livelihood to finding a mate or achieving a better financial status. Therefore there is always a motive for forming an interpersonal relationship. In other words in order to fully understand the concept of interpersonal relations it is crucial to consider the achievement motives behind the relation.

6.3.4 Theory of Abraham Maslow

Fig. 6.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs

In psychology, the hierarchy of needs is a theory that had been offered by Abraham Maslow in 1943. The theory appears in his paper 'A Theory of Human Motivation' in Psychological Review. He later even included his opinions of inborn curiosity among humans. There are several other theories in the field that became parallel to the theory of human developmental psychology as a result he created a cataloguing system that revealed the universal necessities of society as the basis

and proceeded towards other developed emotions. The theory of Maslow's hierarchy of needs helps in studying how humans innately participate in behavioural motivation. He has incorporated terms like 'physiological', 'safety', 'belonging and love', or 'social needs' 'esteem', and 'self-actualization' in order to explain the outline showing the direction of movement of human motivations. This denoted that for motivation to take place at the subsequent level, every level inside the individual needs to be contented. Besides, the theory provides the basic foundation for realising the correlation between drive and motivation and its reflection in human behaviour. All individual levels hold a definite quantity of internal sensation that needs to be fulfilled by the individual for completing their hierarchy. The objective of Maslow's Theory is to accomplish the fifth stage referred to as self-actualization.

6.3.5 Social Incentives: Rewards and Punishments; Praise and Reproof

Motives and incentives are dependent on the biogenic as well as sociogenic needs of all living beings. Cultural patterns are responsible for both biological and social drives among human beings. Internal circumstances giving rise to actions among individuals are referred to as motives. The society provides circumstances for these actions to take place; these are referred to as incentives. Consequently incentives are circumstances created as an attempt to alter the behaviour of other individuals. These can be positive or negative. Actions are reinforced with positive incentive whereas they are inhibited with a negative incentive.

Reward and Punishment: The behaviour of individuals is greatly influenced by rewards and punishments. Rewards are given for correct reactions and incorrect reactions confirm punishment. Material rewards in an organisation help in speeding up the task and also improves the performances. The behaviour of children can be easily controlled with the help of rewards and punishments. Exhibition of affection is a form of reward for children and even pets. The group leader is in a position to provide befitting rewards and punishments as he is aware about the personalities of his group members. Together they help in assisting the learning process and modify behaviours in a positive way. But caution has to be practiced as inappropriate incentive can lead to a drop in the efficiency. A proper combination of the two will help in correct reactions. Hamilton had many years ago displayed that same stimulus can act as a reward and punishment, for instance if the bell rings at every wrong response then it will be a punishment and the defaulters will begin to hate the sound of the bell and at the same time they will make effort for reducing the ringing of the bell, similarly if the bell rings at every correct response then it would be a reward and individuals will like the sound of the bell and would work towards making it ring frequently.

Praise and Reproof: The influence of praise and reproof has been studied very closely in psychology. It was very early realised by Hurlock during an arithmetic test that praise had an enormous reinforcement worth in comparison to reproof. The test was conducted on four groups and the group that was given the incentive

of praise performed exceedingly well as compared to the other groups. It has been observed that children also react positively to praise rather than reproof. Therefore with various experiments it was realised that rewards and punishments along with approval and disapproval or praise and reproof, all provide immense reinforcement value. These incentives have an impact on behaviours of all ages. Rewards and praise will always fetch conformity while in case of non-conformity there will punishment or reproof. Socialization is attained using these techniques irrespective of the nature of the society; it may be tribal or a highly urbanised group of people.

6.3.6   Competition and Cooperation

Competition is universal in all cultures, and can act as a sword with a double-edge. One of the reasons that sports with teams are appealing in all cultures is because in one instance the players are competing and in other they are cooperating with each other. There have been many studies about the two concepts in the field of psychology as well as anthropology. In broader sense cooperation takes place when the goals pursued are indefinite. While competition happens when the goals pursued are restricted and narrow. Competitive behaviour is evident among children as well though there is no doubt that the behaviour increases with age. According to an experimental study conducted on children playing blocks and clay it was realised that children in the age group of two years showed more cooperation while playing with clay than they did with blocks. The study also established that competitive tendencies were very strong even at such a tender age and it only enhances with age. Competition sometimes leads to aggressive behaviour also. Children refusing to part with their toys would have to compete with other to maintain their hold on the toys. Competitive behaviour among children is in a way dependent on the environment at home and the attitude of elders. By school years the child is a pro at competing with his peers. With the help of an old study Allport displayed that while working in a group the individuals feel socially facilitated.

Just as competitive behaviour is part of the culture in the same way cooperating with other comes naturally to most individuals. There are several studies that have established that a task can be performed quickly and efficiently when there is cooperation among the individuals. People tend to exhibit cooperative behaviour more frequently while being a part of a group than with strangers. Therefore both competition and cooperation depend on age, experience, social teachings and attitude of an individual.

Check Your Progress

3. What is social motivation?
4. Mention the two types of behaviour.

6.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Sociometry is a quantitative method for measuring social relationships. It was developed by psychotherapist Jacob L. Moreno and Helen Hall Jennings in their studies of the relationship between social structures and psychological well-being, and used during Remedial Teaching.

2. Social psychological theories have two main approaches; these are the cognitive consistency theories consisting of Balance Theory developed by Heider in 1958 and the reinforcement approaches consisting of Social Exchange Theory developed by Homans in 1951.

3. Social motivation discusses the necessity of human being to interact with each other and to be accepted during these interactions. These interactions are measured as social behaviours that deal directly or indirectly with the response of other people.

4. Behaviour is of two types, namely biogenic or biological and the second is sociogenic or social.

6.5 SUMMARY

- Techniques for measuring interpersonal attractiveness may be referred to as sociometry, the technique is employed not only in the field of social psychology but also occasionally in sociology, social anthropology and psychiatry.

- The measure of sociometric helps in assessing the attractions and sometimes the revulsions among people in a group.

- Theories of interpersonal attraction are used for explaining the choice patterns of sociometry; these are reflections of the key extents of peer relationships: attachment and peer status.

- In 1958, Heider proposed the Balance Theory for understanding the interpersonal attraction, with his theory he stressed on the need to focus on the perception of the individual in a relationship instead of focusing on other facts.

- After this study Newcomb suggested alterations to the Balance Theory of Heider, as he felt that theory given by Heider worked well when there were positive sentiments but it had many hitches in the event of negative relationships.

- Cognitive Dissonance Theory by Festinger was developed over the approach of interpersonal attraction; he incorporated same concepts as Heider did in his Balance Theory. It basically deals with change in the attitude of the individuals.

- A completely contracting approach has been presented in the Reinforcement Theories for describing the interpersonal attraction. In these theories it has been proposed that interpersonal relations are greatly influenced by rewards and punishments in the physical environment.

- One of the reinforcement theories includes the Theory of Social Interdependence developed by Thibaut and Kelley helps in describing the manner in which individuals are dependent on how others behave for attaining beneficial results personally.

- An essential theory of interpersonal attraction was developed by Homans known as the Social Exchange Theory; the theory proposed that specific features are appreciated between diverse groups.

- Awareness of physical and social attraction is established on the basis of spoken or unspoken messages. Individuals those are extremely desirable physically are socially attractive as well.

- Interpersonal attraction is the attraction among individuals that develops into a relationship of either romantic or platonic nature.

- Social motivation discusses the necessity of human being to interact with each other and to be accepted during these interactions.

- These interactions are measured as social behaviours that deal directly or indirectly with the response of other people.

- The basic goal of all individuals in a society is accomplishment of their desires and wants. Every time a necessity raises the living being are focussed on its fulfilment.

- Behaviour is of two types, namely biogenic or biological and the second is sociogenic or social.

- Primary social drive ascends from this requirement of humans, they not only want to receive affection but reciprocate the affection as well.

- Aggressive behaviour causes injury to people or things. Acts of aggression are undertaken in order to accomplish specific purposes, as maintained by ego formulation however on few occasions the actions are spontaneous and have nothing to do with ego.

- Motives have a very crucial place in social relationships. Individuals get into interpersonal relationships so that they are able to accomplish certain goals.

- The theory of Maslow's hierarchy of needs helps in studying how humans innately participate in behavioural motivation.

- The behaviour of individuals is greatly influenced by rewards and punishments. Rewards are given for correct reactions and incorrect reactions confirm punishment.

- The influence of praise and reproof has been studied very closely in psychology. It was very early realised by Hurlock during an arithmetic test that praise had an enormous reinforcement worth in comparison to reproof.

- Competition is universal in all cultures, and can act as a sword with a double-edge. One of the reasons that sports with teams are appealing in all cultures is because in one instance the players are competing and in other they are cooperating with each other.

- Just as competitive behaviour is part of the culture in the same way cooperating with other comes naturally to most individuals. There are several studies that have established that a task can be performed quickly and efficiently when there is cooperation among the individuals.

6.6 KEY WORDS

- **Interpersonal Attraction:** Interpersonal attraction is the attraction between people which leads to the development of platonic or romantic relationships.

- **Attraction:** Attraction is the action or power of evoking interest in or liking for someone or something.

- **Social Motives:** Social motives are multifaceted motive situations. They are referred to as social since they are adapted in social groups such as the family.

- **Self-Assertion:** Self-assertion is the confident and forceful expression or promotion of oneself, one's views, or one's desires.

6.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. Why theories of interpersonal attraction are useful?
2. Write a short note on the Balance Theory.
3. What are the various techniques for measuring the interpersonal attraction?
4. Identify some of the reasons for social drive.
5. Why motives have a very crucial place in social relationships?

Long Answers Questions

1. Discuss the Theory of Social Interdependence developed by Thibaut and Kelley.
2. Explain why the Social Exchange Theory is considered as an essential theory of interpersonal attraction.

3. Describe the various causes for interpersonal attraction.

4. Enumerate the different types of social motives.

5. List and discuss the five levels of Maslow hierarchy of needs.

6.8 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - III

ATTITUTE AND LEADERSHIPS

UNIT 7   SOCIAL ATTITUDES

Structure

7.0   INTRODUCTION

A social attitude was defined as 'a behaviour pattern, anticipatory set or tendency, predisposition to specific adjustment or more simply, a conditioned response to social stimuli' (Dockery & Bedeian, 1989, p. 11). It is an acquired tendency to evaluate social things in a specific way. It is characterized by positive or negative beliefs, feelings and behaviours towards a particular entity. In this unit, you will deal with the nature and functions of attitudes. This unit will also discuss the concept of social learning and methods of social distance.

7.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the nature and functions of attitudes

- Describe the classical conditioning model with an example

- Draw a comparison between classical and operant conditioning

- Discuss the various mechanisms for learning attitudes

- Identify the various methods of social distance

- Mention some factors that determine the strength between attitudes and behaviour

7.2 NATURE AND FUNCTIONS OF ATTITUDES

An attitude is an evaluation of an object or a person(s). It shapes our social perceptions and behaviour and it can be positive negative or neutral. Attitudes are made up of several dimensions, which are bipolar in nature; for example, specific or general, strong or weak, simple or complex like religion, known or unknown, linked to action or unlinked to action, etc. Attitudes have the following three components:

(i) **Affect:** The core involves affect, this is the emotional reaction to the object concerned. This can be described as the extent to which we like or dislike an object, for example, politicians, certain type of food, shoes, etc. In fact, all objects do trigger some kind of a positive or negative emotion. This is the feeling component of an attitude.

(ii) **Cognition:** Attitudes also involve cognitions. These include the knowledge about the object, as well as beliefs, ideas, memories and images. For example, if we are positive about a particular player or team, we would gather a variety of knowledge about him/her or them and will remember a lot about them or their performances.

(iii) **Behaviour:** The last component is behaviour. As a rule, when our attitudes are brought to mind, we are more likely to behave in accordance with the attitudes that we hold, rather than act inconsistently.

Functions of Attitudes

Every attitude serves some purpose or the other. Simply, they motivate and guide behaviour. Besides this A.H. Eagly and S. Chaiken (1998) have identified four functions of an attitude that are as follows:

(i) **Knowledge function:** This helps us to organize our understanding of the social world. This is the basis of how we attend to store, remember and retrieve information pertaining to a given object. This leads to better speed and efficiency in processing social information. This function also leads us to seek and selectively attend to information that supports our pre-existing attitudes. Self-evaluation also follows this function of attitudes. Prejudice also follows the same principle. Once attitudes have been acquired, they influence how information is gathered and processed.

(ii) **Value expressive function:** Attitudes help us to express our cherished values. This is usually carried out in groups made up of people who reinforce and support the attitudes. For example, groups who play or watch cricket, fans of Michael Jackson, groups of particular political leanings, etc. Value expression occurs in the context of reference groups. Such groups are those

whose opinions matter and affect our attitudes significantly. This function is inherently satisfying to the holder of a particular attitude. By expressing a value that is in agreement with the attitude held, people find a sense of joy and commitment to the opinions held. One is inclined to view people and groups holding similar attitudes more favourably. The type of college one joins, the subject of study one chooses, etc., also reflect the operation of the value expressive function of an attitude.

(iii) **Ego-defensive function of attitudes:** This function protects us from awareness of our own negative attributes and impulses, for example, our tendencies for aggression and sexuality. We do this by developing certain attitudes that help us view ourselves in accordance with our cherished view of ourselves. Deep down inside lurk our tendencies toward sexuality. We do not wish to acknowledge this to ourselves, because it is both frightening as well as socially unacceptable. This innate impulse is deflected on to socially less powerful groups, which perceives them to be immoral. So a prejudice attitude is developed towards the marginalized group. This leads to the phenomenon of stereotyping; for example, homosexuals are criminals.

The holding of a particular attitude help us save ourselves the acknowledgment of certain unpleasant truths about ourselves. The unpleasant truths are then perceived as typical of people belonging to a particular group in society. They are then seen as an undesirable section of society. By viewing this as the scum of society, we are able to spare ourselves the view of harbouring undesirable impulses within us. This is the ego-defensive function of an attitude; for example, we all know that accidents happen and that we or our dear ones could also suffer from it, but this is a frightening thought. Thus, our ego tries to spare us from this fear by developing an attitude which believes that road accident victims are careless road users. This attitude makes us feel relatively safe when we step on to the road. By this belief, our ego is protected from the fear of accidents and possible death on the roads.

(iv) **The utilitarian function of attitudes:** Attitudes sensitize and alert us to objects that are rewarding to us. These objects are then sought after. Other objects that are undesirable and to be avoided also figure in our attitudes. These are survival related, to begin with. For example, when there is a toxic atmosphere, we try to avoid it. But when there is clean fresh air, we wish to stay longer. Similarly, after eating sweet foods; one is naturally drawn to something that is salty to taste. These are beneficial to survival. Stimuli that are initially neutral, can be modified by pairing with objects that generate a positive or negative reaction. Example: consumer products are sold by pairing emotionally arousing pleasant sights, sounds, smells etc. with certain products. Also using animals, children, alluring women etc.,

have been found to be useful strategies for selling goods and services as compared to the use of neutral objects. Our attitudes are vital for daily living. They help us identify rewarding and threatening objects. Attitudes are the reason why we choose to belong to certain groups. They protects from unpleasant realities. Attitudes act as powerful guides to our understanding of the social world.

7.2.1 Forming Attitudes

Attitude is considered to be the central theme in social psychology. Generally, it refers to an individual's evaluation about the social world; the extent to which people have favourable or unfavourable reactions to any issues, ideas, persons, social groups or objects. Attitude is one of the seriously researched topics in social psychology. The reason is that attitudes strongly influence human thoughts, feelings and behaviours. The evaluation an individual makes about his or her world is very important. It forms the basis of social cognition. Eagly and Chaiken (1998) suggest that social thoughts are slowly and steadily build by attitudes. Attitudes are learned. Some evidence suggests that attitudes may be influenced by genetic factors too.

For example, one individual may like vegetarianism another may like non-vegetarianism. One may have a positive approach to one political party, another may have a total negative approach to that party. Certain social psychologists notice that at times people take neither positive nor negative stand instead they take a middle stand, otherwise called ambivalent (J.R. Priester and R.E. Petty, 2001; M.M. Thompson, M.P. Zanna and D.W. Griffin, 1995). It is also an important point that people find it very difficult to change any attitude.

7.2.2 Social Learning

Attitudes are learned from society and this is why children do not show social discrimination. Social learning theory or SLT is the theory that suggests that people learn new behaviour through observational learning of the social factors in their environment. If people observe positive, desired outcomes in the observed behaviour, then they are more likely to model, imitate, and adopt the behaviour themselves.

Mechanisms for learning attitudes

By and large, socialization is the process by which attitudes are learned. This is the process by which a child becomes an adult member of a given society. Children learn attitudes from all those significant people around them. First, it is from parents (home), then from the school (teachers), then from friends, media and others.

Attitudes acquired from other persons

The processes underlying the learning of attitudes have been identified by psychologists and are as follows:

   (i) Classical conditioning

   (ii) Instrumental conditioning

   (iii) Modelling

(i) Classical conditioning

Classical conditioning is learning by association. The principle involved here is that when one stimulus occurs first and this is then consecutively followed by another, then the appearance of the first becomes the signal that the second would also occur. Soon, the same reactions that have been occurring to the first stimulus would also occur to the second stimulus. This would be more so if the second stimulus by itself is capable of evoking strong reactions (refer Figure 7.1).
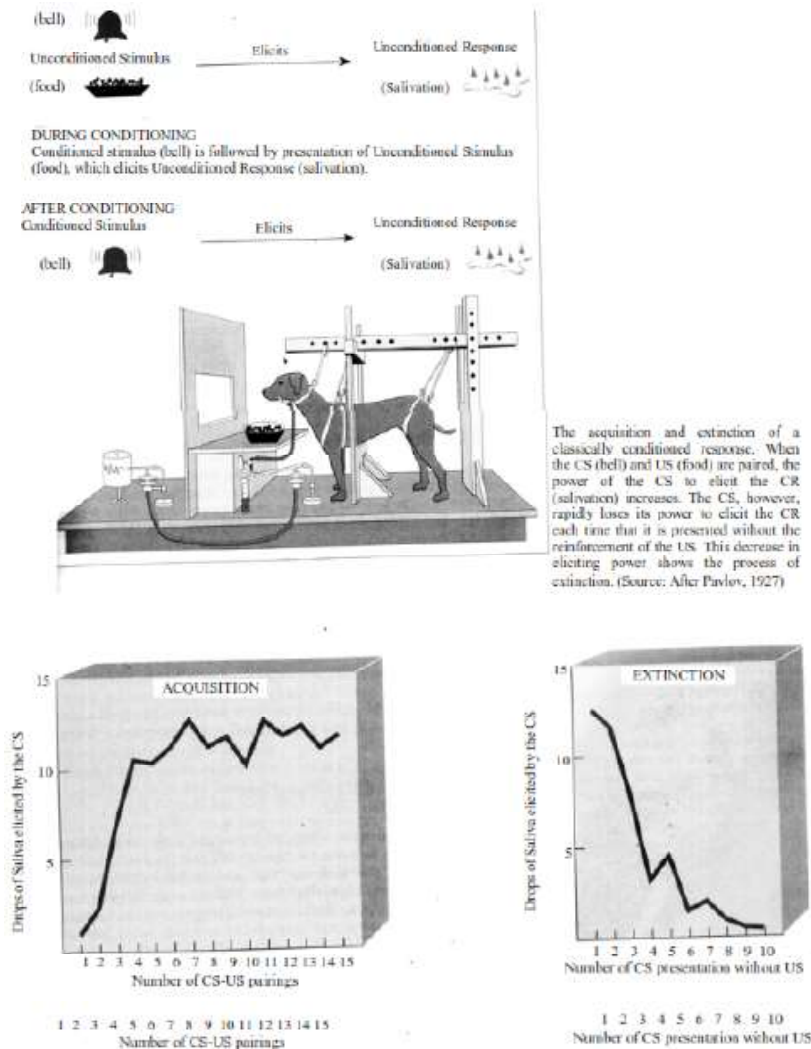
Fig. 7.1 Classical Conditioning Model

In Figure 7.1:

- CS = Conditioned stimulus
- UCS = Unconditioned Stimulus
- UCR = Unconditioned Response
- CR = Conditioned Response

This process of classical conditioning can be seen as the basis for acquiring attitudes as well. Staats et al (1962) found that initially neutral words when paired with words or stimuli that tend to elicit strong negative reactions (like electric shocks or harsh words, etc.) acquire the capacity to elicit strong negative or unfavourable reactions.

Evaluations form the core of attitudes

Judgements or evaluations occur all the time during social interactions. In real-life conditions, the classical conditioning model can be seen to apply directly to the process of acquiring attitudes. For example, a child repeatedly sees the mother's frowning or avoiding members of a particular social group, each time she meets them. There are other signs of displeasure also that are displayed in this context. At first, the child is indifferent to the members of this group and shows no reactions. The child does not identify characteristics associated with this group (hair, clothing, language, etc.). However, as a result of the repeated pairing of this group and its members with the mother's negative reactions; the child now starts associating certain obvious characteristics with the members belonging to this group. Gradually, the child also comes to react negatively to these identifiable characteristics and thereafter to the group members, associated with these traits. This is the process by which attitudes are learned.

If members of a particular group are often isolated, despised and talked about negatively and the behaviour towards them are one of displeasure/avoidance, etc., and these are repeated then children and others would come to associate these negative thoughts and behaviour with the group in question. Soon the group and its members would be evaluated negatively. The child and the others have learnt to associate a specific group with certain characteristics, with negative or distinct responses. The group and its members are evaluated negatively. This completes the process of social learning of attitudes.

Since language is also part of the evaluation process and negative statements accompany negative reactions involving specific group members, the verbal responses are also acquired for description. Thus, both language and behaviour besides thoughts and feelings are also learned. So, all the three components of an attitude, thought, feeling and behaviour are learned through classical conditioning processes, involving association.

There is also evidence to suggest that this form of attitude learning occurs, even when people are not fully aware of the stimulus. Here, the explanation of acquiring negative attitudes in based on the unconscious association that occurs as a result of repeated pairing. When affect arousing stimuli are presented only for a very short duration, the recognition may not occur. The emotions, specially the negative ones, associated with the stimuli are aroused. So conditioning occurs even outside of conscious awareness. This has implications for the association between affect and cognition. That emotions are experienced even before the stimuli are properly recognized indicates that learning of the association between emotion and thought can be readily triggered by the affect, well ahead of the understanding of the stimuli or object that is creating the response.

Attitudes are aroused by emotions, even when the object of affect is not well recognized.

In terms of attitude learning, this means even before our object is recognized, the negative emotions associated with it are aroused; for example, the names of people belonging to a particular group could arouse negative emotions long before the members of the group are even encountered. This is known as subliminal conditioning. J.A. Krosnick (1992) and his colleagues indicate that even if subjects cannot identify or recognize certain stimuli adequately, yet the stimuli shape our attitudes. This is indeed a powerful process at work.

(ii) Instrumental conditioning

Studies on instrumental conditioning have been derived from the work of Bekhterev and Thorndike. Here, the subject's or person's behaviour is instrumental to the gaining of a reward or avoidance of punishment, therefore the name, instrumental conditioning. Since there is an operation involved it is also known as operant conditioning.

Consider an example, where a child hears the ice cream vendor and the child goes and buys the ice cream. Here, it is important to recognize that both types of learning get incorporated (classical and instrumental types of conditioning). In the first part, the child salivates to the sound of the ice-cream vendor's bell. This is the classical conditioning part of the learning. In the second half of the sequence, the child knows that reward would occur if certain responses are made, like going with the money and buying the ice-cream and then eating it. The first part is involuntary (salivation) the second part is voluntary. The first part is learned by classical conditioning and the second part by operant conditioning. This is known as the Two-factor theory of learning.

Procedural variations have been tried to establish different forms of control over a person's behaviour. E.L. Thorndike (1911) distinguished between satisfiers

and annoyers or positive and negative reinforcers. A satisfying state of affair is one wherein a person does something to gain a reward or benefit. A negative or dissatisfying state is one wherein a person is motivated to avoid some situation.

Four instrumental conditioning procedures have been proposed by Krosnick (1948), which are as follows:

(i) **Reward training:** It is a type of box apparatus used for training. Here, a pigeon is presented with a light source and a key for pecking. The bird is rewarded with food for pecking the key as soon as the light appears.

(ii) **Avoidance training:** Here, the subject can avoid any noxious stimulus by responding to a signal in a given manner. Bekheterev (1932) used conditioned withdrawal responses of hand or foot after being delivered an electric shock, by pressing on a bar or lifting a hand or foot, from a pedal or grid. Sometimes, turning off a noxious stimulus by operating a switch also constituted a form of avoidance training.

(iii) **Omission training:** In this type of learning, a positive reinforcement occurs when a particular response fails to appear. In daily life the best known example would be one where food is given only when the dog does not jump on to the sofa or bed in a house. The training is to omit the dog's behaviour of jumping on to the bed/sofa.

(iv) **Punishment training:** In this type of training a shock or any other form of punishment follows the occurrence of a specified response; for example, a child is rebuked or whacked for disobeying the adult command. This type of training is generally used for extinction of a given, undesirable response.

Shaping Behaviour

Animals can be trained to perform tricks in a circus, dogs can be trained to sniff for drugs, children can be made to do complicated dance steps, etc. All these involve gradually molding the responses into a desired pattern. These are carried out by a process known as successive approximations. This means engaging in a series of steps of ever closely matched responses to the ultimate pattern of behaviour desired. For example, teaching a child to tie shoe-laces would involve the following steps:

- **Step 1:** Allow the child to slip into the shoes.
- **Step 2:** Then teach the simple knot to the child.
- **Step 3:** Let the child put on the shoes and tie the knot.
- **Step 4:** Get the child to perfect the knot.

Reward each step and get the desired behaviour. It may take time, but it can be achieved. A behavioural effect of various types of consequences is tabulated in Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 *Behavioural Effects of Various Types of Consequences*

	Consequence of making a response	Example	Effect on response probability
Positive reinforcement	Positive event begins	Food given	Increase
Negative reinforcement	Negative event ends	Pain stops	Increase
Punishment	Negative event begins	Pain begins	Decrease
Punishment (response cost)	Positive event ends	Food removed	Decrease
Non reinforcement	Nothing	——	Decrease

Table 7.2 *Comparison of Classical and Operant Conditioning*

	Classical conditioning	Operant conditioning
Nature of Responses	Involuntary, reflex	Spontaneous, voluntary
Reinforce-ment	Occurs before response (Conditioned stimulus paired with unconditioned stimulus)	Occurs after response (Response is followed by reinforcing stimulus or event)
Role of learner	Passive (Response is elicited by US)	Active (Response is emitted)
Nature of learning	Neutral stimulus becomes a CS through association with a US	Probability of making a response is altered by consequences that follow it.

(iii) Modelling

The third type of learning is modelling. A class watches the teacher draw a particular figure. Later, when the children are given paper and crayon they also try to draw a similar figure. Here, both observation and modelling are involved. In observational learning, watching and initiating the actions of others is the key to obtain the desired responses. Modelling is a process, in which information or behaviour is imparted by example, even before direct practice is allowed. So, the viewer merely gets to see and notice a particular action, with no practice involved.

A model is a person who serves as an example in observational learning, A. Bandura (1971). By observing a model a person may do the following:

(i) Learn new responses.

(ii) Learn to carry out or avoid previously learned responses (depending on what happens to the model for doing or not doing the same thing).

(iii) Learn a general rule that can be applied to various situations.

Certain conditions that must be present for observational learning to occur are as follows:

(i) The learner must pay attention to the model and remember what was done; for example, a child watches Tendulkar hit the ball to all parts of the ground. He would attentively watch a few movements and strokes, but he cannot remember, all of them. So the learning is not complete.

(ii) The learner must be able to reproduce the modelled response; for example, we may watch world class gymnasts, but may never to able to reproduce their movements.

(iii) If the model displays a response and is rewarded for it, the learner is more likely to imitate that response/behaviour; for example, a hero's behaviour.

In other words, a model who is attractive, rewarded, admired, high in status, is likely to be imitated more than others, who are low in these features, Bandura and Walters (1963).

Finally, when a new response is tried, normal reinforcement determines whether the responses would be repeated thereafter.

Imitating Models

Modelling has a powerful effect on behaviour. In a classic experiment, children saw a clip where an adult was shown attacking a blown up doll called BoBo–The Clown. All types of attacking acts were viewed. Later, the children who had viewed these clips were frustrated by having their favourite toys taken away from them. They were then presented with the BoBo doll. Most imitated the attacks that the clip showed to the doll. The children also punched, kicked and threw the doll, to express their anger. This showed that the children imitated the model in the film clip and displayed similar behaviours. Children do not blindly imitate models. Only those models who are rewarded provide them with an incentive for initiating.

Children imitate what parents do, more than what they say. Thus through modelling, children learn attitudes, gestures, behaviours and even fears and anxieties. Bad habits are also possibly learned through modelling. For example, use of foul language, beating, yelling, screaming, not getting up early, etc., are also learned from models in the home, school, peers and then the media. TV also acts as a model. Televised violence has been found to have a significant impact on

aggressive outbursts in children and adults. Parents and other sources serve as guides for passive formation of attitudes. Forming attitudes takes place through the following:

(i) **Association:** Classical conditioning.

(ii) **Reinforcement/punishment:** Instrumental conditioning; children and others are rewarded for holding and expressing certain attitudes and punished for wrong unacceptable ones.

(iii) **Modelling:** We learn and base our behaviour and attitudes only by seeing and hearing others who are significant in our lives.

Genetic Factors

Genetic factors can influence our height, eye colour, and physical characteristics, the idea that they might also play a role in our thinking seems strange, to say the least. In fact, a small but growing body of empirical evidence indicates that genetic factors may play some small role in attitudes (Arvey et al, 1989; Keller et al, 1992).

Most of this evidence involves comparisons between identical and non-identical twins. Because identical twins share the same genetic inheritance while non-identical twins do not, higher correlations between the attitudes of the identical twins would suggest that genetic factors play a role in shaping such attitudes. This is precisely what has been found; the attitudes of identical twins do correlate more highly than those of non-identical twins (Waller et al., 1990).

