Chapter Sixteen Social Behavior

Review of Key Ideas

PERSON PERCEPTION: FORMING IMPRESSIONS OF OTHERS

1.	Under	stand h	low	aspects	of p	hysical	appear	ance may	influe	nce	imį	press	sions of	fothe	rs.

- 1-1. Attractive people tend to grab and hold:a. our attention

b. our wallets

- c. our business cards
- 1-2. We tend to view attractive people as warmer, friendlier, better-adjusted, and more poised than less attractive people. In general, then, we attribute _______ personality characteristics to good-looking people. In fact, research suggests that there is (little/a strong) correlation between attractiveness and personality traits.
- **1-3.** We also tend to view attractive people as (<u>less/more</u>) *competent* than less attractive people. Perhaps as a result, attractive people tend to obtain better jobs and higher salaries.
- 1-4. Recent research has produced some truly surprising findings. For example, one study found that participants' judgments of competence, based simply on photographs of faces, were (to some degree/not at all) predictive of who would win congressional elections.
- 1-5. Other studies have found that judgments based on facial appearance:
 - a. may occur extremely rapidly, in less than a second.
 - b. require at least 20 seconds.
 - c. require exposure over a sustained period of time

2.	Clarif	y how stereotyping and other factors contribute to subjectivity in person perception.
	2-1.	Men are competitive; women are sensitive: These are stereotypes. Stereotypes are widely held beliefs that people have certain traits simply because they are members of particular groups. Stereotyping is
,		a (<u>normal/abnormal</u>) cognitive process that saves time and mental energy, frequently at the expense of accuracy.
	2-2.	For example, as a mechanism to save cognitive time and energy, stereotypes tend to ignore the within a group.
	2-3.	Stereotyping does not necessarily involve the assumption that all members of a group have a particular characteristic but that there is an increased that they do.
	2-4.	Stereotypes direct our perception so that we tend to see the things we expect to see. Such selective perception results in an overestimation of the degree to which our expectations match actual events, a phenomenon referred to as correlation. For example, if we expect that Germans are orderly, then we are likely to overestimate the co-occurrence of being German and being orderly.
	2-5.	In one study discussed in the text, participants watched the same videotape of a woman engaged in various activities, which included drinking beer and listening to classical music. For one set of subjects she was described as a <i>librarian</i> and for another as a <i>waitress</i> . What effect did the occupational labels have on subjects' recall of the woman's <i>activities?</i> Which of the following is/are true?
e '		Subjects in the "librarian" condition tended to recall her listening to classical music. Subjects in the "waitress" condition tended to recall her drinking beer.
3.	Articu	ulate the evolutionary perspective on bias in person perception.
	3-1.	What could be the possible survival value of stereotyping? One explanation is that our distant ancestors needed a quick way to categorize people as friend or enemy or, in more technical terms, as members of our or members of the
	3-2.	Krebs and Denton assert that <i>once we classify</i> people in terms of ingroup or outgroup, relatively automatic ways of processing information kick in: We tend to see ingroup members as possessing
		characteristics and outgroup members as having characteristics.
	3-3.	Further, the classification puts outgroup members outside our range of empathy so that we feel (guilty/justified) in not liking them. These relatively automatic cognitive processes are shaped by natural, according to evolutionary theorists.