Attitude's influence on behaviour

Social psychologists came with lot of research evidences that attitudes influence human behaviour. For example, if one believes that a person is threatening, he may feel dislike and therefore act unfriendly with that person. It seems several factors determine the extent to which attitudes influence human behaviour. To say a few, the situation, features of the attitude and strength of the attitude decides the effect of influence on behaviour.

Attitudes, reasoned thought and behaviour

The first of these mechanisms seems to operate in situations where to give careful, deliberate thought to our attitudes and their implications for our behaviour. For example, in their theory of planned behaviour, Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) suggest that the best predictor of how to act in a given situations is the strength of our intentions with respect to that situation (Ajzen, 1987).

Perhaps, a specific example will help illustrate the eminently reasonable nature of this assertion. Suppose a student is considering body piercing, for instance, wearing a nose ornament. According to Ajzen and Fishbein, these are strongly influenced by three key factors.

The first factor is the person's attitude toward the behaviour in question. If the student really dislikes pain and resist the idea of someone sticking a needle through his nose, his intention to engage in such behaviour may be weak.

The second factor relates to the person's beliefs about how others will evaluate this behaviour (this factor is known as subjective norms). If the students think that others will approve of body piercing, his intention to perform it may be strengthened. If he believes that others will disapprove of it, his intention may be weakened.

Finally, intentions are also affected by perceived behavioural control—the extent to which a person perceives a behaviour as hard or easy to accomplish. If it is viewed as difficult, intentions are weaker than if it is viewed as easy to perform. Together, these factors influence intentions; and these, in turn, are the predictor of the individual's behaviour.

Direct Experience

Some attitudes are also learned and formed as a result of one's own experiences; for example, liking for a particular type of food, dislike for a group in society, fondness for a special type of music, etc., are all acquired on the basis of direct experiences with these situations. Attitudes formed by direct experience are generally stronger and are very resistant to change.

Attitudes formed through direct behavioural experience with an attitude object have been found to better predict later behaviour than attitudes formed through indirect experience. An experiment was conducted to test the hypothesis if an information processing difference exists between direct and indirect experience. Subjects watched a videotape of an individual who was working on a puzzle. The subjects were asked whether to empathize with that person or not. Taking the perspective of the person having the direct experience led 'empathy subjects' to behave more consistently with their own reported attitudes toward those puzzles than 'control subjects'. The results suggest that direct experience affects the attitude formation process by altering the way in which the available information is processed.

Attitude as heuristics

Altitudes act as heuristics. This shortcut helps us to reduce the information overload that we experience and facilitates decision-making. Attitudes help us simplify living; for example, by having a particular food preference, the choice of restaurants becomes very much easier, when planning to eat out.

7.2.3 Methods of Social Distance

Social distance is a measure of social separation between groups caused by perceived or real differences between groups of people as defined by well-known social categories. It manifests across a variety of social categories, including class,

race and ethnicity, culture, nationality, religion, gender and sexuality, and age, among others. The following are the methods of social distance:

Thurstone scale (method of equal-appearing intervals)

In psychology and sociology, the Thurstone scale was the first formal technique to measure an attitude. It was developed by Louis Leon Thurstone in 1928, as a means of measuring attitudes towards religion.

Likert's method

Likert (1932) developed the principle of measuring attitudes by asking people to respond to a series of statements about a topic, in terms of the extent to which they agree with them, and so tapping into the cognitive and affective components of attitudes.

Likert-type or frequency scales use fixed choice response formats and are designed to measure attitudes or opinions (Bowling, 1997; Burns, & Grove, 1997). These ordinal scales measure levels of agreement/disagreement.

Osgood's method of semantic differential

Semantic Differential (SD) is a type of a rating scale designed to measure the connotative meaning of objects, events, and concepts. The connotations are used to derive the attitude towards the given object, event or concept.

The Semantic Differential Scale is a seven-point rating scale used to derive the respondent's attitude towards the given object or event by asking him to select an appropriate position on a scale between two bipolar adjectives (such as 'warm' or 'cold', 'powerful' or 'weak', etc.)

Process of Attitude Change

One who upholds tradition is considered as conservative, whereas someone who breaks traditional social norms is radical in nature. And in this regard, persuasion is someone who can change other's behaviour. There are three bases for attitude change: compliance, identification, and internalization. These three processes represent the different levels of attitude change.

- **Compliance:** Compliance happens with simple acts where we feel no need to challenge the request or where there is no emotional investment required, for example where a person asks you to pass the salt at the dinner table.

- **Identification:** Identification happens for a number of reasons. When the other person is a social leader we may well want to associate with them and so accept their arguments (there may be some degree of compliance in this).

- **Internalization:** Internalization often requires significant cognitive processing as we think about what is said and fit the ideas into our existing beliefs and values.

NOTES

Resistance to change has affective, cognitive, and behavioural components that create a psychological resistance to making a change in particular situations or overall changes in one's life, and often appears in psychotherapy and/or when organizational alterations are underway.

Diffusion of innovations

Diffusion of innovations is a theory that seeks to explain how, why, and at what rate new ideas and technology spread.

Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'social attitude'?
2. What are the three components of attitudes?

7.3   ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOUR

One would expect a strong relationship to exist between attitude and behaviour. However, the link is at best a weak one. This explains why many of us hold certain attitudes, but do not always convert them into suitable behaviour. For example, we all believe that water is to be conserved but we do not engage in behaviour that support this attitude at home or outside. We waste and pollute water sources without a care for this precious resource.

Often, attitudes do not predict behaviour well. Factors that determine the strength between attitudes and behaviour are several. Let us first learn about attitude specificity and then learn about the other factors.

1. **Attitude specificity:** It is easy to recognize that certain attitudes are very specific, while others are general, or vague, for example: Fondness for chutney or cruelty to animals. The chutney preference is a highly specific one and can be seen in almost every situation, but the second attitude may not always elicit behaviour that is aimed at preventing cruelty to animals. Ajzen and Fishbein (1977) are of the view that general attitudes have a weak link to behaviour.

   Specific attitudes can predict behaviour, more favourably.

The Essential Link: Specificity, Component, Vested Interest, Attitude, Strength and Accessibility

It is obvious to expect a clear link between strong attitudes and behaviour. Strong attitudes tend to develop from direct experience, as compared to those passively learned from observation or narrations by others.

Vested interest

A second factor is vested interest in a given issue. Anything that is concerned with one's own life has a lot of significance. So, attitudes that are related to one's life have a lot of valence. For example, young people would be more interested in employment opportunities than older people. So the youth would have vested interests in job-related matters. This attitude would be more closely linked to behaviour from this group, as compared to the older group; many student activism behaviour is based on this need in their group.

Availability

Availability refers to the ease with which attitudes can be accessed, Fazio (1986). Anything that comes to mind readily has a greater influence over behaviour than those that are not easily recallable.

Increased vested interests could lead to more availability and therefore exert greater influence on behaviour. This gets further strengthened if directs experience is involved in learning a particular attitude. Thus, the attitude-behaviour link is related to the following:

- The type of learning (direct or indirect)
- The extent of vested interests involved
- The extent of availability

Each of these is interrelated and one increases the strength of the other. All these jointly enhance the attitude–behaviour link.

Self-Awareness and the Attitude–Behaviour Link

Gibbons (1978) found that heightened self-awareness increases the likelihood of the attitude–behaviour model. This increases the experiences, creates more vested interests and thereafter increases the availability of an attitude (refer Figure 7.2).
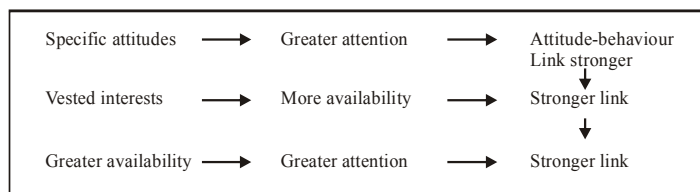
Fig. 7.2 *Self-Awareness and the Attitude–Behaviour Link*

Figure 7.3 illustrates the ABC model, which stands for the Affect-Behaviour-Cognition model. Each attitude is made up of affect, behaviour and cognition. It is also called the attitude accessibility model.

According to the attitude accessibility model (Fazio, 1989), attitude accessibility—the ease with which attitudes can be retrieved from memory—plays a key role in the attitude-behavior link. Major components of the model are illustrated here.

Presentation of attitude object → Attitude activated-retrieved from memory → Perception of attitude object and situation affected → Behavior toward attitude object affected

***Fig. 7.3** Attitude Accessibility Model*

Source: Based on suggestions by Fazio, 1989.

This model is based on associative strength. The strength of the association between an attitude object and its memory is crucial for the evaluation of the object. The stronger the association, the more readily the attitude is activated and the larger the influence on behaviour. Some attitudes may be activated in an automatic manner. This is called the Automatic Attitude Activation Effect, Bargh et al (1996). Once activated, attitudes come into consciousness and guide overt actions.

Strong attitudes, specific attitudes and personally relevant attitudes are generally more accessible. Therefore, some attitudes have a direct link to behaviour while others do not.

Attitudes and behaviour link is also subject to the influence of subjective norms (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1980). This is known as the Theory of Reasoned Action which suggests that people quite consciously and deliberately choose one form of action, as opposed to another. These subjective norms are made up of what others will (or will not) accept or approve as a course of action. Certain types of clothes, behaviour, etc., will not be acceptable to others in certain situations. Another example is attitudes of mothers towards breast-feeding. Ajzen (1996) also proposed the theory of planned behaviour which involves people's beliefs about whether they can successfully engage in a particular behaviour. For example, the use of contraception; it is not only attitude towards this topic, but also the feasibility of carrying out this thought into action, that determines the outcome in terms of behaviour. This is perceived control over a given behaviour. This theory predicts well, whether students would engage in studies with greater effort for higher academic achievements, dieting, exercising, undergo medical testing and a host of other related actions.

Attitudes are sometimes inconsistent. This also creates problems for the smooth link between attitudes and behaviour; for example, we may like certain traits in a person, but dislike certain habits in them. This sometimes makes it hard to develop friendship with such a person.

Attitudes are also influenced by the inconsistency between feelings (affect) and cognitive (knowledge) components, in terms of the behavioural outcomes.

For example, many people like a job with the government, but not the salaries. So one is not able to predict which of these components would dominate, while predicting behaviour—choose a government job or go to the private sector for employment.

Another problem in the attitude-behaviour link is the mismatch between attitudes and actual behavioural targets; for example, save the tiger from extinction is a correct attitude. How would it convert into behaviour other than making a donation to the cause? Specific instances of real behaviour are often far away from the attitudinal concerns.

In general, advocates of an activist philosophy of nonviolence use diverse methods or Ghandian method in their campaigns for social change, including critical forms of education and persuasion, mass noncooperation, civil disobedience, nonviolent direct action, and social, political, cultural and economic forms of intervention.

Check Your Progress

3. What do you understand by the term 'vested interest'?
4. What is the Automatic Attitude Activation Effect?

7.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. A social attitude was defined as 'a behaviour pattern, anticipatory set or tendency, predisposition to specific adjustment or more simply, a conditioned response to social stimuli'.

2. The three components of attitudes are affect, cognition, and behaviour.

3. Vested interest is a personal reason for involvement in an undertaking or situation, especially an expectation of financial or other gain.

4. The strength of the association between an attitude object and its memory is crucial for the evaluation of the object. The stronger the association, the more readily the attitude is activated and the larger the influence on behaviour. Some attitudes may be activated in an automatic manner. This is called the Automatic Attitude Activation Effect, Bargh et al (1996).

7.5 SUMMARY

- A social attitude was defined as 'a behaviour pattern, anticipatory set or tendency, predisposition to specific adjustment or more simply, a conditioned response to social stimuli' (dockery & bedeian, 1989, p. 11).

- An attitude is an evaluation of an object or a person(s). It shapes our social perceptions and behaviour and it can be positive negative or neutral.

- Attitudes help us to express our cherished values. This is usually carried out in groups made up of people who reinforce and support the attitudes.

- Attitudes sensitize and alert us to objects that are rewarding to us. These objects are then sought after.

- Attitude is considered to be the central theme in social psychology. Generally, it refers to an individual's evaluation about the social world; the extent to which people have favourable or unfavourable reactions to any issues, ideas, persons, social groups or objects.

- Social learning theory or SLT is the theory that suggests that people learn new behaviour through observational learning of the social factors in their environment.

- Classical conditioning is learning by association. The principle involved here is that when one stimulus occurs first and this is then consecutively followed by another, then the appearance of the first becomes the signal that the second would also occur.

- Judgements or evaluations occur all the time during social interactions. In real-life conditions, the classical conditioning model can be seen to apply directly to the process of acquiring attitudes.

- Studies on instrumental conditioning have been derived from the work of Bekhterev and Thorndike.

- Animals can be trained to perform tricks in a circus, dogs can be trained to sniff for drugs, children can be made to do complicated dance steps, etc. All these involve gradually molding the responses into a desired pattern.

- A model is a person who serves as an example in observational learning, A. Bandura (1971).

- Genetic factors can influence our height, eye colour, and physical characteristics, the idea that they might also play a role in our thinking seems strange, to say the least.

- Social psychologists came with lot of research evidences that attitudes influence human behaviour.

- Social distance is a measure of social separation between groups caused by perceived or real differences between groups of people as defined by well-known social categories.

- One would expect a strong relationship to exist between attitude and behaviour. However, the link is at best a weak one.

- Availability refers to the ease with which attitudes can be accessed, Fazio (1986). Anything that comes to mind readily has a greater influence over behaviour than those that are not easily recallable.

- Gibbons (1978) found that heightened self-awareness increases the likelihood of the attitude–behaviour model.

- Strong attitudes, specific attitudes and personally relevant attitudes are generally more accessible. Therefore, some attitudes have a direct link to behaviour while others do not.

7.6   KEY WORDS

- **Cognition:** Cognition is the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses.

- **Behaviour:** Behaviour is the range of actions and mannerisms made by individuals, organisms, systems, or artificial entities in conjunction with themselves or their environment, which includes the other systems or organisms around as well as the physical environment.

- **Classical Conditioning:** Classical conditioning refers to a learning procedure in which a biologically potent stimulus is paired with a previously neutral stimulus.

- **Instrumental Conditioning**: Studies on instrumental conditioning have been derived from the work of Bekhterev and Thorndike. Here, the subject's or person's behaviour is instrumental to the gaining of a reward or avoidance of punishment, therefore the name, instrumental conditioning. Since there is an operation involved it is also known as operant conditioning.

7.7   SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answers Questions

1. Why is attitude considered to be the central theme in social psychology?
2. Write a short note about social learning theory or SLT.
3. What are the various mechanisms for learning attitudes?
4. How does an attitude influence human behaviour?
5. Mention some factors that determine the strength between attitudes and behaviour.

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Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the nature and functions of attitudes.

2. Describe the classical conditioning model with an example.

3. Discuss the four instrumental conditioning procedures proposed by Krosnick.

4. Draw a comparison between classical and operant conditioning.

5. What is a social distance? Discuss the various methods of social distance.

7.8   FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 8   GROUPS AND THEIR FORMATION

Structure

8.0   INTRODUCTION

Not all members of a group act in the same way or carry out the same functions. A considerable degree of differentiation exists in the functioning of members. Different people work at different tasks and accomplish things for the group. These are roles that members are required to fulfil. Sometimes roles are assigned in a formal manner and sometimes roles emerge in the course of group interaction. For example, a leader may be assigned by designation or a leader can emerge in terms of the task that needs to be accomplished. Within a group, two types of roles have been described, viz.,

  (i) task-oriented roles, and

 (ii) relations-oriented roles.

     We will discuss these roles in the first section. This unit will discuss the kinds of groups and their properties. This unit will also deal with experimental studies, village factions and group effectiveness.

8.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Mention the various types of groups

- Differentiate between formal and informal groups
- Explain the concept of experimental studies
- Describe the concept of 'village factions'

- State the parameters for evaluating the group effectiveness
- Discuss group dynamics, group morale and reference group

8.2 KINDS OF GROUPS AND THEIR PROPERTIES

The task-oriented role focuses on getting the job done, while the relations-oriented role emphasizes reducing interpersonal friction and maintaining a harmonious interaction among the members. These two are differentiated in familiar terms as the role of being a father and mother. Once the roles have been accepted, people internalize them.

(a) Roles

Individuals occupying specific positions within a group are expected to perform a certain set of behaviours. For many people, the roles they perform define and contribute their self-concept, like Deputy Commissioner, Head of the Department, CEO, etc. Roles help in clarifying responsibilities and obligations of the persons belonging to a group.

Roles also involve a way in which groups shape the thought and behaviour of their members**.**

Roles can also generate conflict. For example, when members have to take on more than one role at a point in time—a task master as well as a pacifier. Another type of conflict, as seen in personal life, is being a parent as well as a professional. At times, roles are clearly circumscribed and the boundaries are specified. This could limit freedom; for example, a leader has to maintain a certain distance from the rest (this does limit certain interactions). This is a limitation because roles impose a structure and this could prevent flexibility in functioning. Another dimension along which groups functions is ***status***—the prestige associated with a given role. Status is the social standing or rank that is seen related to a role. Some of the measures of status are office size, size of table, number of assistants, special privileges like assigned car, parking slots, travel benefits, etc. Status is significant in determining how roles are performed.

(b) Norms

These are rules by which group members are regulated. There are two types of norms, viz., *prescriptive* (how to behave) and *postscriptive* norms (how not to behave). Almost all groups insist on norm obedience from their members. There are norms that family members are expected to follow. Office norms control and specify how the office-goers must observe, like all members must join for dinner (in a family), office begins at 9.00 am, lunch break 1.30–2.00 pm (in office).

(c) Cohesiveness

Cohesiveness is the force that acts to keep group members as part of a group. This includes mutual attraction, interdependence, shared goals and so on. It is cohesive if the members like one another very much, strongly desire the goals that the group is seeking, and feel that another group would not satisfy their needs. The opposite of this situation is when the members do not like each other much, do not share common goals and find that other groups could offer them more satisfactory memberships. The first condition would lead to cohesiveness, while the latter would lead to disintegration of the group. Cohesiveness involves the following two distinct elements:

(i) Interpersonal cohesiveness**:** The extent to which members like each other.

(ii) Task-oriented cohesiveness: This refers to the extent to which the membership provides for the achievement of personal goals. For example, being a member of a sales team. The ultimate goal at the individual level comes from the group functioning; being in an assembly line manufacturing group, etc. When both these dimensions of cohesiveness are high, good performance can be predicted. When tasks can be carried out singly, then task-based cohesiveness is not critical. Sometimes high levels of interpersonal cohesiveness might interfere with performance because members may spend time socializing rather than focusing on the task completion.

Other factors that influence cohesiveness are as follows:

(i) The extent of difficulty in gaining entry into the group (greater effort, more attraction).

(ii) The presence of external threats or severe competition, invasion from outside, more unity/cohesiveness (fighting terrorism, etc.).

(iii) Size—small groups are found to be more cohesive. All these jointly determine the influence of the group on members.

The need for socialization is what differentiates human beings from animals. Throughout history, humans have settled in small and large groups to satisfy their need for safety and security. Even today, we are aware of the fact that forming a group lightens our burdens and increases productivity. In addition to this, in a group people specialize in different skills that add variety and lead to better results. In the society, we have peers, colleagues, classmates, etc.

It is of great value to be a member of a group. Through group relationships many needs, such as companionship, status, and power are satisfied. Social roles and relationships also develop. Development of groups takes time and depends on various factors, such as the size, frequency of interaction and so on. One of the well known models on group development is Bruce Tuckman's model of group development which has five stages:

(i) **Forming:** At this stage people come together. At this stage there is uncertainty and hesitation amongst group members and the extrovert members of the group quickly assume the leadership roles.

(ii) **Storming:** At this stage people try to maintain their position in the group, there can be disagreement, but eventually roles are allocated. This is the most uncomfortable phase of group development**.**

(iii) **Norming**: At this stage as memberships are formed, the group tries to find an issue they stand for, the kind of behaviour should be acceptable.

(iv) **Performing:** At this stage after the formation of group is complete, the group members carry out activities they intended to perform.

(v) **Adjourning:** Tuckman and M.A. Jensen added this fifth stage to the original model. In some cases, particularly when groups are formed for a very short duration, the adjourning phase is relatively ordinary. This implies that the group members leave the group and move on.

8.2.1 Formal and Informal Groups

A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task. It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose. A formal group can be a command group or a functional group that is relatively permanent and comprises managers and their subordinates who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service. Formal groups can be defined as those groups that are formed and authorized by the management in order to achieve the goals of the organization. The goals of formal groups are determined according to the need of the organization. In formal groups, the behaviour of group members is predetermined and directed towards the achievement of the goals of the organization. Some of the examples of formal groups include airline crew, hotel staff, teaching staff, etc. Such groups are formed depending on the skills required, knowledge, and experience. The formal groups usually work under a single supervisor, even though the structure of these groups may vary. For example, in one form of group such as in production, the members of the work group depend on each other as well as on the supervisor and in another form of group, such as sales force, the members of the group work fairly independently and their common contact may be the district sales manager. Other types of formal groups include task forces and committees. The task forces are temporary in nature and are set up for some special projects. The committees can be permanent, such as a planning committee, a finance committee or a budget committee and may become an integral part of the organizational structure. A committee can also be temporary such as a special task force that is set up for a particular purpose and is then disbanded when the purpose is achieved. For example, the committee to re-elect the President is temporary in nature and is disbanded after the election**.**

Informal Groups

Formal groups are established by organizations to achieve some specific objectives, the 'informal groups are formed by the members themselves. They emerge naturally, in response to the common interests of organizational members. They are formed spontaneously, without any formal designation, and with common interests such as self-defense, work assistance, and social interaction. They exist outside the formal authority system and without any rigid rules.'

Though officially unrecognized, they exist in the shadow of the formal structure as a network of personal and social relations, which must be understood and respected by the management. Informal groups are more casual and based on interpersonal relationship, i.e., people with whom other employees get on well. Informal groups are not under any managerial control. In the work environment informal groups are formed naturally due to the need of social contacts, but they are not related to the overall function of the organization. Informal group satisfies social and psychological needs and also acts as a huge motivator. Some of the examples of informal groups include colleagues, friends, peers, etc. Such groups are found in every workplace. For instance, people from different departments of the organization may spend time together cutting across the formal line of the organization. The informal work groups are 'based upon socio-psychological support and reasoning and depend upon member's interaction, communication, personal likes and dislikes and social contacts within as well as outside the organization.' These informal groups are powerful which can be seen from the fact that if one member of the group is fired, sometimes all workers go on strike in support of that member of the group. The bonds between members are very strong and these bonds bring in a sense of belonging and togetherness. This togetherness can have a powerful influence on productivity and job satisfaction, since employees motivate each other and share each other's burden by training those who are new and by looking up to old timers for guidance, advice and assistance. Informal groups are formed 'due to personal bonds and social interaction among people who work together at the same place and may have similarities as well as differences in their nature and their outlook. These groups have their own leaders and followers, group goals, social roles and working patterns.'

They have their own unwritten rules and a code of conduct, which every member implicitly accepts. Members trust and help each other. For example, in a department of a college, the departmental secretary may wield more authority in some areas than even the chairperson as in the case of typing exams and typing course outlines. Thus a professor who has a good rapport with the secretary, as a member of the informal group, would have the papers typed sooner than others.

The leader of the informal groups is selected from within rather than a formal election.

An individual, who is working in a group for a long time and has a good rapport with other members, may emerge as a leader due to his technical expertise

and his seniority. For any problem within the group, either technical or social, the members would go to this leader rather than the formally assigned supervisor.

8.2.2 Group Characteristics

There are various characteristics or dimensions of a group which allow us to understand the group dynamics. These are as follows:

(i) **Norms:** They are prescriptions of behaviour accepted and determined by the group. Every group has its own set of rules or norms, which it expects from its members, such as things which they must do and not do. Norms also determine the kind of behaviour expected from group members. However, depending on the types and kinds of groups, each group has its own set of specific norms.

'Group norms are a set of beliefs, feelings, and attitude commonly shared by group members. These are also referred to as rules of standards of behaviour that apply to group members.'

(ii) **Status:** Refers to the official position enjoyed by an individual in an organization. It refers to the importance that is given to others. People who belong to the higher level of the organization and who have brought recognition to the organization by devoting their time to the organization, enjoy a higher status. Therefore, they have more control over their subordinates. Those who are experts enjoy more authority in group decision-making as compared to those who are relatively less experienced. All members in a group do not enjoy equal status, which is dependent on factors like,

- Nature
- Demographic characteristics
- Educational level, experience
- Expertise
- Personal attributes

(iii) **Cohesion:** Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group. It identifies the strength of the members' desires to remain in the group and the degree of commitment to the group. Cohesiveness of the group is reflected by the level of unity displayed by the group members and obedience to group norms. Cohesiveness of a group can produce miracles in the organization if group objectives and organizational objectives are corresponding to each other. If they differ then group cohesiveness can be disastrous for the organization.

(iv) **Conformity**: When an individual belongs to a group, he/she abides by group norms and the group decision against one's own judgment. An individual's need for affiliation is satisfied when an individual is fully accepted in the

group by group members. In conflicting situations an individual goes by the decisions made by the group. Conformity with group norms and group decision provide an individual enough emotional strength to cope with organization stress.

Check Your Progress

1. Differentiate between the task-oriented role and relations-oriented role.

2. What are the two types of norms?

8.3 EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES, VILLAGE FACTIONS AND GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

In this section, we will discuss about experimental studies, village factions andgroup effectiveness.

8.3.1 Experimental Studies

Experimental studies are the primary technique for analysis in sciences such as sociology and psychology, physics, chemistry, biology and medicine, etc. The fundamental feature of these experiments is that the variables are controlled, measurements are done carefully and cause and effect relationships can be easily established.

Experimental studies may be defined as an assemblage of research strategies that employ influence and well-ordered testing for understanding the fundamental processes. Usually, few of the variables are influenced so their effect can be determined on the variables dependent on them. The experimental study of variables helps the research to be carried out in a systematic and scientific manner.

Experimental studies are regularly helpful in cases where:

- Time priority exists in a causal relationship, i.e., the cause leads effect.
- The causal relationships are constant, i.e., the effect of the cause is constant.
- The extent of the correlation is abundant.

The title experimental studies can be explained with many definitions, however strictly speaking experimental studies are researches that have been conducted in the real sense as the researchers have conducted the research by manipulating one of the variable and they have controlled the remaining variables. There is a control group, the participants are divided between the groups in a random manner and the researchers systematically observe the effect of the experiment in every group and log the effects. In broader sense it may be defined as a research wherein the scientist dynamically stimuluses objects in order to notice the consequences.

Aims of Experimental Studies

Experimental studies are piloted so that the researchers are able to provide a logical prediction of the phenomenon. Usually, all experiments are created so that they are able to explain the cause of occurrence. Experimental studies are very essential for the society as they help in improving the routine lives. For the experiment to be beneficial it is essential for it to be conducted objectively, the outlook and thoughts of the researchers should not influence the effects of the experiment. The data provided should be completely unbiased for it to be valid.

Methods of Experimental Studies

Experimental Studies may be carried using any of the following methods:

- Laboratory experiments are controlled experiments as they are undertaken in an environment that is controllable. Such experiments mostly provide accurate results. The experiments are properly planned by the researchers, every detail like the nature of the participants, circumstances, procedures is standardised well in advance. The participants are distributed randomly to all variable groups. Two popular examples of experimental studies conducted in a controlled environment are the Milgram Experiment on obedience or the car crash study conducted by Loftus and Palmer. The test conducted in a laboratory can be easily replicated and the variables can be controlled so the cause and effect relationship is easily established. But sometimes the staged experiment may not permit the participants to behave naturally and the results may not be so applicable in real life situations. Moreover the results could be biased.

- Field experiments are conducted in routine environment of the partakers. The real life settings are used for experiments however the researchers manipulate one of the variables. The most popular example of field experiment can be seen in the obedience study conducted by psychiatrist Charles K. Hofling on the nurses of the hospital, they were not aware about being a part of the study; this study was much more realistic than the obedience study carried out by Milgram. The natural setting helps the participants to behave realistically and thus increasing the validation of the effects. The everyday environment provides less control to the researchers on the variables and this may give biased outcome and moreover the study cannot be replicated.

- Natural experiments are another real life study, the participants are completely independent and the researchers do not manipulate any of the variables. The most popular natural experimental study was the 1989 Attachment Research conducted by Hodges and Tizard, the study was undertaken as a critique to the theory of Maternal Deprivation by Bowlby. The natural setting helps the participants to behave realistically and thus increasing the validation of the effects. The natural experiments are not cost effective and require lot of time as compared to the laboratory experiments. The everyday

environment provides less control to the researchers on the variables and this may give biased outcome and moreover the study cannot be replicated.

8.3.2 Village Factions

Competitions between groups over resources that are scarce may be referred to as factionalism. The quest for power leads to factionalism. There are many forms and prevails in every part of the world. In villages, factionalism is an essential social process and it has its roots in the structure of power. Factionalism in political parties may be referred to as competition between various groups in order to seize the control over the organisation of the party organization. The objective of all factions is to get power. Therefore factionalism, in a nutshell, may be referred to as antagonism existing within groups of the society. It is an integral part of the modern social system of every society. In villages the social factions are common and they have become entangled with their culture and traditions. There are many factions in the society and all these are constantly in conflict with each other. In order to understand the extent of factionalism prevailing in villages it is essential to understand the term, faction. A faction is an alliance of individuals and they are individually selected by a leader. The leader normally has personal bonds with followers. Sometimes the leader allows the followers to select new members.

Factions in all social systems are creation of the rapidly changing social order and adjustments for maintaining a balance in the political power. Most studies on the subject of factionalism have employed the method of analysing structural functions of these factions and they have been seen as a part of vigorous equipoise of a stable opposition. Many studies have also been conducted in order to study the village factions by several Social-Anthropologists like Lewis, Dhillon, Yoginder Singh, F.G.Bailey, Yadav, Beals, McCormack, A.K. Lal, D.F.Miller , Rastogi, M.N. Srinivas, Firth , Mayer, Epstein etc. and the list is endless. These scholars have studied the various factions existing in the villages of India, for instance Lewis, Dhillon, Yoginder Singh and Bailey have conducted a study on factions with caste system as the basis. Their studies were published by starting of 1960. They reviewed the various factions existing in a particular village and traced the origins of these factions. Their primarily focused on the unity factor of the village. *Village life in Northern India,* by Oscar Lewis is a ground-breaking study on the factions of Jats inhabited in village named Rampura, in southern part of New Delhi.

As mentioned earlier the objective of all the studies was to figure out the causes for the formation, about the leaders, etc. The chief findings of Lewis's study were as follows:

- Factions are formed vertically within the caste.

- Most factions were created on matters concerning property, money and women.

- The quest for power is the agenda of these groups however they are not groups of political nature and they are long-term alliances among its members.

Primarily these are groups based on kinship meant for carrying out essential socio-economic and traditional functions in spite of their conflicts. The factions are able to remain stable due to such functions.

- Dominating caste forms the chief factions in the village and the leaders also belong to the dominant caste.

- The leaders of the faction are not only richest in the village but also have lot of influence and perform the task of landlords and money-lenders for the poor population of the village.

- Few factions work for the welfare of the villagers as well.

A study of six villages in Uttar Pradesh was conducted by Yogender Singh; he titled his study as, 'Group-Status of factions in rural community'. The outcomes of this study were quite similar to those of Lewis.

In most of the studies it was found that factions in the villages were quasi groups regularly interacting among each other and became hostile only during a conflict. Another common feature was that on several occasions the leaders of factions formed alliances with groups having similar aims.

8.3.3 Group Effectiveness

The capability of a group to achieve its aims and objectives as decided by the leader or the organization may be referred to as group effectiveness. A group is an assemblage of individuals performing their individual task that are integrated with the final goal. They responsibility for the results is shared by all and they present themselves as a single unit functioning within an organisational system. The members of the group are expected to function within the set boundaries of the system. The members of the group unable to function within the set boundaries are bound to affect the overall effectiveness of the group. Group effectiveness is same as team effectiveness. The effectiveness of the group can be measured by using any of the six team effectiveness models, these include GRPI model of Rubin, Plovnick, and Fry, the Katzenbach and Smith model, the T7 model, the LaFasto and Larson model, the Hackman model and the sixth one is the Lencioni model. The group effectiveness can be evaluated by using a number of components; these have been established with detailed research and studies. According to Hackman, there are three parameters for evaluating the group effectiveness:

- **Output:** The group should be able to provide the final output as per the standards established by the leaders of the organization.

- **Social Processes:** The in-house social processes functioning as the group works together should improve, or at most maintained. This reflects the ability to work together another time.

- **Learning:** All members should work towards creating a healthy work environment for the entire group instead of personal comfort.

The parameters can be properly evaluated by measuring the performance of the team at the end of the task and by evaluating them for their intragroup

processes. There are three main processes within the group that need to be examined; these are intra-group conflict, team cohesion, and team-efficacy. Intra-group conflict is an essential part of the process that a group experiences and the effectiveness of the group as a unit is created.

Intragroup conflict can be of two types, the first is relationship conflict and the second could be conflict concerning the task (task conflict).

Team cohesion is referred to the degree of cooperation among the group members while performing the task. Team efficacy denoted the views of the team members about the level of calibre within the team; this perception helps in building the confidence in the group.

Hackman has listed five conditions essential for increasing the group effectiveness:

- Stability
- Clarity and vision of the goal
- Positivity
- Strong support system
- Reliable guidance

An initiative taken by Google Inc. aiming to establish the features of an ideal group in work place also confirmed the above mentioned conditions significant along with these it was realised that mental safety is another crucial condition for group effectiveness.

8.3.4 Reference Group and Group Morale

Sociologist define reference group as a standard that has been set for comparing an individual or team behaviour. Reference groups are useful in evaluating and determining the features and social qualities of individuals or groups. It is the benchmark which has to be achieved. It acts as a reference for existing groups and acts like a guide book for them to perform efficiently. They are useful in drawing comparisons and differences in the appearance and performance of groups or individuals.

According to Robert K. Merton individuals equate themselves with people of a reference group and try to replicate their achievements. According to William Thompson and Joseph Hickey, reference groups are groups referred by people while they are trying to evaluate their personal potentials, conditions, attitudes, standards and behaviours. It provides the reference frame for evaluation of achievements, performances, ambitions and desires. A reference group may be through a membership of a group or from an external group.

Group Morale

Cooperation within a group is very essential for the group to stay united. Another essential factor for keeping the group united is the morale of the group. Group

Morale may be referred to as the team spirit or harmony of the group. Every group is based on a social structure. The interaction among people leads to the formation of groups. Groups become the focal point for formation of morale. The groups that lack morale will also lack cooperation among its members. A.L. Kress felt that group morale is the dealings of its members in relation to their loyalty and care for others in the group. Morale is a group phenomenon, it functions are same as the functions of the group. According to Blum, morale is a side effect of the group and is produced by the group. Morale may be the willingness of the members to cooperate in achieving the goals of the group.

According to Allport group morale is the attitude of the individuals towards the endeavours of the group. Therefore morale has social as well as personal characteristics. Group morale is synonyms to team work and it can be observed in organisations, classrooms, military units, trade-unions, etc. Morale is the feeling of belongingness towards the group.

Features of group morale are as follows:

- Acceptance within the group
- Sense of belonging
- Similar goals and motivations
- Believing in the objectives of the group and working towards their achievement

These features develop only when the group morale is high.

According to Guien group morale is:

- Lack of conflict
- Sense of contentment
- Good personal adjustment
- Lack of ego in tasks
- Group cooperation
- Uniformity in attitudes of the members

According to Maier 'poor morale is generally and is more often than not characterised by an attitude of apathy and resignation. Either interest in the goal is absent or the obstacles between the individual and the goal are regarded as insurmountable.'

The causes of group morale could be situational or incidental. Nonetheless, the group morale is mostly dependent on the presence of a mutual objective, attitude, kind of leadership and control, sense of unity, empathy and sense of togetherness, understanding of observable progress towards the objective, patience and autonomy, open to criticism and modification, benevolence, group cooperation and lastly strong communication between the group members, confidence and respect are most essential. These factors have been confirmed by the various

studies that have been undertaken in experimental studies of social psychology. It was also realised that sufficient communication and different interpersonal relationship between members and showing respect to the position of each member is essential for the presence and continuance of group morale. The outcome of Bank observation Room study conducted as a part of the popular Hawthorne Studies indicated monetary incentives were secondary in maintaining the group morale to the factors mentioned above. However importance of financial benefits cannot be completely overruled.

According to the experiment undertaken by Lewin it was established that leadership and style of supervision also determine the group morale. The personal relations of the leader with the members of the group can strengthen or weaken the morale of the group.

Moreno's Sociometric technique, and Jenkins' nominating technique are helpful in the measuring the morale of the group. The latter was an improvement on the model presented by Moreno; the technique involves the members to announce a name of the group member whom they consider as an ideal.

Methods of Raising Morale

Once the level of the morale has been figured out the following methods can help in increasing the morale of the group depending on the level. There are four methods through which the level of the group morale can be increased:

- Expert approach
- Spy approach
- Counsellor approach
- Member-Problem approach or Employee Problem Approach.

Morale of the group can be raised by increasing the interaction among the members of the group. The group members can organise outings and picnics together. Group morale can be increased by spending time together while having fun; it has been known to have a positive impact on the morale of any kind of group.

8.3.5 Group Dynamics

The behaviour of people in groups is the domain of social psychology which has been defined by Baron and Byme (1977) as, 'the scientific field that seeks to investigate the manner in which the behaviour, feelings or thoughts of one individual are influenced or determined by the behaviour and or characteristics of others.' Psychology enters the picture because the individual person is influenced by the group and contributes to it. Educational psychology is concerned with the reaction of the individual learner with the class as a group and its impact on the group and the individual. If we observe the animal and birds in nature we find that animals and birds move in group, help each other and have a social order of their own.

The social order in ants is highly complex comprising of hierarchical order within the groups. Monkeys, cows and birds have their own social system which appears surprising to many people who think that social order is primarily a human affair. Considerable similarity exists between animal and human social order in the sense that social system influences the behaviour to a great extent.

Man is a social animal. He is not an isolated island either in development or in day to day coping with the environment. His development depends on social interaction. It is impossible to imagine of the harmonious development of a child without proper socialization. A number of studies have proved that children reared in the company of animals, remained underdeveloped and could not progress beyond the stage of animal level. We can cite the example of wolf-children of Midnapur (Amla and Kamla) who, in their infancy, were taken by wolves and were brought up in their company. These children developed behaviour characteristics of animals as walking on four, eating flesh, howling the language of wolves. They were retarded in their intellectual development. Thus, we see that social interaction plays an important role in the development of intellectual and other abilities of the individual. Mostly an individual from morning till evening moves and works in social groups and is normally member of five to six different groups.

Children in school situations mostly interact in groups in the classroom and on the playground. The teacher, parents, social workers, psychologists and other persons who are interested in the improvement of social relations must study the mechanisms that operate in social interaction. To deal effectively with social groups one must study the dynamics of social behaviour.

What is a Group?

A group has been used and defined from different angles. Sometimes we find people gathering on road or at other places for a particular purpose for a very short period. These people do not have any relationship except that they have assembled for some specific purpose as crowd on the road, in a train, on a bus stand. The group we are interested in as teachers is quite different from other groups, in the sense that a classroom group has characteristics which are not found in other groups.

Important Definitions of Group

Sherif and Sherif in their book on social psychology defined a group as: 'A group is a social unit consisting of a number of individuals who stand in role and status relationships to one another, stabilized in some degree at the time and who possess a set of values or norms of their own regulating their behaviour, at least, in matters of consequence to the group.'

M. Smith (1945) defined a social group emphasizing the awareness of members of the group with each other. According to him a social group as a unit consists of plural number of separate organisms who have a collective perception of their unity and who have the ability to work together and are acting in unitary manner toward their environment.

Bass (1960) approached the definition of a group from the angle of motivation and satisfaction of needs. He says that an individual joins a group because it satisfies some of his needs and the membership of the group is rewarding to the individual.

Mills (1967) defined group in terms of its goals and objectives. The group is a unit composed of two or more persons who come into contact for a specific purpose and consider the contact meaningful.

Another approach to the definition of group is of McDavid (1968), who emphasized the role of organization in the formation of groups. He defines a group as 'A social psychological group is an organized system of two or more individuals who are interrelated so that the system performs some functions, has a standard set of role relationship among its members and has a set of norms that regulate the function of the group and each of its member.'

Fielder (1967) defined a group as, 'By a group we, generally, mean set of individuals who share a common fate, that is who are interdependent in the sense that an event which affects one member is likely to affect all.'

We see that invariably all theorists agree that there is interaction among the members of a group that binds them together.

Characteristics of Human Groups

Human groups have certain characteristics which distinguish them from animal groups. A group must have the following essential characteristics in order to be called a group in psychological sense:

1. **Motivational base:** It means that the members of a group must share some common aim or objectives so that their activities may be goal-oriented. The motivational base differs from group to group. It depends on the type of the group and its ultimate goal.

2. **Organization:** The group must have a well-organized structure of its composition. The roles should be well-defined. The group must have rules, regulations and a set of norms which bind the individual members into a string and regulate the conduct of individual members. The group structure consisting of differentiated roles and statuses delineates its members from that of non-members.

3. **Interdependency:** The members of a group are woven into a web. They are influenced by each other's action and reaction. Interaction among the members of a group brings changes in the personality of an individual member and influences the group as a whole.

4. **Structure:** Structure is an essential property of a group to attain its aims and objectives: structure of the group may be in terms of power. It may be hierarchical in nature in which the power is vested in the highest authority of the group. It may be democratic in nature where the power is vested in every member of the group.

Types of Groups

It is difficult to give the exact types of groups because groups can be classified on the basis of their origin, purpose, duration and area, etc.

Herbert A. Thelen, in his book *Dynamics of Groups* has classified the groups into the following categories:

1. **Face-to-face group:** This is a type of group in which members meet at a given time and place. There is direct interaction among the members of the group. Classroom teaching may be treated under this category.

2. **The hang-over group:** This type of group refers to an intimacy which was previously shared by a member. Family comes under the hang-over group. The child is influenced by family rules and regulations but when he enters adolescence, no doubt, family remains a sphere of influence but in certain cases it does not play a decisive role.

3. **Abstract group:** It refers to the abstract group characteristic of certain actions. A vague idea of belongingness in time and space develops in the mind of the individual such as nation, public opinion, conscience of the world, religion, profession, and moral ideas.

Characteristics of Class as a Group

We have already mentioned the essential properties of a group. Now, we will see whether a class in the school fulfils all the characteristics of a group. The class has the following essential properties which make it a group in the psychological sense:

1. **Common goal:** The class has a common goal. All the members attempt to reach the goal decided by the school and the larger society. They are bound together for a common goal. The goal of the class is well-defined.

2. **Organised structure:** The class has a well-defined structure. There is homogeneity in the group as regards their age, subject background.

3. **Motivation:** It is implied in the first characteristic of the group. The members of the class are motivated for the achievement of a common goal.

4. Leadership: The class as a group has a leader. The functions of a leader are discharged by the teacher. Leadership may be of different types as democratic, autocratic, and laissez faire. We will discuss in detail the leadership and its impact on the behaviour of the group in the following pages.

Group Dynamics

Interest in group behaviour is quite a new area of research studies. Very few studies were conducted on group behaviour before the pioneering work of Kurt Lewin who devoted much of his time to study dynamics of small group behaviour. He borrowed basic concepts from physics and geometry. Dynamics means changing. Imagine a group which is constantly interacting. The personality and

behaviour of the members constituting the group undergo perpetual changes. The behaviour is not static. Group dynamics means the change of behaviour through interaction in the group. It refers to the forces which operate in group situations. It studies the structure of the group and other phenomena which emerge out of group interaction.

You may ask a simple question: Why should a teacher study group dynamics? The following are the reasons:

Examine the work of a teacher. He has to deal with groups from five to six periods daily. In order to make his teaching effective, he must study group dynamics of small groups. Class is collection of pupils coming from different socioeconomic backgrounds. The teacher must have knowledge of the process of interaction among students. If the teacher is well-equipped with the basic knowledge of group dynamics, he can provide better guidance for adjustment. He would be able to improve the emotional and social climate of the class.

The knowledge of group dynamics has acquired tremendous importance in recent years in developing countries. Ours is a developing country the old joint family system is dying out. The family is not able to provide sense of security, cooperation and affection in the present era of disintegration of old joint family system. Adolescent boys and girls seek shelter, love, and motivation from their groups. The teacher must know how adolescents form groups and what the structure of groups is in general and other mechanisms operating in group situation.

In school, most learning takes place in social situation. Mental health of the group is an important factor in the learning process. If there are conflicts, rivalry, fear or anxiety in the group, learning will be disturbed. The teacher with the knowledge of group dynamics can improve the social and emotional climate of the group. He can find out the causes and can use remedial measures to maintain conducive environment in the class. He can improve intragroup relations to maintain the mental health of the individual members.

Check Your Progress

3. What is the fundamental feature of experimental studies?

4. Define the term 'factionalism'.

5. What is group effectiveness?

8.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The task-oriented role focuses on getting the job done, while the relations-oriented role emphasizes reducing interpersonal friction and maintaining a harmonious interaction among the members.

2. There are two types of norms, viz., prescriptive (how to behave) and postscriptive norms (how not to behave).

3. The fundamental feature of experimental studies is that the variables are controlled, measurements are done carefully and cause and effect relationships can be easily established.

4. Competitions between groups over resources that are scarce may be referred to as factionalism.

5. The capability of a group to achieve its aims and objectives as decided by the leader or the organization may be referred to as group effectiveness.

8.5 SUMMARY

- The task-oriented role focuses on getting the job done, while the relations-oriented role emphasizes reducing interpersonal friction and maintaining a harmonious interaction among the members.

- Individuals occupying specific positions within a group are expected to perform a certain set of behaviours.

- Cohesiveness is the force that acts to keep group members as part of a group. This includes mutual attraction, interdependence, shared goals and so on.

- A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task.

- It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose. A formal group can be a command group or a functional group that is relatively permanent and comprises managers and their subordinates who meet regularly to discuss general and specific ideas to improve product or service.

- Formal groups are established by organizations to achieve some specific objectives, the 'informal groups are formed by the members themselves. They emerge naturally, in response to the common interests of organizational members.

- The leader of the informal groups is selected from within rather than a formal election.

- Group norms are a set of beliefs, feelings, and attitude commonly shared by group members. These are also referred to as rules of standards of behaviour that apply to group members.

- Cohesiveness defines the degree of closeness that the members feel with the group.

- Experimental studies are the primary technique for analysis in sciences such as sociology and psychology, physics, chemistry, biology and medicine, etc.

- Experimental studies may be defined as an assemblage of research strategies that employ influence and well-ordered testing for understanding the fundamental processes.

- Laboratory experiments are controlled experiments as they are undertaken in an environment that is controllable.

- Field experiments are conducted in routine environment of the partakers. The real life settings are used for experiments however the researchers manipulate one of the variables.

- Natural experiments are another real life study, the participants are completely independent and the researchers do not manipulate any of the variables.

- Competitions between groups over resources that are scarce may be referred to as factionalism. The quest for power leads to factionalism.

- Factions in all social systems are creation of the rapidly changing social order and adjustments for maintaining a balance in the political power.

- The capability of a group to achieve its aims and objectives as decided by the leader or the organization may be referred to as group effectiveness.

- Sociologist define reference group as a standard that has been set for comparing an individual or team behaviour.

- Group Morale may be referred to as the team spirit or harmony of the group. Every group is based on a social structure.

- The behaviour of people in groups is the domain of social psychology which has been defined by Baron and Byme (1977) as, 'the scientific field that seeks to investigate the manner in which the behaviour, feelings or thoughts of one individual are influenced or determined by the behaviour and or characteristics of others.'

8.6 KEY WORDS

- **Role:** Role is defined as the position or purpose that someone or something has in a situation, organization, society, or relationship.

- **Status:** Status is the social standing or rank that is seen related to a role.

- **Norms:** Norms are rules by which group members are regulated.

- **Cohesiveness:** Cohesiveness is the force that acts to keep group members as part of a group. This includes mutual attraction, interdependence, shared goals and so on. It is cohesive if the members like one another very much, strongly desire the goals that the group is seeking, and feel that another group would not satisfy their needs.

- **Formal Group:** A group is formal when it is purposely designed to accomplish an organizational objective or task. It is created via a formal authority for some defined purpose.

8.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. Mention the various types of groups.
2. What are the various factors that influence cohesiveness?
3. Differentiate between formal and informal groups.
4. What do you understand by the concept of 'village factions'?
5. State the three parameters for evaluating the group effectiveness.
6. What are the various features of group morale?

Long Answers Questions

1. Discuss the various characteristics or dimensions of a group.
2. Explain the concept of experimental studies.
3. Describe the various aims and methods of experimental studies.
4. 'Human groups have certain characteristics which distinguish them from animal groups.' Explain these characteristics?
5. Explain the concept of group dynamics and its elements.

8.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 9   CONFORMITY AND DEVIATION

Structure

9.0   INTRODUCTION

Conformity is a form of social influence; it involves bringing about a transformation in the beliefs or behaviour of an individual in order to be accepted within a group. The transformation takes place due to physical or abstract pressure from the group, the expectations and social norms of the group act as kind of abstract pressure.

In this unit, you will learn about conformity and non conformity. This unit will also discuss social mobility, crime and delinquency.

9.1   OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of conformity
- Discuss the various reasons for deviation
- Describe the concept of social mobility
- Define concepts like crime and delinquency

9.2   CONFORMITY

In the words of Richard S. Crutchfield conformity may be explained as '*yielding to group pressures*'. The pressures from the group can take various forms; they could be in form of intimidation, coaxing, bantering, condemnation, etc. The influence of the majority has also been occasionally referred to as conformity; it is

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form of a group pressure. The study of conformity was initially carried out by psychologist Jenness. He conducted his study in form of an experiment, the participants where showed a bottle filled with beans and they had to guess the number of beans first individually and then they were divided into groups and were expected to unanimously guess the number with the help of discussions. Then they were again expected to provide an estimate independently, the initial estimates had been altered after spending time with other participants, they resembled the estimates of the group.

Though the study played a crucial role in explaining conformity but the experimental studies carried out by Solomon Asch are known to be the most influential. The series of psychological experiments exposed the level of group influence over personal opinions and beliefs. Asch realised that individuals were ready to overrule their correct answer and gave into the wrong answers just so that their response was in conformity with the majority of the members.

Types of Conformity

According to Herbert C Kelman there are three kinds of conformity, namely

(i) **Compliance:** Acceptance of views of the group. This conformity takes place when people begin to agree with others in their attempt to be accepted and get into good books. This is regarded as the lowermost level of conformity. The person gives up personal beliefs and begins to behave as per the majority. This is mostly short-term and normative social influence causes the individuals to behave in such a complying manner.

(ii) **Identification:** Conformity for attaining membership of a group. This takes place when the person is willing to get influenced as the aim is to establish a relationship with another group or individual. Individuals obey to the beliefs of a social role; it is same as compliance as the personal beliefs are not altered in this form. An effective illustration of this form of conformity is visible in the Stanford prison study by Phillip Zimbardo. This is mostly short-term and normative social influence causes the individuals to behave in such a manner.

(iii) **Internalisation:** Real receipt of the norms of the group. There is conformity in not only the external behaviour but the individual personally also beliefs in the same principles. This is mostly long-term and is caused by informational social influence. This is the profoundest level of conformity. The individual and public views are one and the same. The conformity of this form was well illustrated with the help of the experiment conducted by Turkish American social psychologist Muzafer Sherif. The experiment is popularly known as Sherif's autokinetic experiment. This form of conformity takes place when the knowledge of the minority is insufficient and majority possess much more knowledge for them to be challenged by anyone.

Besides the three types of popularly known forms of conformity, a fourth form was suggested by Man (1969), it was referred to as Ingratiational, people confirming with others in order to earn favours and create a positive impression. The motivation behind this form is social reward of acceptance though same as normative influence.

9.2.1 Deviation/Non Conformity

Deviation may be defined as opposite of conformity, it occurs when the actions of the individuals are not in accordance with the set norms of the social order. Departing from customary standards is also called deviation. Social pressure does not always lead to conformity. An individual could have a desire to act in a manner that is different from the behaviour of the majority. According to Smith and Bond cultural differences also contribute in conformity amongst countries of the west and east. People belonging to USA or United Kingdom (western cultures) are more prone to have distinctive personalities and their thoughts and behaviour is often independent from the majority. They treasure their independence and self-sufficiency and are not willing to sacrifice them under social pressure. Such individuals are bound to deviate from the established norms and exhibit non-conformity. In the Asian countries (eastern cultures) the behaviour of people is more likely to be in conformation of the social norms, people here value family traditions and have a strong sense of belongingness hence they would be more prone to social pressure.

Psychologists Meade and Barnard in 1973 under took a research that confirmed the anti-conformist behaviour is more common in West, the study was conducted on participants belonging to China and America, and the results exhibited more deviation in the behaviour of Americans than the Chinese students. The study also described the nature of cultures in the respective areas; America had more individualistic culture whereas the culture in China was collective in nature.

Reasons for Deviation

Individuals in a group are likely to deviate from the established standards due to following reasons:

- Lack of communication or miscommunication
- Unavailability of documentation
- Lack of training among individuals of the group
- Inadequate motivation towards conformity
- Lack of guidance
- In an organisation personnel could deviate due to unavailability of tools and equipment
- Lack of knowledge
- Poor or defective work environment

It is believed that people displaying deviating behaviours are motivated internally to disturb the group's balance. Furthermore anti-conformist does not get influenced by social pressure as they have rebellious tendencies. However, there have been several studies that have established that non-conformity is not always negative and sometimes being the odd one out has its benefits. People who do not give in to social pressure are mentally stronger than others.

Check Your Progress

1. Define the term 'conformity'.

2. What is deviation?

9.3   SOCIAL MOBILITY

Mobility refers to a change, transformation and movement. There could be a change in the place or position. Additionally, change does not have a value that means that it could be good or bad. Attaching 'social' to the mobility could be in reference to people in the society moving to another place or status. The movement in the social hierarchy could be ascending or descending or it even inter-generational or intra-generational. To put it briefly, social mobility refers to change in the situation of a person or a group, the change is mostly in status.

Sociologist Sorokin was the first one to write on the subject of social mobility in his book, *Social and Cultural Mobility*. He believed that the society can neither be completely closed (Indian Caste System) or open (Class System). He also believed that all societies are different and have their respective levels of social mobility. And also the rate of change will not be same all the time and variations are bound to be there in different periods. The changes in the society are dependent on the amount of urbanisation. In the words of Barber, social mobility denotes movement that may be upward or downward in higher or lower social classes. The movement has to be understood as a process that is a result of interactions among people in the society.

In a way, mobility offers the individual with extra or less of the benefits that are offered by the society or his economy. For instance son of a rickshaw puller can become a doctor, a peon's son can become a lawyer, and in both the cases the changed roles of the sons have offered them a better life than their father's.

The change in the role would need wits, training and hard work. People have to be motivated enough to work towards changing their roles and attain a higher status. Good things of life are not in abundance and they are many competition for them. Most people believe that social mobility is always positive and closed societies are not good, however this is not really true. In a closed society an individual does not feel frustrated due to failure of being unsuccessful. The aspirations

of individuals do not exceed their capabilities moreover people constantly live in familiar surroundings. Individuals wanting mobility have to continuously acclimatize to varied social circumstances of the fresh class, values, and ways. A person belonging to a closed society may not be happy when faced with so much change and unfamiliarity.

Living in a closed society is not always beneficial and a change is healthy as it opens door to new opportunities. It is not necessary that intelligent parents will have children with similar mental ability. Society has to give opportunity to all equally to change their position. This is essential for the advancement of the entire social system.

Social mobility has following connotations:

- Changed occupation will also lead to status change
- Being appointed to a higher post in the existing job
- The accretion of pre-eminence in an existing job
- Change of occupation between generations, for example son of a rickshaw puller becoming a doctor

Types of Mobility

A change in the individual's social position can result in many forms and natures. The mobility is not always same and alters between one period to another. Listed below are different types of social mobility, they are not limited and could overlay, they have been provided with different names for better understanding:

Horizontal Mobility: There is a change however the social status of the person remains same as before. There is merely a shift in the social group of the individual.

In the words of Sorokin, '*Horizontal mobility refers to territorial, religious, political party, family, occupational and other horizontal shifting without any noticeable change in vertical position.*'

Vertical Mobility: There is a change in the occupation of the individual resulting in altering the economic and political status. According to Sorokin, vertical mobility is a shift from one social level to another.

The direction of the change could be upward or downward, the person could rise up on the social ladder or go down to a lower status. Loss in business could result in change of the status of a businessman and from a higher level he may shift to a lower level. In the same way a small entrepreneur may work hard and increase his earnings and move up in the social ladder. Vertical mobility is more possible only in an open society.

On the other hand, if a small businessman with occupational skills of money and manipulation becomes an industrialist he occupies a higher position in the

social ladder. Hence, his position improves in the hierarchical order.

Upward Mobility: Movement of the individual to an upward position. Upward mobility occurs when an individual belonging to a lower caste after contesting for elections gets appointed as a minister and starts to hold position of importance. The caste of the individual will always remain the same but due to his position he would have more political and economic power. Sometimes such a change results in making the individual lose old friendships and move away from familiar surroundings.

Downward Mobility: The change occurs in a descending order. There are times when due to unethical practices a government official appointed at a high post may lose his position and begin to occupy a lower position. This kind of mobility results in depression and frustration among individuals. According to Lipset and Zetterberg this kind of mobility takes place when there is interchanging between ranks and the mobility arises due to the execution of impartiality of opportunity.

Inter-Generational Mobility: Change in the status from one generation to another. The mobility could be upward or downward, children of labourers could become doctors or visa versa.

Circumstances for Inter-generational Mobility:

According to Sorokin, mobility between generations could be affected due to following circumstance:

- Transformations between status of parents and children
- Upward mobility takes place more frequently in developed economies.
- Alterations of the structures in jobs

Intra-Generational Mobility: The change takes place during the life of a particular generation. This type of mobility has two variations, first is when the position of individual changes during his life and the second happens when one of the siblings moves up the social ladder while the other remains at the same level. In the first variation, an individual could start in an office as marketing representative and after attaining an MBA degree and hard work may rise up to the post of marketing manager or a clerk being appointed at a high position. This upward movement may not be same for the individual's sibling and could continue as a clerk.

Occupational Mobility: Change of job may be referred to as occupational mobility. There could be an improvement in the status or it might remain same. In some cases the monetary benefits with the change might not alter but there is a change in the prestige and authority. This is also similar to upward Vertical Mobility. In the same way if a person moves from high authority position to a lower authority position it is referred to as downward vertical mobility.

There are few other forms of mobility such as accretive status achieved/ not achieved or spatial mobility or mobility under caste system. The most common

are explained in the ones enlisted above. Mobility is always in relation to time and space.