ATTRIBUTION PROCESSES: EXPLAINING BEHAVIOR

	4-1.	Why are you reading this book? The search for causes of events and of our own and others' behavior is termed
		to an upcoming test (or to personal interest, lust for knowledge, fear, etc.).
	4-2.	Attributions are inferences that people make about the of events and about the their own and others' behavior.
	4-3.	Which of the following involve internal and which external attributions? Label each sentence with an I of an E. He flunked because he's lazy. Our team lost because the officials were biased against us. The accident was caused by poor road conditions. He achieved by the sweat of his brow. Criminal behavior is caused by poverty. His success is directly derived from his parents' wealth and influence.
5.	Summ: 5-1.	arize Weiner's theory of attributions for success and failure. Weiner proposed that attributions are made not only in terms of an internal-external dimension but along a stable-unstable dimension. Suppose that Sally makes a high score on an exam. She could attribute her score to her ability, an (internal/external) factor that is also (stable/unstable). If she attributed her success
	5-2.	to her good mood, the attribution would be (<u>internal/external</u>) and (<u>stable/unstable</u>). Or, Sally may think she did well because these types of test are always easy, an (<u>internal/external</u>) and (<u>stable/unstable</u>) attribution. If she attributes her score to luck, the attribution would be (<u>internal/external</u>) and (<u>stable/unstable</u>).
	· · · · · · · · ·	
6.		fy several types of bias in patterns of attribution.
	6-1.	In the process of attributing we look for the causes of other's behavior and our own behavior. When we consider our own behavior, we do it from the point of view of the (actor/observer). When we view other behavior, we are the (actor/observer).
	6-2.	Observers tend to explain an actor's behavior in terms of (<u>internal/external</u>) factors, that is, in terms of the person's traits or characteristics. Actors don't really "see" themselves behaving, so they tend to look to the situation for an explanation, an attribution in terms of (<u>internal/external</u>) factors.
	6-3.	The tendency of observers to explain others' behavior in terms of (<u>situational/trait</u>) factors is so well established that it is known as the attribution error. (In a sense, the funda-
SOCIAL	BEHAVIOR	mental attribution error constitutes half of the actor-observer bias.)

	6-4.	Briefly define the following attributional biases.		
		(a) defensive attribution:		
		(b) self-serving bias:	* × ×	
	,		•	
			•	
7.	Descri	cribe cultural variations in attributional tendencies.		
· ·	7-1.			XXZ
	/-1.	Recent research indicates that the patterns of attribution described above n cultures. For example, since collectivist societies emphasize (group goals/i		
		are (less/more) likely to attribute others' behavior to individual differences		
		words, people from collectivist cultures tend to be (less/more) prone to the	fundamental a	ttribution erro
	7-2.	Although the self-serving bias seems to be present cross-culturally, it appe	ars to be some	what less
		pervasive in non-Western societies. For example, some evidence indicates	· · · ·	
		societies would be more likely to attribute their <i>successes</i> to (the ease of a <i>failures</i> to (bad luck/lack of effort).	task/unusual at	oility) and the
	7-3.	People in collectivist societies are also more likely to look at the complexity	ties of a person	acting in a
1		multifaceted system, so they are more likely to take into account		
		quences that are physically or temporally distant from the event.		
CLO	SE REL	ELATIONSHIPS: LIKING AND LOVING		
8.	Evalua	luate the role of physical attractiveness and similarity in attraction.		
10.1	8-1.	Physical attractiveness of a potential partner is a determinant of romantic a	ttraction for:	
		a. males		
		b. females		
		c. both males and females		
2	8-2.	The <i>matching hypothesis</i> , strictly defined, asserts that people tend to date a	nd marry other	s who are:
	0 2.		na marry other	s who are.
	. "	a. similar to them in personality		
		b. approximately equal to them in physical attractiveness		
		c. both of the above		

	supports the idea that we are attracted to people who are (similar to/different from) us on several dimensions (e.g., attitudes, education, race and ethnicity, religion.)
8-4.	The similarity-attraction relationship extends to:
	a. friendship
	b. romantic relationships
	c. both of the above
8-5.	Similarity causes attraction: people are attracted to others who are similar. Does attraction also cause
0-5.	similarity? Do dating partners tend to modify their attitudes to make them more congruent? Research
	findings (also/do not) support this causal direction.
Clarify	y the role of reciprocity and romantic ideals in attraction.
9-1.	We tend to like people who like us. We also tend to think that if we like others, they will like us. This is
	the principle of in attraction.
9-2.	What do we get from reciprocal relationships? First, our friends frequently provide positive feedback th
	enhances the way we feel about ourselves, the self effect. Second, our friends
	may verify our own view of ourselves, the self effect.
9-3.	In romantic relationships, people constantly evaluate their partners against various ideals. Studies have
	found that the greater the difference between people's perceptions of their partners and their ideals, the
	(more/less) satisfied they are with the relationship and the more likely it is to (continue/dissolve).
9-4.	The perception of a partner is subjective, of course. People may exaggerate the good characteristics and
	overlook the bad. Some research has found that, among couples, individuals view their partners (more
	favorably/less favorably) than their partners view themselves. For example, suppose Jeff and Mary are
	couple. Who would have the more favorable evaluation of Jeff? (Jeff/Mary)
9-5.	Positive illusions about one's partner may make for a better relationship than will a cold view of reality. The happiest couples seem to be those who hold a reciprocated and (accurate/idealized) view of their
	partners.
	partiters.
Distin	guish between passionate love, companionate love, intimacy, and commitment.
10-1.	Hatfield and Berscheid divide love into two types, the intense emotional and sexual feelings of
10-1.	love and the warm and tolerant affection of love.
	Sternberg further divides companionate love into, characterized by closeness a
10-2.	Sternberg further divides companionate love into

Do opposites really attract, or do we like people who are similar? An overwhelming amount of research

8-3.