Factors Facilitating Social Mobility

- Desire for better standard of living
- Success and failures of life
- Individual ability and skill of the individual
- Educational qualifications
- Migrating from one place to another helps in social mobility
- Industrial expansion leads to better job opportunities
- Shift from villages to urban areas
- More focus on equality
- Abolition of systems like caste and zamindari has helped in social mobility
- Reservation for individuals from backward classes in professional colleges
- Improvement in the judicial system has also facilitated social mobility. Passing of Hindu Marriage Act has helped in enhancing the status of women; the anti-racial discrimination in countries like America has helped in the mobility of Black population.
- Increase in awareness among people with the help of mass media
- More involvement of governmental bodies
- Modernisation has largely contributed towards mobilisation.
- Advancement of science and technology

The above factors have helped in social mobility in a positive manner; the developed and advanced societies provide greater opportunities for people to move up the social ladder. However the ambition to improve status sometimes leads to frustration and other mental problems. People in their quest to move upward resort to unethical means and this increases the level of corruption in the society. The social mobility often becomes a cause for conflicts and defective interpersonal relations. People who manage to alter their status and move upward have to bring about many changes in life, they not only leave their childhood locality but also many cherished friendships behind. Sometimes there is a strong feeling of loneliness and people in spite of financial luxuries are not able to live happily. Finally all the economic wealth will not change the social background of the individual. But social mobility is a necessity for development of all countries and the administration has to take steps to encourage the same. A society with social mobility will become stagnant and there will be no development, this will have disastrous impact on the social system. Therefore in spite of advantages and disadvantages social mobility is crucial for every society.

9.3.1 Crime and Delinquency

Laws form the basis of every society as they help in governing and protection of its people. Law breakers are punished in every system and each individual in the society has to abide with the laws of the society. The law makers also have to obey the laws formulated by them. The society has to be founded on the rule of law.

The government or the state has the power to sternly contain the liberties of the individual for committing a crime. All societies have a procedure for investigating and judging the offenders. Those proven guilty would be punished as per the severity of their crime. The offenders may be penalised in form of a fine, imprisonment, prisoned for life or executed (in few jurisdictions).

When a crime has been committed by a minor it is defined as delinquency. It is also referred to as juvenile delinquency, illicit behaviour by minors. Juveniles are individuals younger than the legal age of majority. All legal systems recommend detailed processes for dealing with juveniles, there are detention centres and courts in every system. Most juvenile cases are treated as civil cases rather than criminal ones. In the USA the juvenile delinquent is an individual under the age of eighteen. Whereas in Georgia, New York, Michigan, Missouri, North Carolina, New Hampshire, Texas, and Wisconsin it is under the age of seventeen. Depending on the nature and harshness of the crime these individuals may be treated as adults.

Driving without license and bunking school are indications of delinquency. One major cause of delinquency is being neglected and not having any formal supervision. Whether the breaking of law is a crime or delinquency basically depends on the age of the person who has broken the law. In case the law has been broken by an adult then surely it is regarded as a crime and punishable under the law of the state. It is delinquency when the law breaker is a minor. The differentiation in the treatment is made as the minor will not have complete awareness of right or wrong and may not be completely aware about the magnitudes of his or her actions.

In English language 'delinquent' means to be behind and not at the exact position, therefore a delinquent child is someone whose social development is incomplete and requires guidance. Due to this even on committing grave crimes like murder the child is not punished as an adult and is sent to a rehabilitation centre so that the incomplete social development is completed.

Causes for Delinquency

- According to various studies it has been found that delinquency is more common among children of lower economic status.
- Lack of parental guidance

- Influence of peer pressure

- It is frequent among children with strict parents and teachers

- Lack of discipline among children

- Lack of general awareness

Some of the programs that are effective prevention of juvenile delinquency are as follows:

- Providing adequate education

- Recreation

- Involvement in the community

- Support for parenting

- Training programs for both parents and the child

- Prevention of bullying in schools and home

- Initiation for special prevention programs in the judicial system

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Check Your Progress

3. What is social mobility?

4. Define the term 'horizontal mobility'.

9.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Conformity is a form of social influence; it involves bringing about a transformation in the beliefs or behaviour of an individual in order to be accepted within a group.

2. Deviation may be defined as opposite of conformity, it occurs when the actions of the individuals are not in accordance with the set norms of the social order.

3. Social mobility refers to change in the situation of a person or a group, the change is mostly in status.

4. In the words of Sorokin, 'Horizontal mobility refers to territorial, religious, political party, family, occupational and other horizontal shifting without any noticeable change in vertical position.'

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9.5 SUMMARY

- Conformity is a form of social influence; it involves bringing about a transformation in the beliefs or behaviour of an individual in order to be accepted within a group.

- In the words of Richard S. Crutchfield conformity may be explained as 'yielding to group pressures'.

- Deviation may be defined as opposite of conformity, it occurs when the actions of the individuals are not in accordance with the set norms of the social order.

- Social pressure does not always lead to conformity. An individual could have a desire to act in a manner that is different from the behaviour of the majority.

- It is believed that people displaying deviating behaviours are motivated internally to disturb the group's balance.

- Mobility refers to a change, transformation and movement.

- The movement in the social hierarchy could be ascending or descending or it even inter-generational or intra-generational.

- Living in a closed society is not always beneficial and a change is healthy as it opens door to new opportunities.

- A change in the individual's social position can result in many forms and natures. The mobility is not always same and alters between one period to another.

- In the words of Sorokin, 'Horizontal mobility refers to territorial, religious, political party, family, occupational and other horizontal shifting without any noticeable change in vertical position.'

- According to Sorokin, vertical mobility is a shift from one social level to another.

- Movement of the individual to an upward position. Upward mobility occurs when an individual belonging to a lower caste after contesting for elections gets appointed as a minister and starts to hold position of importance.

- Change of job may be referred to as occupational mobility.

- Laws form the basis of every society as they help in governing and protection of its people.

- When a crime has been committed by a minor it is defined as delinquency.

- In English language 'delinquent' means to be behind and not at the exact position, therefore a delinquent child is someone whose social development is incomplete and requires guidance.

9.6 KEY WORDS

- **Social Pressure:** Peer pressure (or social pressure) is the direct influence on people by peers, or the effect on an individual who gets encouraged to follow their peers by changing their attitudes, values or behaviours to conform to those of the influencing group or individual.

- **Mobility:** Mobility refers to a change, transformation and movement.

- **Vertical Mobility**: According to Sorokin, vertical mobility is a shift from one social level to another.

- **Upward Mobility:** Movement of the individual to an upward position. Upward mobility occurs when an individual belonging to a lower caste after contesting for elections gets appointed as a minister and starts to hold position of importance.

- **Occupational Mobility:** Change of job may be referred to as occupational mobility.

- **Delinquency**: When a crime has been committed by a minor it is defined as delinquency.

9.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. What are the three types of conformity?
2. Identify the types of mobility.
3. Differentiate between horizontal mobility and vertical mobility.
4. List the factors facilitating social mobility.
5. What are the causes of delinquency?

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the concept of conformity.
2. Discuss the various reasons for deviation.
3. Describe the concept of social mobility.
4. Examine the major differences between crime and delinquency.

9.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 10 LEADERSHIP AND SOCIAL POWER

Structure

10.0 INTRODUCTION

According to several scholars of management, leadership is the ability of an individual to be able to influence and inspire people under him. It has also been referred to a social influence technique and through this the individual is able to assist and guide others to accomplish the task of the group. In both explanations influencing ability is the straight outcome. In this unit, you will learn about leadership and dominance. This unit will also discuss experimental studies, traits situational tests, factorial studies, and various theories of leadership.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of democratic leadership
- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of autocratic leadership
- Critically analyse the role of experimental studies in the process of leadership
- Mention some of the key components of institutional leadership
- Describe the managerial grid model

10.2 LEADERSHIP AND DOMINANCE

Great leaders transmute. They just don't help in revitalising the organization that they are a part of they also help in rejuvenating their subordinates and colleagues. Exceptional leaders communicate the feeling of working together in their team. They do not interfere in the working if others but be with them by guiding, directing and coaching them constantly. Great leaders work equally hard to make their team to realise the 'together imperative'. A lot of effort goes into the structuring of the organisation for the employees to sense the 'togetherness'.

A leader needs to exhibit following qualities for this sense to prevail:

- Futuristic Vision
- Working towards attainment of the vision
- Closely monitoring the team
- Actively coaching the team
- Collaborative behaviour of the leader allows everyone to be a part of decision-making

The leader not only initiates the feeling of togetherness but through his actions he has to keep it going, the following actions will help in maintaining the togetherness of the team:

- Straightforward and continuous communication between the leader and his team Give clear picture of the situation
- Exhibit inclusive behaviour by involving all members of the team in decision making and discussion process
- Leaders should be frank about their shortcomings and errors.
- Leader and the members of the staff should exhibit similar standards of efficiency.

When a leader demonstrates behaviour that he expects from his team members the organisation is sure to achieve all its goals effectively. The formula of 'together imperative' is not difficult to implement. Even John Quincy Adams remarked once: 'If your actions inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more and become more, you are a leader.'

Usually liberality is considered to be a virtue. However in the context of leadership it is not seen as a virtue but as an indication of weakness. According to the findings of several researches, it is found that liberality besides helping people also influences an individual from two essential aspects, namely prestige and dominance.

In the words of Livingston, 'People with high prestige are often regarded as saints, possessing a self-sacrificial quality and strong moral standards,' he further added 'However, while these individuals are willing to give their resources to the group, they are not perceived as tough leaders.'

Several scholars have defined dominance as a forced 'alpha status', while prestige admiration that is openly given by others. For instance Alphonse Gabriel Capone is seen as an individual possessing extreme dominance but on the other hand personalities like Gandhi or Mother Theresa projects great prestige.

Character of dominance is established by leadership, it is the desire to control and dictate others. The character of prestige is established by the need for being admired and respected. A leader can chose the character of his leadership. There are leaders that wish to have dominance along with prestige. The behaviour of the leaders is greatly influenced with the orientation of his activities on either direction. Dominance oriented leaders like to take all the decisions on behalf of their team, give orders and make others perform all the tasks. When in a meeting they prefer to do all the talking rather than listening to the opinion of their team members. Leaders oriented towards dominance use their status of authority into making people act according to their will. Such leaders do not hesitate from either inciting their subordinates with incentives like bonus nor do they hesitate from threatening them with dire consequences in case of disobedience.

In principle, they do not believe in forming positive relations with their subordinates, they are just concerned with getting the task done. Prestige oriented leaders are completely contrasting in their behaviour, they not only want to achieve the goals of the organisation but they also display care and empathy towards their team members. It will not be wrong to assume that a good leader should have a balance of both dominance and prestige.

10.2.1 Democratic Leaders

In this type of leadership, the subordinates are consulted and their feedback is taken into the decision making process. The leader's job is primarily of a moderator, even though he makes the final decision and he alone is responsible for the results. The management recognizes that the subordinates are equipped with talents and abilities and that they are capable of bringing new ideas and new methodologies to work setting. Thus, the group members are encouraged to demonstrate initiative and creativity and take intelligent interest in setting plans and policies and have maximum participation in decision making. This ensures better management-labour relations, higher morale and greater job satisfaction. This type of leadership is specially effective when the workforce is experienced and dedicated and is able to work independently with least directives, thereby developing a climate that is conducive to growth and development of the organization as well as the individual personality. The feasibility and usefulness of the participative decision making style is dependent on the following factors:

1. Since participative decision making process is time consuming, there should be no urgency to the decision.

2. The cost of participation of subordinates in the decision making should not be more than the benefits derived from the decision.

3. The input from the subordinates should be free from any fear of repercussions in case such input is in conflict with the views held by the management.

4. The participation of subordinates should not be of such a degree as to be perceived as a threat to the formal authority of management.

5. Subordinates should be sufficiently responsible so that there is no leakage of confidential information to outside elements.

Advantages

1. Active participation in the managerial operations by labour assures rising productivity and satisfaction.

2. Workers develop a greater sense of self-esteem due to importance given to their ideas and their contributions.

3. The employees become more committed to changes that may be brought by policy changes, since they themselves participated in bringing about these changes.

4. The leadership induces confidence, cooperation and loyalty among workers.

5. It results in higher employee morale.

6. It increases the participants' understanding of each other that result in greater tolerance and patience towards others.

It has been demonstrated by numerous researchers28 that participation by subordinates improves quality of work, enhances an easy acceptance of changes in the organization and improves morale and loyalty.

Notwithstanding numerous advantages and great reliance on participative leadership, it has several disadvantages also.

Disadvantages

(a) The democratic leadership requires some favourable conditions in that the labour must be literate, informed and organized. This is not always possible.

(b) This approach assumes that all workers are genuinely interested in the organization and that their individual goals are successfully fused with the organizational goals. This assumption may not always be valid.

(c) There must be total trust on the part of management as well as employees. Some employees may consider this approach simply an attempt to manipulate them. Accordingly, the employees must be fully receptive to this approach to make it meaningful.

(d) Some group members may feel alienated if their ideas are not accepted for action. This may create a feeling of frustration and ill-will.

(e) This approach is very time consuming and too may viewpoints and ideas may make coming to a decision more difficult and may be a source of frustration to impatient management.

(f) Some managers may be uncomfortable with this approach because they may fear an erosion of their power base and their control over labour.

(g) This approach relies heavily on incentives and motivation of recognition, appreciation, status and prestige. However, labour may be interested in financial incentives instead of prestige.

10.2.2 Authoritarian Leaders

Autocratic leaders keep the decision making authority and control in their own hands and assume full responsibility for all actions. Also, they structure the entire work situation in their own way and expect the workers to follow their orders and tolerate no deviation from their orders. The subordinates are required to implement instructions of their leaders without question. They are entirely dependent on their leader and the output suffers in the absence of the leader.

The autocratic leadership style ranges from tough and highly dictatorial to paternalistic, depending upon whether the leader's motivational approach is threat and punishment or appreciation and rewards. In highly autocratic situations, the subordinates develop a sense of insecurity, frustration, low morale and they are induced to avoid responsibility, initiative and innovative behaviour. The autocratic leader believes that his leadership is based upon the authority conferred upon him by some source such as his position, knowledge, strength or the power to punish and reward. Some of the advantages and disadvantages of autocratic leadership are as follows:

Advantages

1. Autocratic leadership is useful when the subordinates are new on the job and have had no experience either in the managerial decision making process or in performing without active supervision.

2. It can increase efficiency and even morale and get quicker results, specially in a crisis or emergency when the decision must be taken immediately.

3. The paternalistic leadership is useful when the subordinates are not interested in seeking responsibility or when they feel insecure at the job or when they work better under clear and detailed directives.

4. It is useful when the chain of command and the division of work is clear and understood by all and there is little room for error in the final accomplishment.

Disadvantages

1. One-way communication without feedback leads to misunderstanding and communications breakdown.

2. An autocratic leader makes his own decisions that can be very dangerous in this age of technological and sociological complexity.

3. Since it inhibits the subordinate's freedom, it fails to develop his commitment to the goals and objectives of the organization.

4. Since it creates an environment that provides for worker resentment, it creates problems with their morale resulting in poor productivity in the long run.

5. It is unsuitable when the workforce is knowledgeable about their jobs and the job calls for teamwork and cooperative spirit.

10.2.3 Institutional Leaders, Dominant, Persuasive and Expert Leaders

The model of Institutional Leadership reveals important elements of leadership capabilities in an organisation. It may be referred to the ability of the leaders to be able to adjust to external environment effectively along with upholding the fundamental organisational objectives.

Institutional leadership is an approach with dual features of management as it not only takes care of the individual needs in the organisation but also works towards betterment of the entire group. Moreover it is an attitude and work ethos empowering the individual in perform multifarious role at all levels.

Key Components of institutional leadership may be recognised as following:

- **Perceiving the views of others:** Institutional leadership necessitates the development of an understanding of others views about the issues of the world rather than acting upon self-views. The leaders should scrutinise the opinion of his team on issues like world politics, religion etc. these aspects will give the leader an insight of the mind set of his people and will help him in leading them better. Besides, institutional leadership needs to understand the amalgamated worldviews of the organization; these could be extremely dissimilar and from time to time contradictory with the views of individuals in that organization.

- **Concentrating on strengths:** Effective institutional leaders would always work towards exploiting the strengths of his team and efficiently manage their weaknesses. Constant and nearly perfect enactment of any activity may be referred to as strength. The individual who is able to perform a task successfully every time is aid to be perfect at his performance and this can be attributed as his strength. Ability and strength are not the same. Strength becomes ability only when a task is repeated happily and productively. Strength is built with talent, knowledge and skill. There has to be an inborn talent that can be enhanced with required knowledge and learning the technicality of the task. The task of the leader is to identify the talent present in the individuals of his team and develop it into their strength. However it is not necessary to have strength for performing all tasks, leaders should not ignore the weaknesses of the team members, he has to find ways to manage them and get the best performance from his team.

- **Morals and integrity:** Another key constituent of institutional leadership is the presence of morals. These morals help the leaders to balance aspects like loyalty and achievement of goals. Morals are not a booster or a give

and take. It is a practice and a course for approaching situations with issues. At the same time integrity helps the leader to act in an impartial manner and try to be honest in all situations. The two act as a compass helping the leader to stay on path of virtue and impartiality.

- **Communication:** The most essential component of institutional leadership is to be able to communicate with the team members at all levels. In order to effectively communicate the leader needs to be aware about the beliefs and expectations of people with whom the communication has to take place. The leaders should be good listeners so that they are able to understand the views of others.

- **Guidance and leadership:** There is a difference between manager and leader. Most people are not able to differentiate between the two hence they are not good institutional leaders. Leaders have strategic sophistication that helps them to interpret the vision of the organization, and they not only work towards fulfilling that but also lead their team to effectively work for its achievement. They communicate the vision of the organisation to the internal as well as the external levels. The foundations of leadership are as follows:

    o Expressing the truth at all times

    o Keeping promises

    o Impartiality

    o Respecting every individual of the organisation

These four foundations collectively determine the effectiveness of the leader and project his image to others. The institutional leaders will not be perceived as good leaders if they fail to exhibit these foundational qualities, they would simply be regarded as mangers.

The institutional leaders use a number of methods to get their team to perform effectively, some of them are as follows:

- Become the role model by setting examples

- Sharing the vision

- Challenging the process

- Empowering others

- Set goals and provide guidance

- Reinforcement positively

Dominant Leadership

In dominant leadership authority is the basis of leadership. The leader has the power to delegate and control the individuals at lower levels. The power to make decisions is solely with the leader. This form of leadership is the most prevalent. In this form the leaders convey to the employees the task that has to be performed

and the manner in which the task needs to be accomplished; they do not consult their subordinates. The leaders possess all the relevant information about the task that needs to be performed without getting the advice of their followers.

Dominant leadership is found to be useful in following situations:

- The leaders possess all the relevant information about the task that needs to be performed
- When there is scarcity of time and giving instruction get the work done promptly
- The team of workers is adequately motivated.
- All team members are old employees of the organisation and well aware about the procedures

However few leaders misuse the relevance of this form and think it as a licence to exert unnecessary control over their subordinates, they do not stop themselves from yelling or threatening the workers. This form is not in the nature of dominant leadership. Dominant leadership does not imply dictatorship of any sorts. The style has to be used with utmost care and as sparingly as possible, leaders should use the participative style of leadership as often as possible as it helps in achieving the goals and keeping the morale of the employees high.

Persuasive Leadership

Leadership skills can be enhanced with the correct usage of principles of persuasion. According to many definitions leadership is termed as process of influencing others and on the basis of this it can be said that an essential component of effective leadership is persuasion. Leadership principles are based on the capability of the individual to bring change, influence and innovate for enhancing the performance of his followers. They have to work towards creating positive and sustainable work environments within the given challenges and opportunities. The best form of leadership is participative leadership in this form also the leader has to maintain a balance between dominance and persuasion. The success of leadership relies on this balance. Three essential components of persuasive communication had been given by Aristotle nearly two thousand years ago, these were as follows:

- **Ethos:** how dependable the listener identifies the presenter to be
- **Logos:** how rational and meritoriously structured is the argument of the presenter
- **Pathos:** how expressively engaging the communication is

These components can be easily adapted as qualities of a persuasive leader as he also has to be dependable, rational and compassionate in order to be able to influence others. These questions can also be applicable during situations of when persuasion is needed, it is required while assessing the performance of employees and given them a feedback, it is required while change is being introduced so that the workers can be adequately persuaded for complying with the changes and

lastly it is also required for encouraging team work and engagement of external resources.

All these elements have to be closely analysed and managed situations requiring persuasion. However the degree of persuasive leadership may always vary while dealing with different employees. But an effective leader has to realise that persuasive form of leadership should not always be applied, he may need to use different forms of leadership.

In the book, *Why Should Anyone Be Led by You?: What It Takes to Be an Authentic Leader*, Gareth R. Jones and Robert Goffee have very well elaborated on common mistakes made by leaders through this remark, *'The mistake many leaders make is to assume that followers can be engaged primarily through rational analysis and straightforward assertion of facts ... But this approach - on its own - is rarely successful in energising others ... In order to properly engage others, leaders need to construct a compelling narrative. They must find a way of looking at the world that allows others not only to understand their role in it but also to be excited by it.'*

Effective leaders have to realise the importance of persuasive communication. They need to appreciate and manage the three components listed by Aristotle only then will they be able to become persuasive leaders as they will be then effectively persuading and influencing their followers.

Expert Leaders

An expert is appointed as a leader. An individual is said to be an expert when he has answers to all questions or means of finding answers. After becoming a leader the expert has a new role of supporting the team to find answers on their own. Leaders who are not able to transform their role as an expert do not become 'expert leaders'. The basic roles of the leader are to think strategically and find solutions for the future, encourage their followers and make them work to the best of their abilities, provide sincere feedback, become experts in questioning the team and not providing them with solutions. The team is going to fail in case their leader not performing these roles. As a leader the individual has to make the team reach a new level of success. An expert is only a part of the leader who helps in fulfilling these roles.

There is no denying the fact that individuals having profound knowledge about the organisation and its vision are bound to accomplish the organizational goals. Here merely having the capabilities of being a general manager is not enough.

Expert leaders will have the following qualities:

- Intrinsic knowledge, attained with the help of technical proficiency along with great capability in the central activities of the business.
- Thorough experience of the industry
- Qualities of a capable manager and leaders

Expert leaders try to improve the performance of the organisation by developing strategies that are based on their profound knowledge. They become the role model for future leaders of the organisation. They fully realise the importance of good working environment hence work towards creating a healthy and cordial atmosphere within and outside the organisation. Expert leaders have a futuristic approach and their policies are meant to benefit the organisation in the long-run.

Check Your Progress

1. List some of the qualities of a good leader.

2. Who are autocratic leaders?

10.3 EXPERIMENTAL STUDIES, TRAITS SITUATIONAL TESTS, FACTORIAL STUDIES

There are many definitions for the term however the definition provided by John C Maxwell gives an apt description of the traits of leadership, '*A leader is one who knows the way, goes the way, and shows the way*.' Regardless of the manner in which a leader is defined but at the end the responsibility of group's failure or success is dependent on its leader. Futuristic and practical vision is required for being an effective leader. There are several other important qualities that a leader needs to possess for earning the title of a good leader

- Morality and Integrity are essential traits, Dwight.D.Eisenhower at one time commented, 'The supreme quality of leadership is unquestionably integrity. Without it, no real success is possible, no matter whether it is on a section gang, a football field, in an army, or in an office.' People will not follow an individual who lacks these two ingredients.

- Leaders have to be composed and confident for people to be able to follow them

- They should be able to provide inspiration to others. It is not easy to persuade others to follow anyone. The leader has to be able to motivate others and remain calm himself. John Quincy Adams once remarked, 'If your actions inspire others to dream more, learn more, do more and become more, you are a leader.'

- The leader has to be committed and passionate about the objectives of the group. Individuals lacking these two qualities will not be able to inspire and motivate people to perform their tasks effectively.

- Leaders need to have good communication skills so that they are able to communicate with the team-members and convince them towards achieving the goals. The motivational power of the leader lies in his style of communication.

- Leaders need to have the ability to take correct and prompt decisions. They should be able to take sound decisions on behave of the team by consulting the team members.

- Accountability of the leader is an essential quality and has been very aptly emphasised by Arnold H Glasow in his remark, 'A good leader takes little more than his share of the blame and little less than his share of the credit.'

- Leader should delegate and empower the team members to work independently. When individuals are given freedom to perform their jobs without interference they develop confidence and are ensured that they are trusted by the leader. Too much spoon feeding hampers their personal development.

- Leaders have to be constantly creative and innovative. Steve Job once remarked that it is innovations that separate a leader from his followers. Thinking out of the box should be like second nature for leaders. The team will develop only with incorporation of new ideas and innovations, in its absence there is bound to be stagnation.

- Leader has to empathetic towards his team members. Dominant style of leadership stops the leaders from being caring and kind towards the team members. The leader needs to be able to help the subordinates and render all support to them in times of crisis.

It is easy to be appointed as a leader, but in order to continue leading others one has to be equipped with the above mentioned traits.

Experimental, Situational and Factorial Studies of Leadership

In the last century there has been an enormous change in the manner in which employees are managed and guided at workplaces. In the initial years of twentieth century the focus of management was on increasing the efficiency of the workforce. In recent times the focus is on managing the behaviour of the workers. The studies now focus on understanding the factors that motivate the workers.

The following five experimental studies help the leaders to understand the needs of their employees and also factors that help in motivating them to work efficiently.

- **Stanford Prison Experiment:** In 1971, the experiment at the Stanford University was conducted Dr. Philip Zimbardo, the team conducting the research created a mock prison environment in the basement of the university, volunteers were hired and formed into groups consisting of guards and inmates. They all began to play their part very well and the inmates exhibited submissive behaviour against the bullying and the cruel behaviour of the guards. The experiment went haywire and had to be discontinued in less than a week. The experiment illuminated the situational aspect of human behaviour and the rapidness with which people began to play their make-belief parts forgetting their personal morals and conduct. The experiment

also provided that with clear demarcation of roles within an organisation leaders tend to misuse their power and spread negativity with their controlling nature. The experiment clearly stated that the character and culture of an organisation is established by its leaders. They need to work constructively and harmoniously for productivity in the system.

- **The Pygmalion Effect:** In 1968, the experiment was conducted in Oak Elementary School, San Francisco by two psychologists, Rosenthal and Jacobson. The school faculty was informed that a test was going to be assigned to the students in order to measure their academic potentials. Names of twenty percent students with high potentials were shared with the teachers, the teachers were not aware that the test was not meant to check the potentials and the top scorers were merely random names selected, not based on any achievement criteria. However the teachers put all their efforts on these twenty percent students and at the end of eight months when these students were reassessed they scored much higher than their initial test. The teachers gave easier task to children considered as weak. The teachers supposedly nurtured the talented students clearly displaying that expectations influences performance. Their situation resembled the story of the sculptor who fell in love with his own creation. The experiment also displayed a usual state of a workplace where the high performers are given more attention. The leaders in their quest for achieving the organisational goals forget that little encouragement and support can help the less achiever to perform better.

- **The Piano Staircase:** In 2009 the experiment was conducted in Odenplan subway, Stockhom by Volkswagen. Within one night a staircase at the subway, next to the elevator was converted into an enormous keyboard resembling the one seen in the movie 'BIG' starring American actor Tom Hanks. While the experiment was being conducted it was realised that more than fifty percent of the people opted for the piano shaped staircase rather than the convenient elevator as they found it more fun. This clearly exhibited that people liked to have fun even while doing their routine commuting. This experiment was a lesson for leaders who were hesitant to allow fun activities at the place of work, without realising that fun environment helps in increasing the productivity of the employees and they are more regular at work. Obviously the organisational leaders don't have to create something as dramatic as piano stairs but they could still use it as an inspiration.

- **The Milgram Experiment:** In 1961, the experiment was conducted at the Yale University by psychologist Stanley Milgram. The obedience to authority test is often considered as one of the most immoral experiments in psychology. The volunteers were asked to observe trainees doing the memory test and they were asked to use electric shock at every wrong answer. More than half of the volunteers at the command of authority used the electric shocks to such high levels, the trainees were about to lose their

lives. In reality the trainees were merely performers however the volunteers were not aware of this and they conveniently abandoned their individual morals in order to obey the instructions of authority. Obviously there is no electrocution taking place at workplace but the behaviour of employees towards their co-workers is as harsh as the volunteers. They adhere to instructions by the authority to such extents as well. The experiment clearly exhibited that leaders have to be clear about their instructions and delegate authority with utmost care.

- **The Invisible Gorilla:** Another psychological experiment was conducted by two graduates from Harvard, Christopher Chabris and Daniel Simons. They asked the participants of the experiment to concentrate on an easy task of observing the students playing with a ball; the participants had to just count the number of times the students standing in a circle pass the ball. The results of the experiment showed that the participants solely concentrated on counting and most of them failed to notice the person dressed as a gorilla pass through the game, it clearly illustrated that most individuals overestimate their capability of multi-tasking and miss out on essential aspect of an activity.

The above mentioned studies are a great insight in interpreting behaviour of people at place of work. They also help in defining the character of leadership, importance of rendering support to co-workers, need for having fun at place of work, behaving in an ethical manner and concentrating on every detail during performance of tasks. These simple studies if applied sensibly can go a long way in improving the skills of leaders.

Check Your Progress

3. What do you understand by 'experimental studies'?
4. Who conducted the Milgram Experiment?

10.4 THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Over the last 80 years, a number of different theories and approaches to studying leadership have been developed. Prior to 1945, the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits. It was thought that leaders possessed and exhibited some unique set of qualities that distinguished them from their peers. Let's discuss these theories detail:

Trait Theory

The trait theory rests on the traditional approach that describes leadership in terms of certain personal and special characteristics that are not acquired by knowledge and training but are considered inherited. This theory emphasizes that leaders are born and not made and that leadership is a function of inborn traits. Some of these inborn traits are considered to be intelligence, understanding, perception, high

motivation, socio-economic status, initiative, maturity, need for self-actualization, self-assurance and understanding of interpersonal human relations. In the earlier studies, the existence of these traits became a measure of leadership. It holds that possession of these traits permits certain individuals to gain position of leadership. Since all individuals do not have these qualities, only those who have them would be considered potential leaders. It was further believed that training individuals to assume leadership roles was not possible and such training would be helpful only to those who had these inborn leadership traits to start with.

The trait theory of leadership has suffered from lack of conclusiveness and over-simplifications. As Eugene E. Jennings concluded, 'fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or a set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and non-leaders.' The old assumption that 'leaders are born' has never been substantiated in several decades of research. The critics have charged that the theory focuses attention only on the leader and disregards the dynamics of the leadership process. Also the theory ignores the situational characteristics that may result in the emergence of a leader.

Some of the other weaknesses and failures of trait theory are as follows:

1. All the traits are not identical with regard to the essential characteristics of a leader.

2. Some traits can be acquired by training and may not be inherited.

3. It does not identify the traits that are most important and those that are least important in identifying a successful leader.

4. The traits required to 'attain' leadership may not be the same that are required to 'sustain' leadership.

5. It fails to explain the many leadership failures in spite of the required traits.

6. It has been found that many traits exhibited by leaders are also found among followers without explaining as to why followers could not become leaders.

7. It ignores the environmental factors that may differ from situation to situation.

8. It is difficult to define traits in absolute terms. Each trait can be explained in variety of terms. For example, intelligence cannot be accurately measured simply by IQ tests. Similarly, maturity is subject to various interpretations. The measurement of these traits is even more difficult. Such psychological attributes as initiative and creativity cannot be observed or measured but can only be inferred from behaviour.

9. The extent and influence of traits would also depend upon the level of leadership in an organization. A supervisor of production, for example, does not need or use the same traits as the president of the company. The lower level management requires more technical skills while at top level management, human and conceptual skills are highly significant. Thus it would be unreasonable to assume that these traits are uniformly distributed at all managerial levels.

The traits theory approach has been criticized as lacking predictability. There are probably no personality traits that consistently distinguish the leader from his followers. According to B. Solomon:

'History is replete with non-trained, non-academic Fords, Edisons and Carnegies who could not even claim a grammar school education, yet managed to become leaders whose influence was felt around the globe. As for appearance of robust health, need we mention more than the delicate Gandhi or George Washington or Carver, the frail, shriveled, insignificant little negro who was one of America's greatest scientists and so many more like them. As for high ideals and fine character act, where would Hitler, Capone or Attila the Hun rate here?'

Similarly, if tall people were more inclined to be leaders then how could such short people as Nepolean or the most respected Prime Minister of India, Lal Bahadur Shastri have risen to a high leadership position? Accordingly, inconsistencies in the theory of traits of leadership give rise to a logical criticism against its validity.

Behaviour Theory

This theory studies leadership by looking at leaders in terms of what they 'do'. This is in contrast to trait theory that seeks to explain leadership in terms of who the leaders 'are'. Thus according to behaviour theory, leadership is shown by a person's acts more than by his traits. The leadership effectiveness is determined in terms of leader-subordinate interaction and outcome. Research studies conducted by Katz, Maccoby and Morse, suggested that leadership behaviour be defined along employee-centered dimension and production-centered dimension complementing each other so that the employee's performance and productivity is enhanced.

Further in-depth investigations into this approach have been conducted at Ohio State University. These studies isolate two particular factors affecting the leadership dimension. These are as follows:

Consideration: It refers to the extent to which there is a rapport between the leader and the group, a mutual warmth and trust, a concern for the needs of the members of the work group, an attitude that encourages participative management, two-way communication and respect for the feedback of the followers.

Initiating structure: It refers to the extent to which a leader is task oriented and his ability and concern in utilising resources and personnel at optimum level. It involves creating a work environment so that the work of the group is organized, coordinated, sequential and organizationally relevant so that people know exactly what is to be done and how it is to be done. The structure involves having the leader to organize and define the role each member is to assume, assign tasks to them and push for the realization of organizational goals. An important discovery made by the Ohio studies was that the leader does not necessarily have to rate high both on consideration as well as structure element. He could be high on one

and low on the other and still lead the group successfully. Because initiating structure dimension includes planning, coordinating, directing, problem solving, criticizing poor work and pressuring subordinates to perform better and consideration means friendliness and consultation with subordinates, these two elements may seem to be in conflict with each other. However, according to Weissenberg and Kavanaugh, these two elements are considered to be relatively independent dimensions of a leader's behaviour. This means that a high score on one dimension does not necessarily mean a low score on the other. Thus consideration and initiating structure can be shown in various combinations as follows:
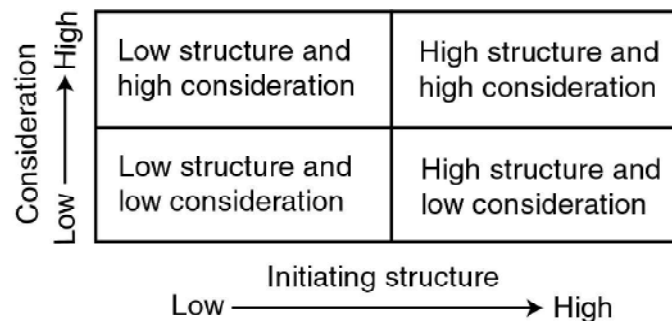
Thus a manager with high structure and high consideration rates high in directing and controlling his subordinates and has a high level of concern and warmth towards employees. Such managers have subordinates who are more satisfied, have fewer grievances and stay longer with the organization. There is also evidence that such managers who exhibit high levels of both consideration and initiating structure generate higher levels of subordinate performances.

One advantage of this theory is that these two dimensions of leadership behaviour are tangible and observable and do account for a major part of the leader behaviour. Even though a causal connection of these two dimensions with performance has not been clearly demonstrated, their relationship to leadership effectiveness has been quite obvious.

Managerial Grid

Another aspect of behavioural theory of leadership is represented by the managerial grid. It was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton and plays an important part in managerial behaviour in organizational development. In general, behavioural scientists have separated the two primary concerns in organizations, namely, the concern for production and concern for people. They believed that a high concern for production necessarily meant low concern for people and high consideration for workers meant tolerance for low production. However, the managerial grid model emphasized that both concerns should be integrated to achieve the objectives of the organization. It assumes that people and production factors are complementary to each other rather than mutually exclusive.

According to Rao and Narayana, the concern for production is not limited to things only, and concern for people cannot be confined to narrow considerations

of interpersonal warmth and friendliness. Production can be measured in terms of creative ideas of people that turn into useful products, processes or procedures, efficiency of workers and quality of staff and auxiliary services. Similarly, concern for people includes concern for the degree of personal commitment of complementing the work requirement assigned to each person, accountability based upon trust rather than fear or force, sense of job security and friendship with co-workers leading to a healthy working climate.

The management grid is built on two axis, one representing the 'people' and the other the 'task'. Both the horizontal, as well as the vertical axis are treated as a scale from 1 to 9 where 1 represents the least involvement and 9 represents the most involvement, so that the coordinates (1, 1) would indicate minimum standards for worker involvement and task design, and coordinates (9, 9) would indicate maximum dedication of the workers and highly structured operations. Such an involvement would reflect upon the managerial orientation towards tasks and towards workers who are expected to perform such tasks. Blake and Mouton have identified five coordinates that reflect various styles of leader behaviour. The managerial grid figure and these styles are shown as follows:
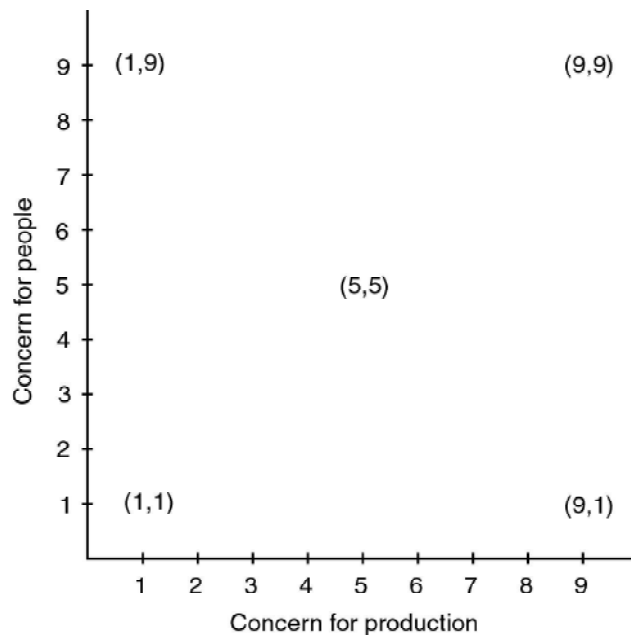
The managerial grid diagram as shown above can be interpreted as follows:

- *Coordinates* (*1, 1*) This represents an impoverished management where the manager makes minimum efforts to get the work done. Minimum standards of performance and minimum worker dedication.

- *Coordinates* (*9, 1*) Excellent work design. Well established procedures. Minimum worker interference. Orderly performance and efficient operations.

- *Coordinates* (*1, 9*) Personal and meaningful relationships with people. Friendly atmosphere and high morale. Loosely structured work design.

- *Coordinates* (*9, 9*) Ultimate in managerial efficiency. Thoroughly dedicated people. Trustworthy and respectable atmosphere. Highly organized task performances. Known as team management style, it relies upon interdependence of relationships based upon trust and respect and work accomplishment based upon commitment of employees.

- *Coordinates* (*5, 5*) Known as the middle-of-the-road management style, it is concerned with balancing the necessity to get the work done while maintaining worker morale at a satisfactory level. The goal is to achieve adequate organizational performance.

This managerial grid provides a reasonable indication of the health of the organization as well as the ability of the managers. The model assumes that there is one best or most effective style of management, that is the style indicated by coordinates (9, 9) also known as team management style. It is the objective of all management to move as close to this style as possible, for managers who emphasize both high concern for people as well as productivity are presumed to be more successful. Accordingly, managers should be carefully selected on the basis of their ability to coordinate people and tasks for optimum benefit.

The managerial grid model, however, has become controversial on the basis of lack of empirical evidence supporting whether the team management style is the best management style. Even Blake and Mouton offer conceptual, rather than empirical arguments as to why the team management style should be the best style, when conditions are favourable.

Contingency Theories

All the leadership theories discussed so far attribute leadership performance on the basis of certain traits or in terms of leader's behaviours. The contingency theories state that an analysis of leadership involves not only the individual traits and behaviour but also a focus on the situation. The leadership behaviour is used in combination with work groups contingencies to predict performance outcomes. The effectiveness of leader behaviour is contingent upon the demands imposed by the situation. The focus is on the situation in which leadership is exercised and not upon the leader. Different types of situations demand different characteristics and behaviours because each type of leader faces different situations. Similarly, a successful leader under one set of circumstances may be a failure under a different set of circumstances. For example, Winston Churchill was considered a successful prime minister and an effective leader of England during World War II. However, he turned out to be much less successful after the war when the situation changed.

The contingency approach, known also as situational approach defines leadership in terms of his ability to handle a given situation and is based on the leader's skill in that given area. This approach can best be described by a hypothetical example developed by Robert A. Baron. Imagine the following scene:

The top executives of a large corporation are going in their limousine to meet the president of another large company at some distance. On the way, their limousine breaks down many miles from a town. Who takes charge of the situation? Who becomes the situational leader? Not the president or the vice-president of the company, but the driver of the car who knows enough about the motor to get the car started again. As he does or oversees the repairs, he gives direct orders to these top echelons of the organization, who comply. But once the car starts and they arrive at the meeting, the driver surrenders his authority and becomes a subordinate again.

This example suggests that in a given situation, the person most likely to act as a leader is the one who is most competent for the situation or for a given group as the case may be. Thus, in defiance of the trait theory, some shy and introvert person may take command of leadership if he meets the group's requirements under given circumstances. However, it must be understood that it would require the leaders to change their behaviour in order to fit the changed situation, if necessary, rather than having to change the situation to suit the leadership behaviour style. This means that the leaders must remain flexible and sensitive to the changing needs of the given group.

While this approach emphasizes that external pressures and situational characteristics and not the personal traits and personality characteristics determine the emergence of successful leaders in performing a given role, it is probably a combination of both types of characteristics that sustains a leader over a long period of time. A leader is more successful when his personal traits complement the situational characteristics.

According to Szilagyi and Wallace, there are four contingency variables that influence a leader's behaviour. First, there are the characteristics of the leader himself. These characteristics include the personality of the leader relative to his ability to respond to situational pressures as well as his previous leadership style in similar situations. The second variable relates to the characteristics of the subordinates. The subordinates are important contributors to a given operational situation. The situation will very much depend upon whether the subordinates prefer a participative style of leadership and decision making and what their motivations in this situation are. Are the subordinates motivated by intrinsic satisfaction of performing the task well or do they expect other types of reinforcements?

The third factor involves the group characteristics. If the group is highly cohesive, it will create a more cordial situation than if the group members do not get along with each other so that the leadership style will vary accordingly. The fourth situational factor relates to the organizational structure. The organizational structure is the formal system of authority, responsibility and communication within the company. Factors such as hierarchy of authority, centralized or decentralized decision making and formal rules and regulations would affect the leader behaviour. All these factors are diagrammatically shown as follows:

CONTINGENCIES

Feedback
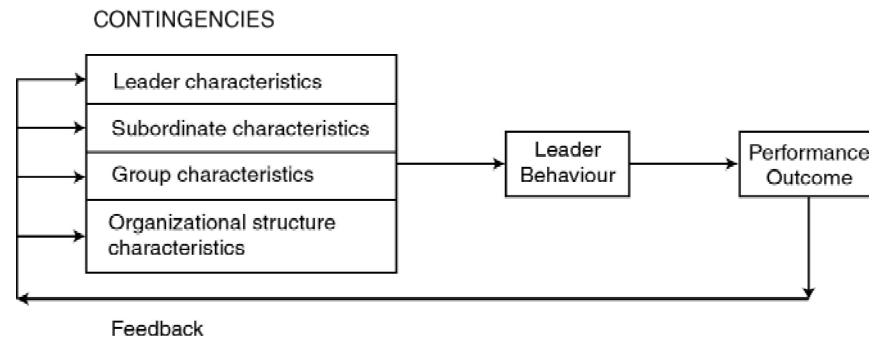
Contingency theories of leadership attempt to account systematically for any relationship between situational factors and leadership effectiveness. There are four such main theories that have been proposed. These are discussed in more detail as follows:

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Fred Fiedler was one of the earliest proponents of a leadership model that explicitly accounted for situational factors. He proposed in 1967, a theoretical explanation for interaction of three situational variables that affect the group performance. These three variables are (i) leader-member relations, (ii) task structure and (iii) leader's positional power. These variables determine the extent of the situational control that the leader has.

Leader-member relations: This relationship reflects the extent to which the followers have confidence and trust in their leader as to his leadership ability. A situation in which the leader-member relations are relatively good with mutual trust and open communications is much easier to manage than a situation where relations are strained.

Task structure: It measures the extent to which the tasks performed by subordinates are specified and structured. It involves clarity of goals, as well as clearly established and defined number of steps required to complete the task. When the tasks are well structured and the rules, policies and procedures clearly written and understood, then there is little ambiguity as to how the job is to be accomplished.

Position power: Position power refers to the legitimate power inherent in the leader's organizational position. It refers to the degree to which a leader can make decisions about allocation of resources, rewards and sanctions. Low position power indicates limited authority. A high position power gives the leader the right to take charge and control the situation as it develops.

The most favourable situation for the leader then would be when the leader group relations are positive, the task is highly structured and the leader has substantial power and authority to exert influence on the subordinates. The leadership model proposed by Fiedler measures the leadership orientation and effectiveness with a differential type of attitude scale that measures the leader's

esteem for the 'least preferred co-worker' or LPC as to whether or not the person the leader least likes to work with is viewed in a positive or negative way. For example, if a leader would describe his least preferred co-worker in a favourable way with regard to such factors as friendliness, warmth, helpfulness, enthusiasm, and so on then he would be considered high on LPC scale. In general a high LPC score leader is more relationship-oriented and a low LPC score leader is more task-oriented.

A high LPC leader is most effective when the situation is reasonably stable and requires only moderate degree of control. The effectiveness stems from motivating group members to perform better and be dedicated towards goal achievement. A low LPC leader would exert pressure on the subordinates to work harder and produce more. These pressures would be directed through organizational rules, policies and expectations.

One of the basic conclusions that can be drawn from Fiedler's contingency model is that a particular leadership style may be more effective in one situation and the same style may be totally ineffective in another situation, and since a leadership style is more difficult to change, the situation should be changed to suit the leadership style. The situation can be made more favourable by enhancing relations with subordinates, by changing the task structure or by gaining more formal power that can be used to induce a more conducive work setting based upon personal leadership style. Fiedler and his associates also developed a leadership training programme known as LEADER MATCH, giving the manager some means and authority to change the situation so that it becomes more compatible with the leader's LPC orientation. Studies conducted by Strube Garcia have shown strong support for Fiedler's approach.

Path-Goal Theory

The path-goal theory of leadership, as proposed by House and Mitchell, claims that the effectiveness of leaders can be measured from their impact on their subordinates' motivation, their ability to perform effectively and their satisfaction with their tasks. This model emphasizes that the leader behaviour be such as to compliment the group work setting and aspirations so that it increases the subordinate goal achievement level and clarifies the paths to these goals. This approach is based upon the expectancy theory of motivation and reflects the worker's beliefs that effort would lead to successful outcomes. The leader sets up clear path and clear guidelines through which the subordinates can achieve both personal as well as work related goals and assists them in achieving these goals. This will make the leader behaviour acceptable and satisfying to subordinates since they see the behaviour of the leader as an immediate source of satisfaction or as a source of obtaining future satisfaction.

This approach is largely derived from the path-goal approach motivation. To motivate workers, the leader should:

(a) Recognize subordinate needs for outcomes over which the leader has some control.

(b) Arrange for appropriate rewards to his subordinates for goal achievement.

(c) Help subordinates in clearly establishing their expectations.

(d) Demolish, as far as possible, the barriers in their path of goal achievement.

(e) Increase opportunities for personal satisfaction that are contingent upon satisfactory performance.

The path-goal model takes into consideration the different types of leadership behaviour. There are four such types of leadership styles that would support this approach depending upon the nature of the situation. These are as follows:

Directive: Directive leadership is the style in which the leader provides guidance and direction to subordinates regarding job requirements as well as methodology for job accomplishment. This style is required when the demands of the task on hand are ambiguous and not clearly defined. But when the task is inherently clear or clarification is otherwise available, then a high level of directive leadership is not required and may, in fact impede performance.

Supportive: Supportive leadership is a style in which the leader is concerned with the needs and well-bring of his subordinates. The leader is friendly and approachable and treats his subordinates as equals. This approach has the most positive effect, specifically on the satisfaction of those followers who are working on unpleasant, stressful or frustrating tasks that are highly repetitive.

Achievement-oriented: This type of support helps the subordinates to strive for higher performance standards and increases their own confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals. This is specially true for followers who have clear cut and non-repetitive assignments.

Participative: This leadership approach encourages subordinate's participation in the decision making process. The leader solicits subordinate's suggestions and takes the suggestions into consideration before making decisions.

The Contingency Factors

The specific leadership style that is most effective is contingent upon two situational factors. These factors are:

Characteristics of subordinates: The leadership style selected by the leader should be compatible with the ability, experience, needs, motivations and personalities of the followers. Subordinates who perceive their own ability to be high would not appreciate a directive approach and would be highly motivated by a supportive leadership style. People who believe that what happens to them is a result of their own behaviour are more satisfied with a participative leadership style and people who believe that what happens to them is a matter of chance or luck, prefer a directive style of leadership.

Environmental factors: The environmental factors are those that are beyond the control of the subordinates but are significant in affecting their satisfaction or on their ability to perform effectively. These include the structure of the work tasks, openness of communication, extent of feedback provided, formal authority system of the organization and the nature of interaction within the work group. If the task is one of a routine nature and well-structured, and the organizational authority system is formal and the group norms are clear and respected, then a directive leadership style will be unnecessary. Additionally, such a leadership will be motivational that helps subordinates cope with the environmental uncertainties, environmental sources of threats and frustration and remove any other barriers to performance and also make sure that subordinates' satisfactory performance is adequately rewarded.

Life-Cycle Theory

The life-cycle theory of leadership has been developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard. The model focuses on the 'maturity' of the followers as a contingency variable affecting the style of leadership. The 'maturity' of the subordinates can be defined as their ability and willingness to take responsibility for directing their own behaviour in relation to a given task. The level of such maturity would determine the leader's emphasis on task behaviours (giving guidance and direction) and relationship behaviour (providing socio-emotional support). 'Task behaviour' can be defined as the extent to which the leader engages in spelling out the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group. These behaviours include telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it and who is to do it. Task behaviour is characterized by one-way communication from the leader to the follower and this communication is meant to direct the subordinate to achieve his goal.

Similarly, 'relationship behaviour' is defined as the extent to which the leader engages in two-way or multi-way communication. The behaviours include listening, facilitating and supportive behaviours.

Maturity is the crux of the life-cycle theory. It has been defined previously as reflecting the two elements of ability and the willingness on the part of the followers. Ability is the knowledge, experience and skill that an individual or a group has in relation to a particular task being performed and the willingness refers to the motivation and commitment of the group to successfully accomplish such given tasks.

The style of leadership would depend upon the level of maturity of the followers. The following diagram suggests four different styles of leadership for each stage of maturity and a particular style in relationship to its relative level of maturity is considered to be the best 'match'.

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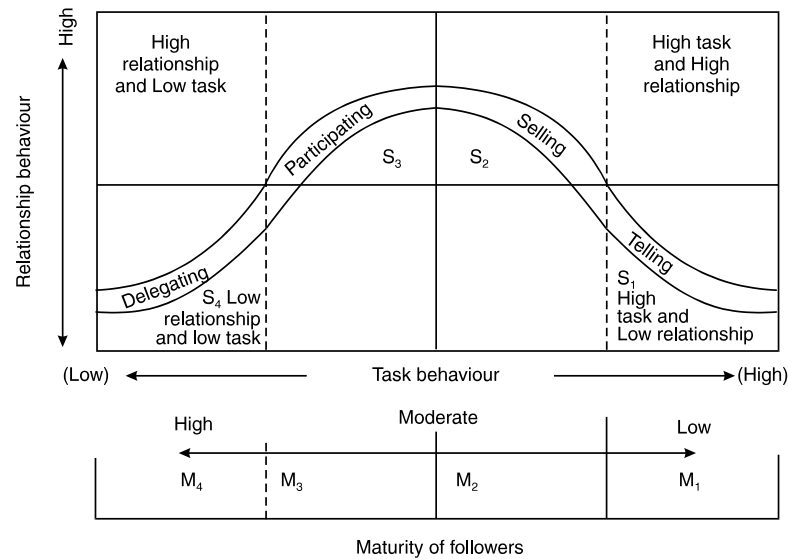
Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Prentice Hall, 1982, p. 152.

These various combinations of leadership styles and levels of maturity are explained in more detail as follows:

(S1) Telling: The 'telling' style is best for low follower maturity. The followers feel very insecure about their task and are unable and unwilling to accept responsibility in directing their own behaviour. Thus, they require specific directions as to what, how and when to do various tasks so that a directive leadership behaviour is more effective.

(S2) Selling: The 'selling' style is most suitable where followers have low to moderate maturity. The leader offers both task direction and socio-emotional support for people who are unable to take responsibility. The followers are confident but lack skills. It involves high task behaviour and high relationship behaviour.

(S3) Participating: This leadership approach involves high relationship behaviour and low task behaviour and is suitable for followers with moderate to high maturity where they have the ability but are unwilling to accept responsibility requiring a supportive leadership behaviour to increase their motivation. The leader has open door policy with open channels of communication and encourages his followers to perform their tasks well.

(S4) Delegating: Here the employees have both, the high job maturity and high psychological maturity. They are both able and willing to be accountable for their responsibility towards task performance and require little guidance and direction. It involves low relationship and low task leader behaviour.

The life-cycle theory of leadership requires that leaders attend to the demands of the situation as well as the feelings of the followers, and adjust their styles with the changing levels of maturity of the followers so as to remain consistent with the actual levels of maturity.

Vroom-Yetton Model

This leadership model is normative in nature for it simply tells leaders how they should behave in decision making. The focus is on the premise that different problems have different characteristics and should therefore be solved by different decision techniques. The effectiveness of the decision is a function of leadership that ranges from the leader making decisions himself to totally democratic process in which the subordinates fully participate, and the contingencies of the situation that describe the attributes of the problem to be dealt with. For a successful leader, it is imperative to know the best approach to solving the problem at hand and to know how to implement each decision making technique well as and when required.

The model indicates that the decision reached should be high in quality, should be accepted by the people who have to implement it and should be time efficient. The leader, while choosing a strategy, decides as to which element he will focus on and which element may be neglected to some extent. Studies performed to test the validity of this theory concluded that the participative and democratic style of leadership was more appropriate and successful at higher levels of organization, whereas directive decision making style was better utilized at lower levels.

There are three variables that affect the performance of the leader, in terms of his capacity as a decision maker. These variables are: the quality of the decision, the degree of acceptance of the decision by the subordinates and the time required to make the decision.

The quality of the decision: It refers to not only the importance of the decision to performance of the subordinates relative to organizational objectives but also whether such performance is optimal in nature and whether all relative input has been considered during decision making process. If such a decision requires input from subordinates, then they should be involved in the decision making process.

Decision acceptance: It refers to the degree of subordinate commitment to the decision. Whether the decision is made by the leader himself or with participation of subordinates, it must be accepted by those who have to implement it wholeheartedly. The decision itself has no value unless it is efficiently and correctly executed. When subordinates accept a decision as their own, they will be more committed to implementing it effectively.

Time required to make the decision: Many situations develop in the form of a crisis where immediate and fast actions have to be taken requiring quick decisions. The subordinates must understand that their participation in decision making is very time consuming and under certain situations the delay in decision making could be very dangerous. Accordingly, as long as the decision is complimentary to the subordinates' aspirations and organizational goals, an individualistic decision making style is more desirable if decisions have to be made under time constraints.

Since high quality of the decision and a high degree of acceptance of the decision by the subordinates are crucial to the successful implementation and

outcome of the decision, Rao and Narayana suggest that leaders should select a decision making style that is appropriate and most effective in a given situation and in this regard they should address the problem by asking seven questions. The first three questions relate to the quality of the decision and the rest of the four questions relate to the decision acceptance by the subordinates. These questions are as follows:

1. Is there a quality requirement such that one solution is likely to be more rational than another?
2. Is there have sufficient information to make a high quality decision?
3. Is the problem structured?
4. Is acceptance of decision by subordinates critical to effective implementation?
5. If a decision is made by the leader, is it reasonably certain that it would be accepted by the subordinates?
6. Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be obtained in solving the problem?
7. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions?

The answers to these questions would determine a particular decision making style to be adopted by the leader.

10.4.1 Leaders and the Led

In this type of leadership, the leader is just a figure-head and does not give any direction but delegates the authority to subordinates so that they must plan, motivate, control and otherwise be responsible for their own actions. The leader acts principally as a liaison between the group and the outside elements and supplies necessary materials and information to group members. He lets the subordinates develop their own techniques for accomplishing goals within the generalized organizational policies and objectives. The leader participates very little and instead of leading and directing, he becomes just one of the members. He does not attempt to intervene or regulate or control and there is complete group or individual freedom in decision making. This type of leadership is highly effective when the group members are highly intelligent and are fully aware of their roles and responsibilities and have the knowledge and skills to accomplish these tasks without direct supervision.

This type of leadership is evident in research laboratories where the scientists are fairly free to conduct their research and make their decisions. Similarly, in a university or a college, the chairperson of a division does not interfere in the professor's teaching method, but only assigns the courses to be taught. From then onwards, the professors are very much their own leaders.

Advantages

(a) It creates an environment of freedom, individuality as well as team spirit.
(b) It is highly creative with a free and informal work environment.

(c) This approach is very useful where people are highly motivated and achievement oriented.

Disadvantages

(a) It may result in disorganized activities that may lead to inefficiency and chaos.

(b) Insecurity and frustration may develop due to lack of specific decision making authority and guidance.

(c) The team spirit may suffer due to possible presence of some uncooperative members.

(d) Some members may put their own interests above the group and team interests.

Personal Characteristics of Leaders

Leadership is an intangible quality and its effectiveness can best be judged by the behaviour and attitudes of followers. Even though, personal backgrounds and personalities differ widely, some of the factors such as education and socio-economic status are poor indicators of judgments of successful leaders. However, some behavioural characteristics may be common to most of the successful and effective leaders. Some of these characteristics are as follows:

Ability to inspire others: This ability may be due to an internal 'charisma' that is an inborn trait and may not be a learnable factor.

Problem solving skills: An effective leader has developed the patience and ability to look at the problem from various angles and get down to the cause of the problem and he tries to solve the problem from its roots rather than the symptoms of the problem.

Emotional maturity: Emotional stability and maturity is a major ingredient for effective leadership. It pertains to good adjustment to life, calm, cool and calculated reaction to undesirable situations and obstacles and normal acceptance of success as well as failure. Such leaders are self-confident, rational and are open hearted towards differences in opinions and opposing viewpoints. They generally have a happy family life and have a balanced outlook towards life and the world. They are warm and sensitive and not vindictive in nature.

Ability to understand human behaviour: A leader must understand the needs, desires and behaviour of his subordinates and show respect for such desires. He is emotionally supportive and is careful enough to avoid ego threatening behaviour. He must give credit to subordinates when their efforts are successful.

Verbal assertiveness: A leader must be an effective orator and must be confident of his views and opinions. He must communicate his views honestly and in a straight forward manner without fear of consequences.

Willingness to take risks: Routine work, no matter how well-done, never makes a leader. Successful leaders always charter the unknown. They must accept and

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seek new challenges. However, the risks must be calculated ones and outcomes of actions be reasonably predicted. Should these risks result in failure, a leader must take full blame and responsibility and not shift blame on others, even though they may be operative factors. He must be willing to tolerate frustration and defeat and learn from these failures.

Dedication to organizational goals: A leader must demonstrate his dedication and commitment to the organization's mission, goals and objectives by hard work and self-sacrifice. He must make sure that his followers fully understand the organizational objectives and are equally dedicated and willing to work for these objectives.