10-3.	Of the three factors that Sternberg lists in his discussion of love,	love appears
	to peak early and drop off rapidly, while and	gradually
	increase over time.	×
Outlin	ne the evidence on love as a form of attachment.	
11-1.	Chapter 11 discusses types of <i>attachment patterns</i> that occur between infants and their c cording to Hazen and Shaver, infant-caregiver attachment is predictive of adult love relative names of the three infant attachment styles next to the appropriate letters below.	
	S:	
	A-A:	
	A:	
11-2.	Using the letters from the previous question, identify the types of adult romantic relation the infant attachment styles.	s predicted by
	Close, committed, trusting relationships.	
· · · ·	Lacking in intimacy and trust.	
	Volatile, jealous relationships, intense highs and lows.	
11-3.	What is potentially troublesome about a romantic relationship? New research emphasize	s two continuous
	dimensions: fear of possible abandonment by a partner, termed attachment discomfort with closeness and intimacy, termed attachment	, and a
11-4.	Some ongoing research uses the three attachment-style model and some emphasizes the dimensions. Note that the two dimensions may be divided into subtypes, shown in your text.	
11-5.	Recent research finds an enormous number of characteristics associated with attachment	style. Here are a
	few example involving the anxiety and avoidance continua: People with high attachmen ance) seek excessive reassurance-seeking about their worth; those with attachment (anxiety)	
	tend to engage in casual sex to impress their peers and use sex to manipulate partners; in	
	attachment (anxiety/avoidance) experience greater distress at breakups and preoccupation mer partner.	n with the for-

12.	Discuss cultural variation in close relationships and how the Internet has affected romantic relationships.						
	12-1.	What do people want in a potential mate? Cross-cultural studies have found that both sexes value many of the same characteristics (e.g., kindness, intelligence, emotional stability, mutual attraction). These studies also find consistent gender differences: (men/women) place greater emphasis on youth and beauty, and (men/women) look for mates with status and resources.					
	12-2.	Romantic love is found in all cultures, but the idea that one should be in love in order to marry is much more characteristic of (<u>Eastern/Western</u>) cultures. Arranged marriages, with romantic love as somewhat less central, tends to be characteristic of (<u>collectivist/individualist</u>) societies.					
	12-3.	The Internet provides a relatively new way of initiating relationships. Which of the following seem(s) to be true?					
		While a sizable minority report negative experiences with online dating experiences, the majority describe it as mostly positive.					
	*	Romantic relationships that begin online are less stable over two years than traditional relationships.					
		The anonymity of the Internet may foster more self-disclosure.					
	12-4.	The anonymity of the Internet may also result in deception, especially with regard to the three characteristics listed below. Of these, which is most commonly misrepresented in people's self-descriptions?					
		a. age					
•		b. appearance					
		c. marital status					
13.	Under	stand evolutionary analyses of mating preferences and tactics.					
	13-1.	While judgments of beauty vary as a function of culture, researchers have found some surprisingly strong					
	• "	cross-cultural consistencies. Across a wide range of cultures, both sexes prefer faces that are,					
		perceived to signal health. Also across cultures, men prefer women with a low					
		ratio, a characteristic associated with reproductive fitness.					
	13-2.	Both sexes value physical attractiveness. As discussed previously, however, cross-cultural studies have					
		en, andlook for mates with ambition, status, and the potential to obtain resources					
		that can be invested in children.					
	13-3.	While in general men place greater emphasis on beauty, in some situations women appear to value physical attractiveness as much as men. Which of the following is/are true?					
		As a short-term partner for causal sex, women value attractiveness as much as men.					
		Very attractive women are likely to insist on both economic potential and physical attractiveness in a potential mate.					
SOCIAL	BEHAVIOR	303					