Skill in the art of compromise: Settling differences is a vital part of leadership and genuine differences must be solved by compromise and consensus. This will induce faith in the fairness of the leader. He must be willing to give in where necessary and must be able to take criticism with grace. However, he must not compromise for the sake of compromising or just smooth sailing but must be willing to take a stand on controversial issues and accept the consequences of his stand.

10.4.2 Emerging Pattern of Rural Leadership in India, Social Power and Exchange Theory

Leadership in rural areas requires particular traits. It is an interesting social phenomenon. In villages, the degree of interaction between the leader and villagers is high. Various groups in villages determine the pattern of leadership in villages.

Leadership in rural areas func-tions amidst of small groups. The human relations approach is also important, as most of the villagers are ignorant, innocent, needy and sensitive. Various writers have tried to define the term 'leadership'. However, still a comprehensive definition for the term does not exist.

Social Power and Bases of Power

Leadership involves group mechanism. All our behaviour, ideals, and thoughts are moulded in terms of the group, which we belong to. Particularly, the rural leaders are essentially a part of group mechanism which calls for a lot of social power and authority.

They are the ones who in-fluence all the members of the group to achieve a goal. A leader has to perform the following functions:

- He represents the whole group.
- He speaks on behalf of the group.
- He co-ordinates the group's activities.
- He helps the group in sorting out the plans for achieving the goals.
- He is responsible for the evaluation of the progress of group.4. The behaviour of the leader and the relationship of the leader with people may differ from situation to situation.

The rural leadership may arise due to prestige of any sort, social or economic status, heredity, seniority, election and recognition of training or technical ability. Before Independence, there were informal leaders, who belonged mostly to the higher privi-leged castes, which do not have numerical strength but were dominant in all aspects of life. This group occupied an important position in the social and political fields.

Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory is a social psychological perspective that explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties. Social exchange theory posits that all human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. For example, when a person perceives the costs of relationship as outweighing the perceived benefits, then the theory predicts that the person will choose to leave the relationship.

The early permutations of Social Exchange Theory stem from Gouldner's (1960) norm of reciprocity, which simply argues that people ought to return benefits given to them in a relationship. Later modifications to this theory focus attention on relational development and maintenance rules (see Murstein et al.)

For social exchange theorists, when the costs and benefits are equal in a relationship, then that relationship is not equitable. The notion of equity is a core part of social exchange theory.

Social exchange theory is intimately tied to rational choice theory, and features all of its main assumptions.

Check Your Progress

5. What is the trait theory?

6. Mention the three situational variables that affect the group performance.

10.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Some of the qualities of a good leader are as follows:
   - Futuristic vision
   - Working towards attainment of the vision
   - Closely monitoring the team
   - Actively coaching the team

2. Autocratic leaders keep the decision making authority and control in their own hands and assume full responsibility for all actions.

3. Experimental studies are studies in which the investigator artificially manipulates study factors or subjects, such as therapeutic regimen, or some other parameter.

4. In 1961, the Milgram Experiment was conducted at the Yale University by psychologist Stanley Milgram.

5. The trait theory rests on the traditional approach that describes leadership in terms of certain personal and special characteristics that are not acquired by knowledge and training but are considered inherited.

6. The three situational variables that affect the group performance are leader-member relations, task structure, and leader's positional power.

10.6 SUMMARY

- According to several scholars of management leadership is the ability of an individual to be able to influence and inspire people under him.

- Several scholars have defined dominance as a forced 'alpha status', while prestige admiration that is openly given by others.

- Character of dominance is established by leadership, it is the desire to control and dictate others.

- In this type of leadership, the subordinates are consulted and their feedback is taken into the decision making process.

- Autocratic leaders keep the decision making authority and control in their own hands and assume full responsibility for all actions.

- The autocratic leadership style ranges from tough and highly dictatorial to paternalistic, depending upon whether the leader's motivational approach is threat and punishment or appreciation and rewards.

- The model of Institutional Leadership reveals important elements of leadership capabilities in an organisation.

- It may be referred to the ability of the leaders to be able to adjust to external environment effectively along with upholding the fundamental organisational objectives.

- In dominant leadership authority is the basis of leadership. The leader has the power to delegate and control the individuals at lower levels.

- Leadership skills can be enhanced with the correct usage of principles of persuasion. According to many definitions leadership is termed as process of influencing others and on the basis of this it can be said that an essential component of effective leadership is persuasion.

- An expert is appointed as a leader. An individual is said to be an expert when he has answers to all questions or means of finding answers.

- The trait theory rests on the traditional approach that describes leadership in terms of certain personal and special characteristics that are not acquired by knowledge and training but are considered inherited.

- Another aspect of behavioural theory of leadership is represented by the managerial grid. It was developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton and plays an important part in managerial behaviour in organizational development.

- This managerial grid provides a reasonable indication of the health of the organization as well as the ability of the managers.

- The contingency theories state that an analysis of leadership involves not only the individual traits and behaviour but also a focus on the situation.

- The path-goal theory of leadership, as proposed by House and Mitchell, claims that the effectiveness of leaders can be measured from their impact on their subordinates' motivation, their ability to perform effectively and their satisfaction with their tasks.

- Directive leadership is the style in which the leader provides guidance and direction to subordinates regarding job requirements as well as methodology for job accomplishment.

- The life-cycle theory of leadership has been developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard. The model focuses on the 'maturity' of the followers as a contingency variable affecting the style of leadership.

- Leadership is an intangible quality and its effectiveness can best be judged by the behaviour and attitudes of followers.

- Leadership involves group mechanism. All our behaviour, ideals, and thoughts are moulded in terms of the group, which we belong to.

- Social exchange theory is a social psychological perspective that explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties.

10.7 KEY WORDS

- **Leader:** A leader is a person who influences a group of people towards the achievement of a goal.

- **Dominant Leadership:** In dominant leadership authority is the basis of leadership. The leader has the power to delegate and control the individuals at lower levels.

- **Consideration:** It refers to the extent to which there is a rapport between the leader and the group, mutual warmth and trust, a concern for the needs of the members of the work group, an attitude that encourages participative management, two-way communication and respect for the feedback of the followers.

- **Initiating Structure:** It refers to the extent to which a leader is task oriented and his ability and concern in utilising resources and personnel at optimum level. It involves creating a work environment so that the work of the group

is organized, coordinated, sequential and organizationally relevant so that people know exactly what is to be done and how it is to be done.

- **Task structure:** It measures the extent to which the tasks performed by subordinates are specified and structured. It involves clarity of goals, as well as clearly established and defined number of steps required to complete the task.

- **Position power:** Position power refers to the legitimate power inherent in the leader's organizational position. It refers to the degree to which a leader can make decisions about allocation of resources, rewards and sanctions.

10.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. Mention the advantages and disadvantages of democratic leadership.
2. Write a short note on institutional leadership.
3. Mention some of the key components of institutional leadership.
4. Differentiate between dominant leadership and persuasive leadership.
5. What are the four contingency variables that influence a leader's behaviour?

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the concept of democratic leadership.
2. Discuss some of the advantages and disadvantages of autocratic leadership.
3. Critically analyse the role of experimental studies in the process of leadership.
4. Identify the major differences between the behaviour theory and trait theory.
5. Describe the managerial grid model.

10.9 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK - IV

OPTION AND BEHAVIOUR

UNIT 11 PUBLIC OPINION

Structure

11.0 INTRODUCTION

The needs, aspirations and thoughts of majority of the people in a society are referred to as public opinion. It is also regarded as the collective opinion of people over a given topic or issue. Urbanisation and socio-political forces gave rise to the concept of public opinion. With the altered political contention it was essential for people to voice their thoughts. The phrase has a French origin from the term publique. In 1588, Michel de Montaigne used the phrase for the first time in one of his writings.

An opinion is the locus, people's thoughts over a certain issue, policy, act or political leader could be positive, or critical, unbiased, or ambiguous. They cannot be regarded as facts as these are merely representations of people's sentiments over a certain political subject. Opinions are in some way correlated with attitudes,

or insistence. Opinions of people are often shaped by their attitude. For instance person with an attitude favouring equality would be in favour of all policies supporting equality in the social system.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the process of public opinion
- Identify the various steps of public opinion formation
- Mention the two methods used for gauging public opinion
- Discuss the relationship between propaganda and education
- Explain the concept of hostile prejudice

11.2 PUBLIC OPINION: AN OVERVIEW

In a broad sense public opinion may be defined as the sum total opinion of several people. The specific idea of the term is to stress on individuals, majority, associations and opinion of the influential while making decisions on policies. Allport has given the following definition for the concept: '*the term public opinion is given its meaning with reference to a much individual situation in which individuals are expressing themselves or can be called upon to express themselves as favouring or supporting disfavouring and opposing some definite condition, person or proposal of widespread importance in such a proportion, number, intensity and constancy to give rise to the probability of affecting action, directly or indirectly towards the object concerned.*'

The definition, in a way helps in defining the concept and at the same time it outlines the nature and functions of public opinion.

11.2.1 Process of Public Opinion

Psychological and social developments result in process of public opinion. They create situations that have an impact on the behaviour of every member of the group. The thoughts of the group are conditioned by their expectation from the situation. The process of public opinion involves the development of attitudes and opinions of the individual, processes of group opinion, and communication within the group.

Allport observed that public opinion calls for the voicing of opinions on a problem broadly acknowledged by a group of individuals and that public opinion signifies an action or a keenness for action by members of the group as they are mindful of the manner in which others are responding to the similar situation. Davison

explained this growth of public opinion as a process that is initiated with the gestation of a problem at a casual discussion in the group and the appearance of a leadership helps in spreading the problem, manipulating the attitudes and behaviours of other members of the group. As a result of the communication within the group it spreads to other groups and people in society.

The process of public opinion is communal and dynamic. It fluctuates over the time. Responsible individuals have the capacity to alter the opinion of the public and direct it towards betterment of the society and finally the country. Public opinion is formed when a uniform and unanimous decision arises out of a discussion. Therefore, consistency in outlooks rising from a common discussion could become the source of public opinion.

As the concept of public opinion is not inert and undergoes frequent changes for this reason it is a continuous process. The role of public opinion in a democratic set up cannot be overlooked; the people have the responsibility to wisely voice their opinions so that the development of the nation is not hampered. The people are liable for voicing their opinions over various issues so that problems of the society can be dealt with. The discussion that takes place over various societal and political issues lead to the formation of public opinion.

There will always be a group of people (minority) who will contest the opinion of the majority however at any given time the opinion of the majority prevails and with time if the minority group are able to get their opinion adopted by the majority then their opinion will be regarded as the public opinion. From this it is clear that opinions do not remain same and are prone to change over the time. Thus, the process of public opinion is not only continuous, but at the same time it is extremely complex.

It has been proven through history that opinion of the public in a democracy is the most effective. The opinion of people living in the rural areas in India has lot of significance.

11.2.2 Steps of Public Opinion Formation

The process of public opinion formation is initiated when a topic of public concern is raised by few responsible citizens; with the help of discussions they are able to bring it to the notice of many more. The discussions sometimes start in a very informal gathering but still the discussions are aimed at finding a solution to the problem. The topic of discussion could range from agriculture to sexual abuse or even rate of illiteracy.

So the first step for formation of public opinion is identification of the topic under discussion. This identification draws the attention of various groups in the society and with the help of discussions they put forward their views. The views are spread in order to gain more support.

In the second step the discussions are done in detail so that a solution can be worked out. In this step the discussion is two sided as it looks into the pros and cons of solutions. With the help of various means of communication attempts are made to increase the participation of people. Efforts are made to increase the awareness of the general public.

In the third step more solutions are presented as the involvement of people increases. People even initiate public marches and speak out slogans so that emotional appeal can be created. At this stage can take shape of propaganda and give rise to conflicting situations as the public opinion has not been completely formulated. The minority groups might try to take advantage of this stage and make contradictory statements. As a result, this stage generates logical as well as illogical thoughts among the people and may hamper the formation of public opinion.

In the last step the views of all groups are assimilated and a concluding decision is taken regarding an issue, this conclusion is the view of the majority thus referred to as the public opinion.

This is not the opinion of the entire population, but it is definitely the view of the majority. In democracy the views of the majority prevails. In spite all the differences in the opinion the view of the majority will come to be known as the public opinion.

The level of involvement of the people will determine the quality and value of the public opinion. The quality of the opinion of the public is determined by the various means of mass communication used in the spread of the topic for discussion.

11.2.3 Role of Leaders

The role of a leader is very important in formation of public opinion and providing it a defining structure and final character. The leader of the group is the one who draws the attention of the group members on the topic that have to be discussed and as a leader he has the control over the direction the discussion goes and the manner in which it ends. He has the duty to end the discussion by bringing it to a united point.

The leader also has the responsibility to eliminate the oppositions coming in the way of constructing a rational opinion. Here his role as the director is completely coming into play. He has to assess the general attitude and temperament of his group members prior to taking the discussion in a specific direction.

The leader may not always be responsible in initiating the discussion but with his authority as a leader he can manoeuvre the direction the discussion takes. He has the power to turn it towards his personal advantage or for the advantage of his members. A good leader will have the capacity to direct the opinion in the direction where there is maximum benefit for the society.

11.2.4 Gauging Public Opinion

In 1936, the practices of polling came in to be widely used. The prediction of American Institute of Public Opinion about Roosevelt winning the Presidential election came to be correct. The aim of gauging public opinion during election helps in reporting the views of the people concerning various issues present in the society. The knowledge of public opinion trends helps the government to initiate steps and policies that are in accordance to the will of the general public. There are generally two methods used for gauging public opinion, these are qualitative methods and quantitative methods.

Qualitative Method: This old method of gauging public opinion tries to understand the changes by looking into the political, social and economic events over the years. It explores the views of people during different stages of history, for instance the views of people with respect to working of women during the 1950s are compared with that of the present time, there is bound to be difference in their opinion. Today working of women is not looked down upon in fact it is encouraged.

This method of measuring public opinion is done with the help of case study method, holding group discussions so that the changes can be assessed over the years.

In spite of the effectiveness of the qualitative methods of gauging public opinion, they are criticised for lacking objectivity, consistency and legitimacy. In order to overcome these limitations the other method is used for the purpose.

Quantitative Methods use the following methods for measuring the opinion of the public:

Polling Method is effective for measuring public opinion and for this reason it is extensively used in democratic set ups as views of the majority as basis of the public opinion. Opinion polls are a common feature of elections in India as well as USA. The method is frequently used by consumer goods manufacturers so that they are able to know the opinion of their users and identify their competition.

Sampling method is another form of quantitative methods; here the data is gathered from many people in a short period of time however the method is not considered very reliable as there are chances of errors and biased opinion. Moreover the sample selected may not be representing the entire population.

Mock-Experimental Method: This method helps in assessing and observing the impact of various essays printed in newspapers on public opinion. The study of Meier is a good illustration of this method. In the same way several educational and informational documentaries are screened for spreading awareness and generating the opinion of the people.

Analysing the mails written to editors and legislators: This method helps in attaining an insight about the subject of current concerns among people. However

they are not always the views of the majority hence they should be analysed with caution.

Survey Method

This is another effective method of measuring public. In this questionnaires are circulated and the opinions of the people are judged on the basis of their answers. It is very essential for the survey to be effective following aspects are kept in mind:

- The questionnaire should include questions pertaining to the issue at hand
- It should be concise and direct questions should be asked
- A standard should be maintained throughout the survey
- The language of the questionnaire should not be complicated

There are many methods for measuring the public opinion, the nature of the issue helps in deciding the usability of a method.

Check Your Progress

1. What is public opinion?
2. How qualitative method is used for gauging public opinion?

11.3 PROPAGANDA

Propaganda has been defined as a means through which many people are enticed to act in a particular manner. Garth Jowett and Victoria O'Donnell, in their book, *Propaganda and Persuasion*, have called propaganda as a careful, organized endeavour for shaping the outlook of people so that their behaviour can be altered as per the will of the propagandist. Similar definition has been given by author Neil Postman; according to him *propaganda is intentionally-designed communication that invites us to respond emotionally, immediately, and in an either-or manner*.

It is a form of intentional persuasion attempting to have an impact on the sentiments, attitudes, opinions, and activities of a particular section of the population in order to achieve the desired political or economic gains. There are different means of influencing people and the propagandists do not hesitate from using direct or indirect means for their purpose. There are both advantageous as well as harmful types of propaganda; it could be based on facts or lies. In order to achieve success the propaganda does not stop from influencing the profoundest beliefs, anxieties, desires and hopes of its targets.

Attaining social power is the frequent agenda of all sorts of propaganda and persuasive tactics. The message that has to be communicated is designed on the basis of the objective that has to be achieved. Currently, YouTube, Facebook and Twitter, etc., are means of propaganda.

11.3.1 Relationship between Propaganda and Education

Education strives for promulgation of skills whereas propaganda is merely a means to an end. The dissimilarity in their nature and objective clearly elaborates their relationship.

- Education is the teaching of children; propaganda is more to do with adults;
- Education takes place mostly in schools, propaganda can occur anywhere as it is efforts to influence the way of thinking of the people.
- In education, students are fed with facts, in propaganda both lies and truth can be used in fact sometimes the selective facts are used to influence the audience.
- The basis of education is rationality and logic, propaganda has no basis only achieving its goal.
- The educational content is meant for the betterment of the students and the society; propaganda can harm not only its audiences but also society as a whole.
- Aim of education is wellbeing of the overall society and human race, propaganda benefits only the interest of the propagandists.
- Education maintains the moral values and standards of the society; propaganda is constantly attacking the set values of the society
- Education promotes open-mindedness while propaganda encourages narrow mindedness
- Education helps in reducing the impact of propaganda.

From the above mentioned differences the contrasting relation between education and propaganda is very well illustrated. The relation between the two is largely dependent on the conduct of the teachers and the educational institution.

11.3.2 Language and Propaganda

Language is used blatantly, underhandedly and subconsciously in propaganda so that the established opinions can be refurbished and lies can be promoted as facts. The language used in the process is meant to have an influence on the viewpoint of the audiences. The providers of the information are not perturbed by the extent of misinformation. It is evident that the system of delivering and common expression has undergone a complete change in today's time. The evolution in television has still not been able to alter the way the content is delivered; methods used in political propaganda remain to be same since the origin of the political parties. They continue to use a combination of indirect and explicit language, meant to demean particular groups, mostly the opposition. Effectively used propaganda can be extremely self-perpetuating. It discovers victims for snags within the society and methodically discovers methods of accusing them and giving rise to disorder and finally gathering

majority demanding for reforms. Propaganda is an instrument used by all kinds of political and social groups. Its presence can be felt even in routine life of most people. The techniques of the propagandists have barely undergone a change over the years; it's just that the medium has shifted to Facebook or Twitter. However the language still remains the same. The name-calling, sarcasm, exaggeration, and euphemism, continue to be used.

Words are an incredible weapon; even a five lined tagline in an advertisement of a consumer product influences the buyers. The selection of words and their presentation are two equally important aspects. Strong words when presented in the wrong font and unimagined background lose their impact. Language is enough to get an emotional reaction from a person. The propagandists often use emotional words in their speeches and they make it a point to repeat them frequently. Words on their own are enough to forge empires and topple titans, unite nations and start a war.

11.3.3 Role of Suggestion

The propagandist uses different tools to organise and activate opinions and attitudes. One such important tool is suggestion or even referred to as stimulation. The idea is to stimulate others to believe in the assertions of the propagandists. The notion of employing the device of suggestion or stimulation helps in getting the public to accept an illogical proposition as well. Suggestions become one of his most essential tools as then he is able evade the critical reactions of the audience.

The tool of suggestion is used in the following manner by the propagandist:

- Providing positive and general positive statements
- Use of simple and clear language
- Refrains from admitting or suggesting any other viewpoint

This tool was frequently used by Hitler; he blatantly suggested that Jews had backstabbed the Germans during the First World War. He also constantly suggested that Prime Minister Churchill and President Roosevelt were 'warmongers'. In recent times the art of suggestion is extremely developed and is clearly visible in the commercials of various products. The tool is also used in a more subtle form like hints, allusions, or unintended statements. Appeal is one more form of propaganda and is part of suggestion or stimulation.

11.3.4 Techniques of Propaganda

For centuries, propaganda has continued to act as an effective tool in shaping the actions and opinions of the public. Propaganda is in way presentation of lies, wrong information, provocative language, and other forms of negative communication so that the desired objectives can be achieved. Irrespective of how propaganda is used there are few commonly used techniques used by the propagandist in order to influence the audiences, these are as follows:

- Most propagandists use the bandwagon technique as they realise the importance of peer pressure.

- Elitist Appeal is a useful way of influencing people as most people feel that the people belonging to upper class are generally correct.

- Using ambiguous words and language is a technique employed by most propagandists. They merely use empty words and promises in order to lure people.

- Public opinion is often swayed with the use of loaded words. The selection of words is done according to the nature and attitude of the issue and the audience.

- With the technique of transfer, propagandists invoke positive or negative descriptions, attach them to an unconnected concept or item, and instigate the public to react and take action. Usually, propagandists try to transfer the glory or benefit of a historic event with their concept and entice the people to react accordingly. This technique helps them from stopping the people from acting or reacting all together.

- The success of propaganda relies on providing false and undependable testimonies.

Check Your Progress

3. Define the term 'propaganda'.

4. Mention one of the important tools used by propagandist to organise and activate opinions and attitudes

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11.4 PREJUDICE

Prejudice according to Gordon Allport is a *'feeling, favourable or unfavourable, toward a person or thing, prior to, or not based on, actual experience'*. The word usually refers to having a predetermined, usually hostile, outlooks towards individuals or a person as a result of their political association, gender, beliefs, values, social status, incapacity, faith, race, dialect, nationality, good looks, profession, edification, or many other such affiliations with groups or associations. Prejudice may also be regarded as a reaction to a race or ethnic group purely on the basis of a past personal experience.

Gordon Allport, in his 1954 classic, *The Nature of Prejudice*, has maintained that individuals lack open-mindedness, he has written: *'Open-mindedness is considered to be a virtue. But, strictly speaking, it cannot occur. A new experience must be redacted into old categories. We cannot handle each event freshly in its own right. If we did so, of what use would past experience be?'*

11.4.1 Characteristics of Prejudice

There are several factors characterising prejudice, however the basic character of prejudice is discriminating people on the basis of personal attitude towards the individual. The most common factors for prejudice are as follows:

- Narrow-mindedness
- Chauvinism
- Classicism
- Homophobia
- Patriotism
- Religious preconception
- Ageism
- Racial intolerance
- Lack of education
- Stereotyping

11.4.2 Growth of Prejudice

There are a number of reasons for the growth of prejudice in the society, as discussed above the major cause for existence and growth of prejudice is discrimination. Discrimination means to treat fellow individual in an unfair manner on the basis of their diversity from the majority of the people of the society. People in their prejudiced behaviour overlook all inherent merits of the individual and these prejudices do not have any sound backing as well. Prejudice leads to inequality in the society, one more common feature of all modern societies. People have prejudices against others on the basis of their colour, creed and class. Discrimination against Blacks in America or caste discriminations in India or towards Jews as religious groups are common forms of prejudice that have prevailed in the history of the world.

Reasons for the Growth of Prejudice

- Feeling of superiority towards others along with fear of the outsiders is known to be the initial causes for the growth of prejudice.
- Complexity of the social structures
- Increase of population
- Some people due to their personal experiences cultivated prejudices against certain section or religion.
- Confirming to the majority have also led to an increase and continuance

    Irrespective of the reason for the growth the main problem lies with the individual tendencies to stereotyping and generating opinions about others.

11.4.3 Forms of Hostile Action

Hostile prejudice is the noticeable expression of hatred towards people belonging to another race, religion, creed, country, sex, or gender identity. Hostile action is taken against all those going against the specified standards of dressing, traditions or religious practices. The person develops hostility against all those who are not fitting into the person's perception of normality. Most researches in this field have focused on the hostile sexism.

11.4.4 Methods of Reducing Prejudice

Changing or reducing a certain prejudice would involve lot of effort and just readjusting thoughts rationally and sensibly would not be enough. In most cases there will be a need to alter the central personality; it would require a change of heart, this similar to spiritual transformation, and much more difficult than manipulation intellectually. Since prejudices are steadfastly set in the self-Identity.

Several researches have suggested the following methods that might help in reducing the prejudices:

- The contact theory: According to this theory prejudice will only reduce once the members of the group prejudicing (in-group) are brought together with the group against whom it is being practiced (out-group). According to "jigsaw" technique of teaching by Elliot Aronson there are six prerequisite conditions for reducing prejudice:

- There should be reciprocated interdependence between the two groups.

- Both groups should have similar goal

- Both groups should have equality of status

- Both groups must frequently interact with each other, formally or informally

- The groups should contact multiple times

- Equality in social norms is essential for reduction and eradication of prejudice

- Empirical research: Researchers Thomas Pettigrew and Linda Tropp piloted a major analysis of more than five hundred studies and over a quarter of a million participants belonging to various countries were involved in this. According to them three 38 nations to examine how intergroup contact reduces prejudice. They found that three important mediators for reducing prejudice, the interaction between the groups helps in reducing prejudice as

- It enhances the information of the groups among each other

- Reduces the level of anxiety

- Enhance empathetic feelings towards each other and gives a better understanding about the groups.

When individuals experience prejudice they are able to understand the feelings of others. Besides understanding the reasons for prejudice the researches also helped in finding way of eliminating it. These researches underlined the importance of training individuals to behave in a caring manner towards members of other group, they need to put themselves in their shoes and try to perceive their state of mind.

Other common methods for reducing prejudice could be:

- To pass laws against those practicing prejudice
- Spreading awareness among people and generating public opinion against the practice.
- Creating awareness among people regarding the discrepancies of their personal beliefs
- Interacting more with members of various social groups

Check Your Progress

5. What is prejudice?
6. Mention the most common factors for prejudice.

11.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The needs, aspirations and thoughts of majority of the people in a society are referred to as public opinion.

2. The qualitative method of gauging public opinion tries to understand the changes by looking into the political, social and economic events over the years. This method of measuring public opinion is done with the help of case study method, holding group discussions so that the changes can be assessed over the years.

3. Propaganda has been defined as a means through which many people are enticed to act in a particular manner.

4. The propagandist uses different tools to organise and activate opinions and attitudes. One such important tool is suggestion or even referred to as stimulation.

5. Prejudice according to Gordon Allport is a 'feeling, favourable or unfavourable, toward a person or thing, prior to, or not based on, actual experience'.

6. The most common factors for prejudice are as follows:
    - Narrow-mindedness
    - Chauvinism
    - Classicism

- Homophobia
- Patriotism

11.6 SUMMARY

- The needs, aspirations and thoughts of majority of the people in a society are referred to as public opinion.
- An opinion is the locus, people's thoughts over a certain issue, policy, act or political leader could be positive, or critical, unbiased, or ambiguous.
- In a broad sense public opinion may be defined as the sum total opinion of several people.
- Psychological and social developments result in process of public opinion. They create situations that have an impact on the behaviour of every member of the group.
- The process of public opinion is communal and dynamic.
- It fluctuates over the time. Responsible individuals have the capacity to alter the opinion of the public and direct it towards betterment of the society and finally the country.
- The role of public opinion in a democratic set up cannot be overlooked; the people have the responsibility to wisely voice their opinions so that the development of the nation is not hampered.
- The process of public opinion formation is initiated when a topic of public concern is raised by few responsible citizens; with the help of discussions they are able to bring it to the notice of many more.
- The role of a leader is very important in formation of public opinion and providing it a defining structure and final character.
- The leader of the group is the one who draws the attention of the group members on the topic that have to be discussed and as a leader he has the control over the direction the discussion goes and the manner in which it ends.
- There are generally two methods used for gauging public opinion, these are qualitative methods and quantitative methods.
- Propaganda has been defined as a means through which many people are enticed to act in a particular manner.
- It is a form of intentional persuasion attempting to have an impact on the sentiments, attitudes, opinions, and activities of a particular section of the population in order to achieve the desired political or economic gains.
- Language is used blatantly, underhandedly and subconsciously in propaganda so that the established opinions can be refurbished and lies can be promoted as facts.

- The propagandist uses different tools to organise and activate opinions and attitudes. One such important tool is suggestion or even referred to as stimulation.

- The idea is to stimulate others to believe in the assertions of the propagandists.

- Prejudice according to Gordon Allport is a 'feeling, favourable or unfavourable, toward a person or thing, prior to, or not based on, actual experience'.

- The word usually refers to having a predetermined, usually hostile, outlooks towards individuals or a person as a result of their political association, gender, beliefs, values, social status, incapacity, faith, race, dialect, nationality, good looks, profession, edification, or many other such affiliations with groups or associations.

- There are a number of reasons for the growth of prejudice in the society, as discussed above the major cause for existence and growth of prejudice is discrimination.

- Hostile prejudice is the noticeable expression of hatred towards people belonging to another race, religion, creed, country, sex, or gender identity.

11.7 KEY WORDS

- **Opinion:** An opinion is the locus, people's thoughts over a certain issue, policy, act or political leader could be positive, or critical, unbiased, or ambiguous. They cannot be regarded as facts as these are merely representations of people's sentiments over a certain political subject.

- **Leader:** The leader of the group is the one who draws the attention of the group members on the topic that have to be discussed and as a leader he has the control over the direction the discussion goes and the manner in which it ends.

- **Mock-Experimental Method:** This method helps in assessing and observing the impact of various essays printed in newspapers on public opinion. The study of Meier is a good illustration of this method. In the same way several educational and informational documentaries are screened for spreading awareness and generating the opinion of the people.

11.8 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. What do you understand by the term 'public opinion'?

2. Identify the various steps of public opinion formation.

3. Mention the two methods used for gauging public opinion.

4. Write a short note on the survey method.

5. What is the role of language in the process of propaganda?

Long Answers Questions

1. Describe the process of public opinion.

2. Explain why the role of a leader is very important in formation of public opinion.

3. Discuss the relationship between propaganda and education.

4. Provide a list of the reasons for the growth of prejudice.

5. Explain the concept of hostile prejudice. Suggest some methods that might help in reducing the prejudices.

11.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 12 COLLECTIVE BEHAVIOUR

Structure

12.0 INTRODUCTION

Collective behaviour refers to the spontaneous and unstructured behaviour of a group of people in response to the same event, situation, or problem, like this crowd of people, for example. These events do not conform to typical structures that other events are formed around, such as rules or laws, but are not necessarily deviant in nature either. Kurt Lang and Gladys Lang (1968) describe collective behaviour as 'the sequences and patterns of interactions that emerge in a problematic situation. They include, as examples, not only crowd behaviour, but also responses to disaster, the disorderly street mob, or the radical and social upheaval to the peaceful and comparatively trivial shifts in the orientations of individuals and small groups that, occurring en masse, can produce major changes in taste, fashion, or public opinion.' to this list, we can add panics, crazes, aggressive outbursts, masses, mass media, mass behaviour, etc.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the concept of mass society and collective behaviour

- Describe the physical structure of the audience

- Discuss the various characteristics of crowd behaviour

- Analyse the five important theories of crowd behaviour

- List the factors responsible for social movements

12.2 MASS SOCIETY

The concept of mass society helps in characterising the modern society as standardised but at the same time disaggregated. Like all modern societies it contains mass culture and comprehensive, detached, social institutions. It is society where quest for accumulating wealth and the system of government has faded the ties based on social traditions. The society got the portrayal of 'mass' during the nineteenth century; it referred to the demolishing trends prevailing at the time of Industrial Revolution, it was during this time the traditional values were undermined. During this time political theorists like Alexis de Tocqueville, used the term was used with reference to the elite concerns regarding the change in the political system of the Western world after the French Revolution. These elite concerns addressed the rule of the mob in detail.

In the later part of nineteenth century, Émile Durkheim through his work began to associate the term mass society for indistinguishable, atomistic individuals. By the twentieth century in the accounts of neo-Marxist organisations like the Frankfurt School defined mass society as a society consisting of isolated individuals bonding together because of the industrial culture and serving the interest of the capitalism.

During the twentieth the accounts given by the conservatives like José Ortega y Gasset, criticised the mass society for helping in the decline of the traditional values and its composition of the atomized individuals. Cultural life continued to be dominated with class distinctions. 'Rational recreation' that included social development stayed as an objective of those wishing to bring cultural reforms for the upliftment of the lower classes. However, there were many who were still keen for the development of the capitalist.

12.2.1 Audience

Audience is a form of collective behaviour that has a close relation with crowd. The audience is actually an arrangement of institutionalized crowd. It is quite similar to the crowd; however the difference lies in the objective and form of its organization. That implies that the difference is in the manner in which it is configured. The spontaneity of the audience is not as vigorous as the crowd. The time and place of the audience is controlled. It gathers for a definite purpose, and its organization restricts the production of the psychological effects.

Physical Structure of the Audience

Principally an audience has a specific type of structure. The place where it gathers has a distinctive physical feature. The arrangement of seating the audience is styled in order to create polarity of public attitudes. The seating is mostly in rows but not in a straight line, the rows are slightly semi-circular form so that the speaker standing in the centre is able to see all his audiences. The seating also help the audience to

concentrate on the speaker or the performance instead of the people seating on sides. The crowd is in a shoulder-to-shoulder configuration and the space between the seats avoids too much gathering of people. Therefore, inhibiting the reactions of the crowd from getting out of hand. Audience might gather because of the popularity of the speaker and as seen frequently, a calculating entreaty to prejudice might change it into a crowd, but due to the physical arrangement this rarely happens. Anyhow an audience does have a tendency to exhibit behaviour of a crowd. The relation of the speaker with his audience is standardized as well.

Psychological Features of the Audience

- The purpose for which the audiences gather is mostly definite.

- The gathering is well planned

- The audience are well aware about the topic of discussion of the gathering

- Usually the speaker is the dynamic agent in type of social interaction. He conveys thoughts and emotions and paints a verbal image; he narrates stories, exposes facts and puts forward rational arguments.

- The audience remains passive in this interaction, however the images created by the speaker arouse emotions and feelings in some ways, and the audience continues to be reasonably inactive throughout the interaction.

Check Your Progress

1. Define collective behaviour.

2. What do you understand by the term 'mass society'?

12.3 MOB BEHAVIOUR

A collection of individuals is referred to as a crowd. The formation of crowd takes place when people gather for a common objective and they gather in order to support the objective and sometimes exhibit strong emotional response. Kimball Young has defined crowd as, *'A crowd is a gathering of considerable number of persons around a centre or point of common attention.'* When the responses of the large crowd of people become disorderly and have intention of creating disorder it may be referred to as mob behaviour.

12.3.1 Kinds of Mob

According to the classification by Brown, there are two types of crowds, namely passive crowd or the audience and active crowd or mob. Young has also classified crowd in the same manner.

Passive Crowd or Audience: As explained above, an audience is a form of institutionalized crowd. It is a passive crowd. The crowd is gathered for a specific purpose, it is well planned. People could have gathered in order to see a play or

listen to their favourite speaker. The same passive crowd has the capability turn into an active crowd and the change their behaviour completely.

Active Crowd or Mob: Gathering of people for a musical concert is passive crowd but within seconds the nature of the crowd can change into an active one. The event that starts as passive gathering can change into mob behaviour when the behaviour of the people changes. They begin to create chaos and confusion by raising their voices and giving emotional reactions. In the same way with proper pacification a mob crowd can be made to become a passive crowd. This depends on the ability of the speaker or the leader. Thus, the changeover in the behaviour of the crowd is always possible and it can shift from passive to active or vice-versa.

Action Crowd: The actions of the crowd or mob help in releasing of the pent up fears or aggressions, there are two types of action crowds, namely mob crowd and panic crowd. Employees attacking the employer would be regarded as mob crowd; there is complete senselessness, violence and aggression and less accountability, a smaller amount social control. The chaos in the crowd during a train accident or terror attack is a panic crowd. Mostly fear is the cause of panic crowd.

Based on the above explanation action crowd may also be classified into other types such as attack, rage and fear. There is no logic in the manner in which the individuals behave in an action crowd. They are not in their senses to realise the social norms and objectives. There is extra shoulder to shoulder physical contact in an action crowd or mob crowd. As compared to passive crowd the backward and forward movements are enhanced. Among passive crowd virtually there is hardly any action, physical activity or forward and backward movement. For instance people gathered to watch a performance by a magician or play.

According to LeBon. Martin, McDougall and Freud crowd behaviour has following characteristics:

- Crowd behaviour is short-lived and temporary
- There is comparatively more shoulder to shoulder contact in a crowd than a group.
- The crowd has a common and basic motive for gathering
- In a crowd there is relatively less interaction among the people present as the focus is on the action.
- Constant backward and forward movement takes place in a crowd
- Replication of actions
- There is immense emotional homogeneity among the people of the crowd
- The activities of all the members are influenced by each other
- Most individuals in a crowd are exhibiting irrational and highly emotional behaviour

- Lack of social responsibility
- False sense of power in the action crowd
- Nobody takes the responsibility of the immoral actions in a crowd

- Leader of the crowd plays and essential role

12.3.2 Theories of Crowd Behaviour

The study of crowd behaviour was initiated with the study of collective behaviour. It became a focus of several psychological studies during the nineteenth century. Initial social psychologists proposed that crowds originated as a result of mass imitations. This also became the basis of Le Bon's theory of 'mob psychology'. The sociologists have displayed that behaviour of individuals in a crowd is not conscious, rational or organised for social good. Through their research they have derived a new term 'collective behaviour' so that mob, riot, panics and craze, rumour, audience, public and social movements, besides crowd can also be included. Most theories have found that emotional reactions are the basis of crowd behaviour. The attention of the crowd enhances the tone of emotions and excites the individual to act in a certain manner.

Five important theories of crowd behaviour are as follows:

(i) Le Bon's Theory

Le Bon was among the initial scholars to put forward the concept of crowd behaviour. He felt that individuals behave in an unrestrained manner when in a crowd and they are no longer mindful of their actions. He behaves in a manner that is not usual for him, as if on an automatic mode and has no thoughts of his own. He has the impulsiveness, the ferocity, the viciousness clubbed with the fervour and fearlessness of primitive creatures. In the process of describing crowd behaviour, Le Bon introduced the significant concept of 'group mind'. The actions of the individuals are guided by the group mind and for this reason he behaves in such a manner and would not behave otherwise. Here group mind are not the thoughts of the group members, it is distinctive and works at a completely new level, the find functions on the basis of sentiments, appeals, suggestions and slogans. The acts are mostly emotional and not rational at all. The mind is merely focusing on present objective and not taking any responsibility later. The level of the mind is very low and gets influenced easily.

(ii) Theory of McDougall

The thoughts of Psychologist William McDougall were quite similar to Le Bon's theory. According to him there were two chief factors leading to crowd behaviour, firstly the heightening of the emotional levels in the crowd lowered the level of intellect of the individual. This happens since the emotions triggered a sympathetically emotional response in the individual, in such cases the individual is bound to lose his sense of reasoning and gets swayed into the emotional blackmail. Secondly the

emotions further heightened due to common interactions. The heightened emotions and inability to oppose the leader of the crowd further lowered the rationality among the individuals in the crowd

(iii) Theory of Sigmund Freud

Heightening of emotions as per the theory given by McDougall was not accepted by several scholars. In his essay, Group Psychology and Analysis of Ego, Sigmund Freud remarked, *'There is no doubt that something exist in us which, when we become aware of signs of emotion; ... how often do we not successfully oppose it, resist the emotion and react in quite an opposite way? Why, therefore, do we invariably give way to this contagion when we are in group?'* Freud outlined the indirect impulses of individuals. According to him emotional ties helped in keeping the members of the group together. He also regarded affectionate relationships as the principal phenomenon of group psychology. E. D. Martin used the approach of psychological analysis given by Freud and explained behaviour of individual in a crowd as avenue for releasing the suppressed determinations.

The crowd helped in relaxing the kerbs of a superego and activated the ego-impulses of a primitive being. The individual let goes the internal censor and gives in to his instinctive impulses. Therefore crowd allows a temporary release for the pent up drives. The theory given by Freud is often criticised for lacking a clear explanation of the character of crowd behaviour.

(iv) Allport's Theory

F. H. Allport thoroughly condemned the theory given by McDougall as the basis for crowd behaviour. According to Allport there are two basic principles for crowd behaviour. The first is the principle of social facilitation, individuals react to a common stimulus and seeing the level of response in the others heightens the level in the individual as well. Inter-stimulation is the second principle of collective behaviour.

(v) Theory of Ralf Turner

Sociologist Ralf Turner found the above approaches reasonably inadequate in their reasoning of crowd behaviour as a result he developed an evolving norm perspective. The main component of his perspective was that crowd behaviour is not an outcome of any one single principle. There are multiple factors responsible like obscurity, encouragement, emotionality, suggestibility, instigation, contagion, absence of volition, power of unconscious impulses, etc., for specific behaviour of individuals in a crowd. His theory of crowd behaviour was a shift from the earlier concepts; these regarded the individual being swayed by the crowd and mislaying their rationality in the emotionally charged set up. Turner tries to use the concepts of social group behaviour to explain crowd behaviour.

12.3.3 Forms of Collective Behaviour (Rumours and Mass Hysteria, Fads and Crazes)

In addition to crowd, mob, audience there are five more types of collective behaviour, these are: riots, panics and crazes, rumours, Fads and Fashion and lastly mass hysteria. People need not be within close distance with each other in these forms, they are usually spread out.

Riots: Sudden upsurge of collective violence at the command of an authority or event may be referred to as a riot. It is mob of a very violent and aggressive nature. Riots can be triggered due to major or trivial factors.

Panics and crazes: Disorder to an accident can be referred to panic. Panic is caused as a result of fear. Smelser has defined panic as, 'A *panic is a collective flight based on hysterical belief ... in order to preserve life, property, or power from threat.'* He has supported his definition with examples of situations when people feel panic and lose their sense of reasoning and act in a disorderly manner, this happens in case the ship is sinking, fire in a building, panic behaviour is also witnessed when the stock market crashes. Panic can take place in any crowd at any time. Panic results in situation of mass hysteria and an animal-like flight. People absently start running away from the element of fear. In divergence to panic, in craze people run towards the object causing the craze, it is similar to an obsession of an object or person. Craze unlike panic is long lasting. For instance people in their craze to lose weight go to extreme lengths.

Rumours: Information about an object or an individual that has been spread by others is a rumour and it is not necessary that it is the truth. Horton and Hunt have defined rumour as, *'A rumour is rapidly spread report unsubstantiated by authenticated fact.'* Gossiping and informal conversation helps in spreading rumours. Distortion of facts gets converted into rumours. Rumours sometimes have serious repercussions and lead to disruption of social order. While explaining the function of rumour, Lang and Lang remarked that it *'is an attempt to bring the orientations of others sufficiently in line with one's own to make collective activity possible'.*

Fads and Fashions: These are two kinds of crowd behaviour often happily pursued by individuals. The regular alterations in behavioural patterns of individuals are referred to as fashion. They last for an unspecified times but while they prevail they attract the attention of several people. Most daily routine things and objects can be listed in this category including clothes, food, hairstyles, shoes, home décor etc.

Fads are generally insignificant, short-term variations in language, adornment or forms of behaviour or activities concerning several people, while fashions, even though corresponding to fads, change slowly, are not as insignificant.

Lofland definition states, *'fashions are pleasurable mass involvement that feature a certain amount of acceptance by society and have a line of*

historical continuity'. Fads are mostly harmless and do not carry much social impact. People like to follow the style of a known personality and that becomes the fashion. When people change their hair-style or style of dressing after being influenced by the appearance of their favourite star in a movie, it may be referred to as a fad and soon wears off once they get fascinated by something else.

Mass Hysteria: Very similar to panic as it kind of a collective behaviour that spreads easily. Emotional fear causes mass hysteria. Both panic and mass hysteria can occur simultaneously in order to get away from the professed danger. There need not be any rationality behind its cause.

12.3.4 Social Movements

A form of group action may be defined as a social movement. Davita Silfen Glasberg, and Deric. Shannon in their book Political sociology: oppression, resistance, and the state have defined social movement in following manner*, 'organizational structures and strategies that may empower oppressed populations to mount effective challenges and resist the more powerful and advantaged elites'.* Social movements are big formal or informal groups of individuals or organizations that have come together in order to focus on particular political or social matters. In way these movements help in carrying out, resisting or undoing a social change. They help in initiating social changes in the countries.

Factors Responsible for Social Movements

- Social movements widely spread in different parts of the world during the nineteenth century due to education and improved movement of labour as a result of industrial advancement and urbanization of the societies. Freedom of expression and economic development further increased the scope of social movements in the western world.

- Another factor responsible for several social movements in the last century is the opposition towards the western colonialism, like the Kenyan, Mau Mau.

- Rise of democratic political systems is another factor contributing to their increase in different parts of the world.

In the last two centuries they have become a popular method for expressing global dissatisfaction. In present times it is very easy to mobilise people in different parts of the world with the help of technology and the internet. The movements have very well incorporated the modern means of communication. The social media is effectively used in order to facilitate collective action. Buettner & Buettner have analysed the part of Twitter in the course of several social movements and there was a long lists that included movements like 2007 WikiLeaks, 2009 Moldova, 2009 Austria student protest, 2009 Israel-Gaza, 2009 Iran green revolution, 2009 Toronto G20, 2010 Venezuela, 2010 Germany Stuttgart21, 2011 Egypt, 2011 England, 2011 US Occupy movement, 2011 Spain Indignados, 2011 Wisconsin labour protest, etc.

Many theories and researches on the concept of social movement have been carried out in the field of Political science and sociology. The results of studies in political science highlighted the establishment of new political parties as a result of some of the popular social movements. The studies also discussed the role played by social movements in setting the agenda and their impact on the political order.

The definition of social movement lacks unanimity however Mario Diani contended that all descriptions given by various scholars had three common components, these can be regarded as the characteristics of social movement.

- All are a set-up based on informal interactions between a variety of individuals, groups and/or organizations,
- All are involved in a political or cultural conflict,
- The basis of all movements is to establish a shared collective identity

Sociologist Charles Tilly has defined social movements as a succession of antagonistic performances, displays and campaigns through which common man makes collective claims on others. Social movements according to Tilly are a main means of participating in public politics for common man. Sidney Tarrow defined a social movement as *'collective challenges [to elites, authorities, other groups or cultural codes] by people with common purposes and solidarity in sustained interactions with elites, opponents and authorities.'* He stressed that social movements were different from political parties and support groups.

The sociologists John McCarthy and Mayer Zald defined social movement as *'a set of opinions and beliefs in a population which represents preferences for changing some elements of the social structure and/or reward distribution of a society.'*

According to Paul van Seeters and Paul James listed the conditions required for the formation of social movement:

- Need for a sort of collective identity;
- Establishment of a common normative orientation;
- Sharing the concern for change of the status quo and
- Need for practical action for bringing about the change.

On the basis of the above definitions, social movement may referred to a kind of association among people, political in nature, having a common goals and will be required to stay associated till these goals are achieved and social change takes place.

Check Your Progress

3. What is mob behaviour?

4. Who introduced the significant concept of 'group mind'?

12.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Collective behaviour refers to the spontaneous and unstructured behaviour of a group of people in response to the same event, situation, or problem, like this crowd of people, for example.

2. Mass society is any society of the modern era that possesses a mass culture and large-scale, impersonal, social institutions.

3. When the responses of the large crowd of people become disorderly and have intention of creating disorder it may be referred to as mob behaviour.

4. Le Bon introduced the significant concept of 'group mind'.

12.5 SUMMARY

- Collective behaviour refers to the spontaneous and unstructured behaviour of a group of people in response to the same event, situation, or problem, like this crowd of people, for example.

- The concept of mass society helps in characterising the modern society as standardised but at the same time disaggregated.

- Audience is a form of collective behaviour that has a close relation with crowd. The audience is actually an arrangement of institutionalized crowd.

- Principally an audience has a specific type of structure. The place where it gathers has a distinctive physical feature.

- A collection of individuals is referred to as a crowd. The formation of crowd takes place when people gather for a common objective and they gather in order to support the objective and sometimes exhibit strong emotional response.

- Gathering of people for a musical concert is passive crowd but within seconds the nature of the crowd can change into an active one. The event that starts as passive gathering can change into mob behaviour when the behaviour of the people changes.

- Le Bon was among the initial scholars to put forward the concept of crowd behaviour. He felt that individuals behave in an unrestrained manner when in a crowd and they are no longer mindful of their actions.

- The thoughts of Psychologist William McDougall were quite similar to Le Bon's theory. According to him there were two chief factors leading to crowd behaviour, firstly the heightening of the emotional levels in the crowd lowered the level of intellect of the individual.

- Freud outlined the indirect impulses of individuals. According to him emotional ties helped in keeping the members of the group together.

- Sociologist Ralf Turner found the above approaches reasonably inadequate in their reasoning of crowd behaviour as a result he developed an evolving norm perspective.

- The main component of his perspective was that crowd behaviour is not an outcome of any one single principle.

- A form of group action may be defined as a social movement.

12.6 KEY WORDS

- **Rational Recreation:** Rational recreation was the ideal that nineteenth-century middle-class reformers hoped to impose on the urban working class of their day. They believed that 'leisure activities should be controlled, ordered, and improving' (Cunningham, p. 90), qualities not typically found in the free-time behaviour of labouring men.

- **Audience:** Audience is a form of collective behaviour that has a close relation with crowd. The audience is actually an arrangement of institutionalized crowd.

- **Crowd:** A collection of individuals is referred to as a crowd.

- **Riot:** Riot is a violent disturbance of the peace by a crowd.

- **Mass Hysteria:** Mass hysteria is a condition in which a large group of people exhibit similar physical or emotional symptoms, such as anxiety or extreme excitement.

12.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. What are the various psychological features of the audience?
2. Mention the various kinds of mobs.
3. Differentiate between passive crowd and active crowd.
4. Identify the forms of collective behaviour.
5. What are the factors responsible for social movements?

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the concept of mass society.
2. Describe the physical structure of the audience.

3. Discuss the various characteristics of crowd behaviour.

4. Analyse the five important theories of crowd behaviour.

12.8 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 13 SOCIAL CHANGE

Structure

13.0 INTRODUCTION

Change refers to observation of variation over a period of time. Any alteration in the existing pattern or norm we call it a change and in case there is a change in aspects concerning the social structure then they are referred to as social change. For Fictor 'Change means variations from previous state or mode of existence'. The phenomena of change is a universal one, it is natural for changes to take place in the nature. Society is an integral part of the nature thus like all its components society will also undergo change. Change is essential for the development of the society. There are many factors responsible for changes in the society. The society will undergo a change whenever there is a variation in its political, religious or economic systems, the changes in science and technology will also result in social changes. The speed of the social change is also dependent on the speed at which changes take place in these areas. For this reason it has been observed that social changes in few societies are faster and frequent than they are at some other place. The speed of social change is closely related to the extent of industrialisation and urbanization. Changes in any field will affect the society. Individual is a primary component of the society. The changes in the life of the individual also form the part of social change. Social change is a gradual process.

13.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the concept of social change
- Describe the psychological nature of social change

- Discuss the various barriers to social change
- Explain the relationship between values and norms
- Identify the various problems of motivation

13.2 DEFINITION OF SOCIAL CHANGE

Let us look at some of the definition of social change by different social psychologist.

Ginsberg- '*By social change I understand a change in the social structure*'.

Kingsley Doris- '*By social change is meant only such alternations as occur in social organization i.e. the structure & functions of society*'.

Merril& Elbridge '*Social change means, that large no. of persons are engaging in activities that differ from those which they or their immediate fore-fathers engaged in some time before.*'

Gillin&Gillin '*Social changes are variations from the accepted mode of life, whether due to alteration in geographical condition, in cultural equipment, composition of the population. Or ideologies & whether brought about by diffusion or inventions within the group.*'

Jones' '*Social change is a term used to describe variations in or modification of any aspect of social process, social patterns, social interaction or social organization.*'

M.D.Jenson has defined social change as '*modification in ways of doing & thinking of people.*'

13.2.1 Psychological Basis for Social Change

Changes in the pattern of people's life can be denoted as social change. It is not merely focused on changes in the society. The changes in the field of art, science, literature, philosophy are also affecting social change though they are not included in factors bringing about change as they are also instrumental in development of social relationships.

Social processes, social patterns and social interactions are all parts of social relationships. Therefore, a social change will represent all changes in these aspects as well. It involves both institutional and normative changes in the structure of society.

Psychological Nature of Social Change

- Social change is universal and essential process. It is a part of all societies.
- The changes in society affect the entire community for this reason they are referred as social change. Individuals are an integral part of the society thus the change has an impact on their interpersonal relations and interactions.

- Social change is inevitable in all societies however the speed of the change is different in every social set up. The change may not take place in all aspects of the society. Changes in rural areas are much slower than in urban areas and similarly developed societies experience changes more frequently than developing or underdeveloped societies.

- The period in which the change takes place has a direct impact on the nature and speed of the change. The changes that took place prior to independence were not only slower but were majorly political in nature there was not much industrial advancement in India during British rule, this was not the case after India became independent. There changes in the economic sector as well as political set up and they were much faster.

- Change is desired by all Individuals as the new-ness in life makes it exciting. Some changes are natural and do not have to be instigated but some have to be planned and require efforts. Most people welcome change as it helps in satisfying their needs for a better life. The desire for change is clear from the statement by Green, *'the enthusiastic response of change has become almost a way of life.'*

- The nature and extent of change cannot be predicted. Change is inevitable but the form in which it occurs is not certain and even the extent of the change is not fixed, there may be a change in one aspect of the society but it is bound to have an impact on other aspects as well. For example the growth in industries will develop the economy and lead to urbanisation however till what extent these will change is not easy to predict and also the changes that will take place in the social relations as a result of them.

- The sequence of chain-reaction is visible in social change. As stated in above points that change in one aspect will definitely have an impact on the others. Society is made up of dynamic system of interconnected associations; change in any one association will affect the entire system.

- Changes in the society are not dependent on any one factor, a single factor will only trigger the change but final result will be an outcome due to interaction of several factors. The monistic theory of social change is not applicable in most situations. All factors are jointly dependent on each other for the phenomena to take place. No isolated factor can be responsible for the social change or the changes can be limited to an isolated area.

- Changes in the society result in alternation or replacement of an existing form. The basic nature remains the same. There alterations of social relationships. The old totalitarian family has been replaced by a nuclear equalitarian family, schools still perform the task of imparting knowledge but the infrastructure and the manner has changed. People's views about women liberties, religion, role of government, etc. have all undergone a change. Change is also when old is replaced by new, for instance the old

means of commuting have been replaced by modern and faster means, the famer has replaced his ploughing bullocks with a tractor. Dictatorship has been replaced by democracy.

- Changes take place in three directions; linear changes, result in progress; upward and downward changes, mostly refer to economic changes; cyclical changes, mostly changes in fashion but according to Karl Marx they could be in economic structure as well.

13.2.2 Barriers to Social Change

Powers encouraging social change are stronger than the ones hindering them. With time change is bound to take place. People often do not welcome change and try their best to stop them from taking place. The speed at which change takes place varies in every society, countries lacking resources, such as land, labour, oil, and infrastructure would experience change at a slower pace as compared to those having rich resources. In the same way individuals do not want to spend time and energy to adjust to changes hence they will try to bring about changes in their life. These intentional or unintentional obstacles act as barriers for changes to occur in the society. In the name of tradition all institutes of the society along with its people create barriers in changes to take place.

The following are few of the common barriers to social change:

- **Lack of innovation and improvement:** Inventions help individuals to device new ways of adjusting to their natural and social surroundings. The cultural development of man is dependent on inventions. Humans have evolved from primitiveness to modernisation with the help of several inventions. In their absence the society will become stagnant and if they are at a very slow pace then it will remain backward while the other societies will continue to grow. This pace has led to the disparities among the countries of the west and east. The slow rate of social change will have a direct impact on the personal life of the individuals.

- **Barriers in form of cultural norms:** In the name of preserving traditions people obstruct changes to take place. They are unable to realise the social change does not mean ending the traditions. People have to be made to realise the importance of change in the society.

- **Social barriers:** The conservative mind-set of people and social institutions prevent from changes to take place. The strength of democracy is not fully explored in a country like India due to the prevailing inequalities in the society.

- **Political system acts like a barrier:** The nature of government essentially determines the speed of social changes. Systems that are based on feudalism and aristocracy are sure to act as barriers to change. The policies made by the government should be effective in bringing the required reforms only then the social system will change.

- **Economic barriers:** Prevalence of unemployment and poverty are strong barriers for change. The inequalities and disparity in status of people resist the changes; the rich are not interested to end the gap between themselves and the weaker sections of the society with the fear of losing their authority.

- **The psychological barriers:** People perceive change as destructive and try to rebel against them. Their perception of the people has to change first then they will be mentally ready to make efforts to bring changes and accept them willingly. Lack of communication and adequate education are another major cause for wrong perceptions about change.

Check Your Progress

1. Mention any two common barriers to social change.

2. What are the three parts of social relationships?

13.3 ATTITUDE TOWARDS INNOVATION

Innovation refers to creating new methods of accomplishing tasks. Innovations help in advancement of the economic system of the society, as the new methods help in saving time and money for the businesses. They provide a competitive edge to the business in the market. Changes in can take place with innovations. The culture of the society will change when there are innovations. Innovations are defined as any thought, behaviour, or thing is different due to its qualitative difference from the prevailing form. It is the expansion or recognition of new elements or patterns in a culture. Both discovery and invention are part of innovation. The complete knowledge of prevailing culture is essential for innovations to take place as it requires fresh interpretation or new arrangement of old culture characters or facilities, or collection of components from old outlines so that fresh outlines can be created. It is inspired by the reconsideration of knowledge with the help of cultural contact, for instance. Innovation on its own is stimulated with additional innovation. Therefore, innovations do not always intend to do away with existing relations as it focuses on rearranging the interrelationships of its components and aim is not the upturn or reduce these components.

In every society there are forces encouraging as well as discouraging innovations as they lead to change. The ones preventing the change are constantly struggling for preserving the status quo. Since change is essential and inevitable for all cultures, the forces encouraging changes always at some point take over the discouraging forces. The acceptance of change takes place gradually and various levels. The different levels of acceptance have been recognised by Lionberger as following:

- **Wakefulness of the innovation:** Initially innovations are acknowledged by very few people, these are mostly the elite class and then they spread it to other levels.

- **Attentiveness in the innovation:** After becoming aware about an innovation, interest in it is generated and people want to learn more regarding its affect.

- **Investigation with the innovation:** Generation of interest results in examining the innovation more closely so that their effectiveness can be experimented.

- **Application of the innovation:** When the experiments are effective people want apply the innovation in their daily routine. The application of innovation helps in spreading the innovation to others as well.

The Order of Acceptance of the innovation by the individuals

The application increases the awareness and more and more people want to adapt the innovation as a result slowly it becomes a social norm for people. The acceptance also passes through stages as initially it is adopted only by the innovators as they are the only ones who are fully aware of its implications and are ready to risk it. Then it is accepted by those who are closest to the innovators and are fully aware about the benefits, they are called early adopters. From them the innovation is adopted by the early majority adopters, who are by now assured about its practice. Then are the late majority adopters, as the awareness spreads people who had initially resisted also realise the benefits of innovation. There are still some sections that are yet to adopt the innovation; these are the laggards or non-adopters. They are living in isolation and are negatively motivated so are extremely reluctant to accept the practice. The older people fall in this category.

The Order of Social Change in an Institution

- **Technological Changes:** People understand the importance of a new object faster than understanding the importance of a new idea. The physical presence of the object makes them realise its utility and need. The appeal is much more than an abstract idea. The new idea is always considered as a threat for the existing values of the social system.

- **Economic institutions apply the technological changes:** The manufactures and the producers will be the first ones to adopt the technological changes therefore they will be the first ones to realise the impact of the change.

- **The effect of changes in other social institutions:** After the changes will be adapted the producers will be able to produce new objects and supply in the market. The new product may disrupt the system of other institutions.

- **Impact on the existing social values:** The technological change will also bring a change in the deep-rooted social values of the social system. The hardest things to change in the society are the traditions and the customs of

the people as these have been a part of their culture since generations. Most consider a change in values as a sign of social destruction and they try to rebel against them. The attitudes of people are the toughest to change.

13.3.1 Relationship between Values and Norms

The terms value and norms are often interchanged in their usage by common people. They have completely different connotations for the scientist in the field of social psychology and are used as per their specific meanings. Social norms are provided in the society for the individuals as standards, rules, directions and expectancies. They help in people to behave as per the set standards in the society and in all their interpersonal relations and interactions. In comparison, values are abstract notions of what right and wrong, imperative and sensible. Being honest is a common value; cheating in the examination is going against the established norms.

General guidelines of the society are its values whereas the specific guidelines are norms and every individual has to abide by them. Norms help people to behave in social situations. The values of the society are confirmed with the help of norms. If values are regarded as ends and the means to achieve these ends are in shape of norms. There are instances when the social values are contradictory to the social norms. When changes take place in a particular aspect of economic culture, for example industrialisation, it is sure to have a conflict with a connected non-economic culture, with industrial growth there is growth in job opportunities, individuals due to their jobs move away from their family, this breaks the system of joint family and living together and leads to the formation of nuclear family and also a cause of conflict.

In spite of their differences the two are closely related to each other. For instance the institution of marriage is of deep value in every society and in order to maintain its sanity severe norms have been issued for the prevention of adultery. In case private property is of great value in a society then norms will automatically be established for protecting the property against theft and harm. The values that are extremely cherished by the society would be protected with strict norms and other not so important might have lenient rules.

13.3.2 Problems of Motivation

Process that starts, directs, and maintains goal-oriented behaviours may be defined as motivation; it incites people to act in order to achieve their objective. The objective of scoring good grades will make the student to study hard for the exams. The forces activating behaviour among human beings are referred to as motivation; the source of the forces could be related to biological, emotional, social or intellectual factors. In simple words motivation could be the will of an individual to perform activities. According to Jeffry Nevid, *'the term motivation refers to factors that activate, direct, and sustain goal-directed behavior... Motives are the 'whys' of behavior—the needs or wants that drive behavior and explain what we do. We don't actually observe a motive; rather, we infer that one exists*

based on the behavior we observe.' Three main components to motivation are stimulation, persistence, and strength.

Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation

There are two sources of motivation, when the individual is motivated by external factors such as reward, incentive, wealth, social praise and recognition; it is referred to as extrinsic motivation. When the individual is self-motivated the source is referred to as intrinsic motivation. The person might spend hours solving a riddle in order to get self-satisfaction. The two are very closely related as the external factors will trigger the individual to work towards his goals but the mental and the physical efforts required would require him to be self-motivated. In the absence of either the person is going to give up. There are many factors posing a problem for the person to remain motivated.

Challenges due to Cross-Cultures

Most of the researches on the subject have been carried out in the western countries like America and for this reason the factors of motivation are as per the Americans or other developed societies. For instance the Maslow's need of hierarchy supports the cultural set up of America. The theory cannot be applicable in most countries. In the same way the motives of achievements of various theories are favourable for American mentality and they are completely non-applicable to people in countries like Portugal or Chile. Even the Equity theory has been known to be partial to American culture. There is need for the managers of companies to understand the local culture. The needs and behaviours of people are largely based on the nature of their culture.

Encouraging Specific Groups of Workzers

An organisation has a diversity of workers as skills required for various jobs are different. All workers not only have different skills but there is a difference in their nature, attitude, way of working and requirements and their expectations are also not same. Both men and women have different requirements. There are people working from home or part-time. There are specific groups, such as professionals, temporary workers and low-skilled workers. The way of motivating all these has to be different, as the professional is more loyal to the profession than to the organisation, they cannot be motivated with financial rewards much as they are mostly well-paid. The ad hoc or temporary workers completely lack loyalty as they do not belong to the organisation; they get well motivated with money-factor. However among them are some who are financially stable and only working for passing time and are more motivated with prestige than money. Part-time workers working in an office along with regular employees of the organisation are always comparing their perks with the permanent employees and thus do not work with full sincerity. The low-skilled workers cannot be motivated with extra money as it will disrupt the hierarchy in the organisation. All the categories of employees are motivated by their managers and they have to figure out the best way for each category.

Motivation is driven by Goals

It involves the longing to attain the goals along with the energy needed for working towards the goals. When people do things of their interest then they do not have to motivate themselves as there already a will to do so. But there are other occasions when one has to be motivated to do the simplest of the daily routine tasks as well. There are number of factors that cause a problem in motivation for students, some of these are as follows:

- A student may face this issue with a constant drop in the grades
- Lagging behind in a project
- Priority is given is to many things at one time
- Feeling lonely
- Finding the task in hand difficult
- Lack of guidance
- Clash of personality with peers
- Lack of adequate resources

People in an organisation face the problem of motivation due to following factors

- Compensation is not adequate
- Bad working conditions
- No scope for promotion
- Stagnation
- Lack of appreciation and recognition

Problems of motivation in a social system stems from many factors. Individuals in the society feel unmotivated when they have fear of failure, have low self-esteem and confidence, when they are anxious or stressed. Lack of social change in the society is another cause for low motivation. Being motivated all the time helps in solving the problem of motivation as it gives reason to take action. Action is essential for accomplishing smallest of the task in life. Man needs to continuously grow and advance for achieving better things in life. Stagnation will cause imbalance in the society as well as the human mind. Social change helps in progress as well as keeping the people of society motivated.

Check Your Progress

3. What are social norms?
4. Define the term 'value'.
5. What are the three main components to motivation?

13.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The two common barriers to social change are as follows:
   - Lack of innovation and improvement
   - Social barriers

2. Social processes, social patterns and social interactions are all parts of social relationships.

3. Social norms are provided in the society for the individuals as standards, rules, directions and expectancies. They help in people to behave as per the set standards in the society and in all their interpersonal relations and interactions.

4. Values are abstract notions of what right and wrong, imperative and sensible.

5. Three main components to motivation are stimulation, persistence, and strength.

13.5 SUMMARY

- Change refers to observation of variation over a period of time.

- Any alteration in the existing pattern or norm we call it a change and in case there is a change in aspects concerning the social structure then they are referred to as social change.

- The society will undergo a change whenever there is a variation in its political, religious or economic systems, the changes in science and technology will also result in social changes.

- Changes in the pattern of people's life can be denoted as social change. It is not merely focused on changes in the society.

- Social processes, social patterns and social interactions are all parts of social relationships.

- Social change is inevitable in all societies however the speed of the change is different in every social set up.

- Change is desired by all Individuals as the new-ness in life makes it exciting. Some changes are natural and do not have to be instigated but some have to be planned and require efforts.

- Changes in the society are not dependent on any one factor, a single factor will only trigger the change but final result will be an outcome due to interaction of several factors.

- Changes in the society result in alternation or replacement of an existing form. The basic nature remains the same.

- In the name of tradition all institutes of the society along with its people create barriers in changes to take place.

- The conservative mind-set of people and social institutions prevent from changes to take place.

- The nature of government essentially determines the speed of social changes. Systems that are based on feudalism and aristocracy are sure to act as barriers to change.

- Innovation refers to creating new methods of accomplishing tasks. Innovations help in advancement of the economic system of the society, as the new methods help in saving time and money for the businesses.

- In every society there are forces encouraging as well as discouraging innovations as they lead to change.

- The terms value and norms are often interchanged in their usage by common people. They have completely different connotations for the scientist in the field of social psychology and are used as per their specific meanings.

- Process that starts, directs, and maintains goal-oriented behaviours may be defined as motivation; it incites people to act in order to achieve their objective.

- Problems of motivation in a social system stems from many factors. Individuals in the society feel unmotivated when they have fear of failure, have low self-esteem and confidence, when they are anxious or stressed. Lack of social change in the society is another cause for low motivation.

- Social change helps in progress as well as keeping the people of society motivated.

13.6 KEY WORDS

- **Aristocracy:** Aristocracy is a form of government that places strength in the hands of a small, privileged ruling class.

- **Innovations:** Innovations are defined as any thought, behaviour, or thing is different due to its qualitative difference from the prevailing form. It is the expansion or recognition of new elements or patterns in a culture.

- **Motivation:** Process that starts, directs, and maintains goal-oriented behaviours may be defined as motivation; it incites people to act in order to achieve their objective.

13.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. Why is change essential for the development of the society?
2. What is the relationship between values and norms?
3. Identify the various problems of motivation.
4. Distinguish between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the concept of social change.
2. Describe the psychological nature of a social change.
3. Discuss the various barriers to social change.
4. What are the main causes of social change? Is social change needed?

13.8 FURTHER READINGS

Baron, R.A. and D. Byrne. 1999. *Social Psychology: Understanding Human Interaction*. New Delhi: Prentice Hall of India.

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UNIT 14 SOCIAL CONFLICTS AND RESOLUTION

Structure

14.0 INTRODUCTION

Social conflict develops when the desires, views, or values of a particular individual or group are upset by other individual or group. It can emerge among parents and their off-springs, between peers, colleagues at office, neighbours or sports teams. They are an integral part of every relationship and social interaction. Social conflicts are not limited to any specific region or country. As their presence is inevitable there have to be means to resolve them. This unit will discuss social conflicts and resolution in detail.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Define the concept of social conflicts and resolution
- Identify the types of conflict
- List various problems in Indian society leading to conflicts
- Discuss the Gandhian techniques of conflict resolution
- Understand the meaning of national integration
- Describe the role of social learning

14.2 SOCIAL CONFLICTS AND RESOLUTION: AN OVERVIEW

The process aimed at resolving the conflict between the disputed parties peacefully is referred to as conflict resolution. The conflict resolution may take diverse forms:

- There could be negotiations between the parties attempted to solve the problem satisfying them both equally.

- The conflicting parties could pull out from the state of affairs and evade interaction

- They may continue to fight and use their strength on the opposition

- One of them could surrender and yield to the terms of the other.

Resolving a conflict is very essential. Presence of a conflict can be harmful as well advantageous. Though the harms definitely outnumber the benefits. Continued conflict in a family could hamper the development of the children, lot of time and energy would be wasted in case it goes unresolved at place of work, and the economic development of the country is affected due to the ongoing ethnic conflicts. The few benefits of conflicts can be in form of innovations and inventions. Conflicts can lead to expansion of territorial boundaries. It can improve relations and develop better understanding when confrontations take place. However, conflicts have benefits only when their severity is relatively low and they are managed with utmost care. In most cases they are known to get out of hand very fast and mild conflicts become major issues. Therefore, it is very essential to understand the significance of conflict resolution and its application.

14.2.1 Tensions and Conflicts

Conflicts are an outcome of a tensed situation between two parties. They are a part and parcel of all human relations. A.W. Green has defined conflicts, *'as the deliberate attempt to oppose, resist or coerce the will of another or others'*. The definition of Gillin and Gillin states, *'Conflict is the social process in which individuals or groups seek their ends by directly challenging the antagonist by violence or threat of violence.'*

It is a process of hindering cooperation. When actions of an individual would interfere with the plans of another individual it would lead to tension between them and in case the tension persists it would become a conflict. Conflict situations arise when there is presence of competition. In some ways conflict is form of a personal and hostile competition. It may be regarded as a process attempting to gaining recompenses by eradicating or wearying the competitors. With the help of conflict people or groups try to dominate over each other. Conflict may not always resort to violent means. It can take place without violence as well. Gandhi fought British with the help of non-violent means such as civil disobedience and Satyagraha.

Conflict, for Mazumdar is a form of antagonism or fight that involves two aspects, first is of an emotive elevation of aggression and second is violent intervention without the permission of the others.

Characteristics of Conflict

- The aim of conflict is to oppose and it is an attentive action.
- It is at a personal level.
- There is no continuity in conflict.
- Conflicts occur in all relations and take place in every part of the world.

Causes of Conflict

As stated above, conflicts are universal. All societies have conflicts of some or the other nature. Malthus associated their cause to condensed supply of essentials of survival. Darwin felt that they were caused due to the principles of struggle for existence and survival of the fittest.

Most psychologists along with Freud believed that aggressive behaviour is inborn trait among all human beings and this aggressive behaviour is the chief cause of conflict between them. Conflict basically takes place when there are clashes of interests in groups and societies and among various groups of the society. The changing moral norms of a society and their impact on the needs, hopes, and discontents of the man become a cause for conflicts.

Parents have always expected that their children should obey them however there is considerable amount of conflict between children and parents in modern societies as children are not able to stand up to the expectation of their parents. The moral norms that children should obey their parents have persisted in our country since times immemorial but now the younger generation wants to go its own way. The scope of moral norms is very vast and both parties involved in the conflict are able to defend their individual demands claiming the same norm. On the basis of above statements the causes of conflicts may be listed as following:

- All individuals in the society have diverse nature, attitudes and temperaments, their interest and aims in life are also dissimilar.
- Conflicts take place due to the cultural and religious differences between groups. Religion has continued to a cause of major conflicts not only in India but in several other parts of the world.
- The differences in the personal interest of people often lead to conflicts between them.
- Lack of consistent social change is another essential cause of conflict. Social imbalance causes the conflict in the society.

Types of Conflict

According to Simmel there are four types of conflict, namely,

- War
- Dispute or fictitious discord
- Litigation
- Conflict of anonymous standards

According to Gillin and Gillin there are five types of conflict, namely:

- Personal conflict
- Conflicts based on racial differences
- Class differences
- Conflicts in politics
- Conflict in international relations

Transformation of Tension into a Conflict

Conflict is commonly defined as latent or overt. In several cases, before a conflict takes the shape of an action of hostility it stays in its latent form. Social tension and discontent are the latent forms of conflict. The tension changes into an overt conflict when no measures are taken to reduce or remove the tension. The conflict can remain in its latent form for a long period as seen between India and its neighbour China. The two countries have been having tensed relations since many years and if no action is taken to reduce the tension then there could be another war between the two nations. Tensions should be resolved timely so that they do not take shape of a conflict.

Role of Conflict

According to H. T. Majumdar conflicts sometimes plays positive role, he has listed them as:

- Conflict helps in strengthening the morale and unity with in a group.
- Leads to progress and enlargement of the victorious group in a conflict
- Helps in redefining the value systems of society
- Leads to social change
- Helps in developing peaceful measures of ending the conflicts
- Alters the status of both the parties involved
- Helps in realising the weaknesses of the group
- Redefines the unity of the groups

According the Horton and Hunt conflicts have positives and negatives, the positives are as follows:

- Highlights the problems

- Helps in resolving the tensions
- Formation of new alliances
- Attention is drawn to the interest of the members

The negative effects are as follows:

- Enhances the level of hostility
- Results in loss of life and property
- Increases the tension within the group
- The existing levels of co-operation are disrupted
- The focus is shifted away from the primary goals of the group

Efforts are made in every society for controlling the conflicts but the flip side is that in a way society by itself creates situations of conflict. In every society there are differences based on class and this often becomes a major cause for tension and resentment. When the power is vested in hands of few there is bound to be misuse of power and people at some point are sure to retaliate. The competition soon turns into a conflict. The lack of adequate resources and opportunities increase the competition in the society. Conflicts are inevitable as there is an element of conflict in every situation.

14.2.2 Various Problems in Indian Society Leading to Conflicts

India attained its independence after a vigorous and prolonged colonial rule of the British in 1947. After struggling for several years today it has developed into a self-governing, socialist, secular, democracy with a parliamentary system of government. In spite of achieving so much as in all sectors it still continues to have several problems in its social system that slows down its rate of development and continues to be classified as a developing country. It has been observed by many scholars that all the problems of the society are closely linked with each other. Modern Indian society is marked with several problems that are categorized as social problems. Few of the problems have been prevailing even before the colonial rule of the British and some have been added to the list in more recent times and can be blamed on the changing socio-political order of the world.

A social problem may be defined as a condition that is far from being ideal and cause imbalance in the society. Social problems have been defined by one of the dictionaries of sociology as, *'any undesirable condition or situation that is judged by an influential number of persons within a community to be intolerable and to require group action toward constructive reform'*.

The Indian society is plagued with problems of poverty, population, pollution, illiteracy, bribery, discrimination, sexual discrimination, terrorism, communalism, deficiency of Infrastructure, unemployment, regional prejudice, caste system, drug abuse, violence against women and many such social issues. These problems are cause of several conflicts in the system and prevent the country to develop.

Conflicts in India

As compared to any other country of the world, India has several ethnic and religious groups. India has more than two thousand castes, eight major religions, more than fifteen languages are spoken in the country and some of them have various dialects and it also have a substantial amount of tribal population. The Indian society has been in the clutches of three ethnic conflicts off late. These are conflicts that took place in Assam and Punjab and the third is the ongoing Hindu-Muslim conflict. The problem of Assam is of ethnic nature while the one in Punjab is ethnic as well as regional and the third is based on religion.

14.2.3 Gandhian Techniques of Conflict Resolution

The Gandhian philosophy and technique of conflict resolution was based on non-violent means of resolving conflicts. Gandhi developed Satyagraha for conflict resolution; it implicates accommodating and converting the opponent. There may be presence of elements of passive 'coercion' but in there is definitely going to be a change in the attitude of the opponent. The conversion helps the opponent to change from within; the affect is on the conscience hence there is a tendency to reconcile with the nonaggressive activist, results in ending any persisting feeling of revenge or anger.

Meaning of Satyagraha

Gandhi referred to it as the force of truth or the force of the soul, satya is the Hindi term for truth and Graha means persistence, determination. Two essential elements of Satyagraha are truth and nonaggression; both are inter-connected just as ends are connected with means. The objective here is not to win but is to establish truth. Individual practicing Satyagraha is referred to as Satyagrahi.

Satyagraha, for Gandhi did not refer to passive resistance rather it meant non-violent resistance. The technique of Satyagraha can be used in a number of situations such as for resolving issues within a group, between countries, employee and employer or even in a family dispute. The individual forms the core of Satyagraha. In order to practice Satyagraha an individual needs to train for peaceful resolution of small conflicts at the home front, it is believed that Gandhi also got the training for his own technique from his wife.

Fundamental to Satyagraha

- **Truth:** The word has been derived from Sanskrit word 'sat'. Truth helps in being close to god. The quest for truth is through Satyagraha, it requires publically admitting to ones mistakes. It also implies overlooking the mistakes of the other.

- **Nonviolence (Ahimsa):** Non-violence is the means through which truth has to be established, truth being the end. By take care of the means the end will be ultimately achieved. Violence leads to more violence. There is a close link between violence and hatred. All kinds of violence is wrong, in a

situation of conflict sinner is more harmed by the violence than his wrongdoings. Gandhi strongly believed that violence will never help in reforming the society and for him violence was never an option for him, he was of the belief that only time when he would resort to violence would be when the other option would be lead to coward-ness. Peace is much more appealing than war. War leads to more violence as it results in breeding hostility, resentment and vengeance. War will never result in lasting peace. Gandhi believed that non-violence was just a negative state of inoffensiveness but love was its positive state, it involved wishing well for the sinner. Again this had to be a part of every individual's daily life for it being a part of all actions in the society.

- **Ingenious Self-suffering:** Non-violence would lead to self-suffering as well but Gandhi was not referring to timid submission to the wrongdoer. In order to have an impact on the soul of the tyrant self–suffering is required. In war there is loss of life but this leads to only temporary suffering till the opponent has been transformed.

- **Conviction that all humans are good:** Satyagraha was based on the belief that when people are exposed to good behaviour they are bound to be influenced and change their behaviour as goodness is within every individual.

- **If the methods are positive then the end is also going to be positive:** The concept was strongly based on the means and ends principle and Gandhi himself preached that truth should be the basis of all actions and the result would take care of itself.

- **Bravery:** Gandhi believed that people who carried arms and used them for their protection were the most coward and fearful people. For him a coward was never moral and people who practiced violence were in some way hiding their cowardice. He was not against the use of violence when it was used for defending one-self or in defence of the unprotected. People with a feeling of non-violence do not get offended or humiliated often. In Satyagraha bravery was more to do with mental strength than physical strength.

Prominent Features of Satyagraha

- The basic purpose of practicing Satyagraha was for winning over the enemy with the help of compassion, persistence, and self-suffering.

- The enemy cannot possess the soul of the satyagrahi; he may take away his material possessions.

- It is a moral tool for social action, self-suffering being an integral part of the concept.

- An innocent man's self-sacrifice during a Satyagraha movement is enormously more powerful than the soldiers who die during war.

- Nonviolence is not an undesirable feature.

- Satyagraha and nonviolence are based on the principle that it is important to hate the wrong act not the person doing the act. Non-violence is based on the philosophy of aiming at reconstruction, reshaping, and reforming the nature of the individuals.

- Non-participation is not a form of non-violence

- Satyagraha has a very broad scope and can be used in every sphere of life and all relationships.

- It aims at affecting the conscious of the people, enduring education, upholding the unity of the victims and to develop them as brave soldiers, providing strong organization so that they are prepared for a courageous battle.

Therefore Satyagraha movement aims at educating people and making them conscious of their abuse and empowering them to fight against their wrongdoers. The methods of Satyagraha of Gandhi have a potency to carry out a powerful revolution with non-violent means and promising positive outcomes.

Check Your Progress

1. What is conflict resolution?
2. Mention some characteristics of a conflict.

14.3 NATIONAL INTEGRATION

In order to understand the meaning of National Integration, it is essential that we define and understand few terms very commonly used in this context.

Nation: In strict sense a Nation is defined as a body of people who have a feeling of oneness developed due to shared history, culture, values, norms and ethos. It needs to be understood that a Nation may not have a geographical territory.

State: A State on the other hand can be defined as a body of people inhabiting a geographical region, being governed by an internal government and free of any external controls. It may now be understood that the main difference between a nation and a state is sovereignty of the inhabited geographical area.

Nation-State: It is now a logical progression to understand that a Nation-state is a body of people belonging to a state who share a common history, culture and values.

The consciousness of a shared history, culture and value amongst the citizens of a nation state gives rise to the feeling of belonging leading to integration of the underlying diversities. This process of coming together is National integration. It ensures that citizens belonging to different religions, regions, communities, practicing different customs, speaking different languages, still identify themselves one. The process of National Integration binds together various diversities to unify people.

It promotes feeling of brotherhood, belonging, patriotism, unity and togetherness. It tries to unite people without them losing their individual identities, customs and cultures.

In the words of Dorothy Simpson, National integration refers to *'creating a mental outlook which will promote and inspire every person to place loyalty to the country above group loyalties and the welfare of the country above narrow sectarian interests.'*

14.3.1 Characteristics of a Nation

- **Population:** people are an integral part of every state
- **Territory:** A nation has to define its territorial boundaries so that it can secure its borders from external strength.
- **Government:** The abstract state is personified with the help of its government. The lifeline and autonomy of the state is represented by the government.
- **Sovereignty:** The state has the whole and sole power to execute laws within its territory and no external body can interfere in this process.
- **Acknowledgment:** The state for its continuance has to have internal as well as external recognition.
- **Law:** All states are equipped with a system of laws and these laws are compulsory for all its residents.
- **Stability:** Permanence is an essential feature of the state. All the above features are only possible in the presence of the state.

14.3.2 Barriers to Growth of National Integration

For any country and nation unity in its people is essential. In a diverse country like India it becomes even more necessary that the citizens feel united and connected to each other. Therefore National Integration process becomes very crucial. However, due to the inherent diversity there are many challenges to National Integration. Major of these factors are discussed below:

- **Communalism:** Communalism is defined as the feeling by which a group of people feel more attached to their own ethnic group rather than the larger society. Indian constitution allows all citizens to practice and preach religion of their choice. This plurality has ensured that each religious group feels challenged by the other religious group leading to many communal clashes and riots over the years.
- **Regionalism:** Regionalism is defined as the feeling of loyalty to people inhabiting a geographical area. India being a vast country can be sub divided into geographical areas which are very different from each other in all geographical parameters as weather, vegetation, flora and fauna. Therefore, it is natural that people from one region feel closer to others from the same

region. This feeling of belonging or relating to one small region of the vast country hampers the overall sense of integration.

- **Casteism:** Indian society has been divided on the basis of casts for many years. The feelings of casteism are very deep rooted in the society. Discrimination and prejudices on basis of casts of citizens divides the people into cast based groups posing a big challenge to National Integration.

- **Linguism:** Vastness of India has given rise to many languages in India. Over and above that these languages have many dialects. In fact, India has no National language but 22 official languages. There have been riots and clashes in some states of India when use of Hindi was tried to be enforced. This diversity of spoken languages divides Indian population hampering the process of National integration.

14.3.3 Religion not a Factor

Secularism means the isolation or removal of the governing body from religion. Indian society over many centuries has welcomed all religions and had imbibed them in its folds. India is a secular state and the same is given in the constitution. To understand secularism better, it needs to be studied with reference to the state and that to individual. In a secular state, all religions are equal for the government. The government cannot favour any one religion and should be seen as impartial. On individual level every citizen whilst practicing his or her religion must respect religious beliefs of other citizens. Every citizen can practice and propagate the beliefs of his or her religion without disrespecting other religions.

Secularism in India is derived from the Constitution. Preamble to the constitution, the fundamental rights of citizens and the directive principles together re-assure all citizens of the two aspects of secularism discussed in the paragraph above, i.e. with regard to individual and state. The upfront provisions of the constitution and by far impartial enforcement of these principles has ensured that all religions in India have been co-existing. All major bodies of the government like, Judiciary, armed forces, legislature have been secular and performing all duties with a homogeneous representation of citizens of all religions.

14.3.4 Role of Social Learning

Social learning is the process by which people learn from each other by observing, following imitating and forming role models. It can also be due to imparting instructions. In addition the leaning happens due to reinforced acts like repeated preaching, daily talks, rewards and punishments. The aim of any education system is to teach and build character of the citizens. It is aimed at making the citizens more responsible towards the social causes including nation building. Education towards love for Nation is taught through stressing upon social values and ethics. Education about the shared past difficulties and glories inculcate a sense of pride and patriotism among the young citizens shaping the behaviour of the future generations. In a diverse country like India, teaching about the past glories and

achievements of earlier civilizations of India and the struggle for freedom from British rule inspire a sense of oneness amongst all citizens from all regions, of all casts and religions. This helps in National Integration. According to Dr. Radhakrihsnan education played an essential role in national integration, he remarked *'If India is to remain free, united and democratic education we must educate people for unity and not localism, for democracy and not dictatorship'.*

Check Your Progress

3. What is national integration?
4. Define the term 'regionalism'.

14.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The process aimed at resolving the conflict between the disputed parties peacefully is referred to as conflict resolution.

2. Some characteristics of a conflict are as follows:

 • The aim of conflict is to oppose and it is an attentive action.

 • It is at a personal level.

 • There is no continuity in conflict.

 • Conflicts occur in all relations and take place in every part of the world.

3. The consciousness of a shared history, culture and value amongst the citizens of a nation state gives rise to the feeling of belonging leading to integration of the underlying diversities. This process of coming together is national integration.

4. Regionalism is defined as the feeling of loyalty to people inhabiting a geographical area.

14.5 SUMMARY

• Social conflict develops when the desires, views, or values of a particular individual or group are upset by other individual or group.

• Conflicts are an outcome of a tensed situation between two parties. They are a part and parcel of all human relations.

• Most psychologists along with Freud believed that aggressive behaviour is inborn trait among all human beings and this aggressive behaviour is the chief cause of conflict between them.

- Conflict is commonly defined as latent or overt. In several cases, before a conflict takes the shape of an action of hostility it stays in its latent form.

- Social tension and discontent are the latent forms of conflict.

- Efforts are made in every society for controlling the conflicts but the flip side is that in a way society by itself creates situations of conflict.

- A social problem may be defined as a condition that is far from being ideal and cause imbalance in the society.

- The Indian society has been in the clutches of three ethnic conflicts off late. These are conflicts that took place in Assam and Punjab and the third is the ongoing Hindu-Muslim conflict.

- The Gandhian philosophy and technique of conflict resolution was based on non-violent means of resolving conflicts.

- Gandhi developed Satyagraha for conflict resolution; it implicates accommodating and converting the opponent.

- Gandhi referred to it as the force of truth or the force of the soul, satya is the Hindi term for truth and Graha means persistence, determination.

- Satyagraha, for Gandhi did not refer to passive resistance rather it meant non-violent resistance.

- Gandhi believed that people who carried arms and used them for their protection were the most coward and fearful people.

- In strict sense a Nation is defined as a body of people who have a feeling of oneness developed due to shared history, culture, values, norms and ethos.

- The consciousness of a shared history, culture and value amongst the citizens of a nation state gives rise to the feeling of belonging leading to integration of the underlying diversities. This process of coming together is National integration.

- Secularism means the isolation or removal of the governing body from religion. Indian society over many centuries has welcomed all religions and had imbibed them in its folds.

- Social learning is the process by which people learn from each other by observing, following imitating and forming role models.

14.6 KEY WORDS

- **Conflict:** Conflict is a serious disagreement or argument, typically a protracted one.

- **Moral Norms:** Moral norms are the rules of morality that people ought to follow.

- **Social Tension:** It is one or more forms of disturbance caused by a group of people.

- **State:** A state can be defined as a body of people inhabiting a geographical region, being governed by an internal government and free of any external controls. It may now be understood that the main difference between a nation and a state is sovereignty of the inhabited geographical area.

- **Nation-State:** It is now a logical progression to understand that a Nation-state is a body of people belonging to a state who share a common history, culture and values.

14.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short Answers Questions

1. What are the various causes of conflicts?
2. Identify the types of conflicts.
3. List various problems in Indian society leading to conflicts.
4. Write a short note on national integration.
5. What is the role of a conflict in a society?

Long Answers Questions

1. Explain the concept of social conflicts and resolution.
2. Discuss the Gandhian techniques of conflict resolution.
3. Describe the role of social learning.
4. Elucidate the various characteristics of a nation.
5. Due to the inherent diversity there are many challenges to National Integration. Discuss these challenges.

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