		During the most fertile part of their menstrual cycles, women are more drawn to attractive, masculine, dominant men.
		Strippers earn more tip money when they are in the most fertile phase of their menstrual cycle.
	13-4.	The <i>tactics</i> that the sexes use in pursuing a mate are in line with the evolutionary perspective: studies find that men tend to use tactics that emphasize their (<u>looks/resources</u>) and women use tactics that emphasize their (<u>looks/resources</u>).
	13-5.	Tactics may involve deception. Both sexes may lie about their income, careers, and past relationships to make themselves more appealing to the opposite sex. Females are more upset when men lie about:
		a. the number of their previous sexual relationships.
		b. their financial resources and commitment to the woman.
	13-6.	Men are more upset when women are deceptive concerning:
		a. their social status and ambition
		b. a history of sexual promiscuity
,	13-7.	Sometimes individuals may try to attract someone already in a relationship, a phenomenon referred to by evolutionary researchers as mate In a large cross-cultural study Dave Schmitt
		found poaching to be a (<u>universal/Western</u>) phenomenon, although its prevalence in different cultures varies. Schmitt also found that while poaching is common in both sexes, (<u>men/women</u>) are somewhat
		more likely to make the poaching attempt.
ATT	THINE	S: MAKING SOCIAL JUDGMENTS
14.	Analy	ze the structure (components and dimensions) of attitudes and the link between attitudes ehavior.
ř	14-1.	Do you favor gun control? Do you like expressionist art? Do you hate cottage cheese? Your answers would be <i>evaluations</i> and would also express your toward these objects of thought.
	14-2.	Attitudes are positive or negative of objects of thought. They may include three components: cognition (thought), affect (emotion), and behavioral predispositions. For example, people have attitudes toward cottage cheese. List the three possible components of attitudes next to the examples below.
		He likes cottage cheese.
		He eats cottage cheese.
		He thinks: "Cottage cheese seems kind of lumpy."
	14-3.	Attitudes also vary along various dimensions: strength, accessibility, and ambivalence. Place the appropriate words in the blanks

		now easily does the attitude come to mind?
		How durable or firmly held is the attitude?
		To what degree does the attitude include both positive and negative aspects?
	14-4.	As LaPiere found in his travels with a Chinese couple, attitudes (are/are not) consistently good predictors of behavior. One reason involves a failure to account for the attitude dimensions just described, attitude, accessibility, and ambivalence. For example, the stronger the attitude, the better it will predict
	14-5.	In addition, the actual situation is likely to present new information: possible embarrassment, pressure from others, the unanticipated pleasant or unpleasant aspects of the situation, and so on. In other words, the behavioral component is just a <i>predisposition</i> that may change as a function of norms or other constraints of the
5.	Summ	arize how source, message, and receiver factors influence the process of persuasion.
	15-1.	If you are the <i>source</i> of a communication, the message giver:
		(a) What factors mentioned in your text would you use to make yourself more <i>credible</i> ? and
		(b) What else would you try to emphasize about yourself to enhance your likelihood of being persuasive?
	15-2.	With regard to message factors:
,		(a) Which is generally more effective, a one-sided message or a two-sided message?
		(b) Simple repetition of a message causes it to be perceived as more true. What is the name of this effect?
		(c) Do fear appeals tend to work? When or in what circumstances do they work?
	15-3.	With regard to receiver factors in persuasive communications:
		(a) If you alerted in advance to the likelihood that someone is going to attempt to persuade you on a particular topic, you will be (<u>harder/easier</u>) to persuade. Knowing in advance is referred to as
,		(b) In part because they may be anchored in networks of other beliefs that may also require change, attitudes are more resistant to change.
		(c) If people resist persuasion, they are likely to become more of those attitudes.

	<u>Learning theory</u> . Following are examples that relate learning theory to attitude change. Indicate whic type of learning—classical conditioning, operant conditioning, or observational learning—is illustrated.
	Ralph hears a speaker express a particular political attitude that is followed by thu derous applause. Thereafter, Ralph tends to express the same attitude.
	Advertisers pair soft drinks (and just about any other product) with attractive mod The audience likes the models and develops a stronger liking for the product.
	If you express an attitude that I like, I will agree with you, nod, say "mm-hmm," a so on. This will tend to strengthen your expression of that attitude.
Answers	: 16-1. observational learning, classical conditioning, operant conditioning.
16-2.	<u>Dissonance theory</u> . Dissonance is a complicated theory, but the following problems should help. <i>First re-read the section of the text on dissonance</i> . Here's a hint: Both problems are <i>contrary to common-st ideas of reward and punishment</i> . <i>Dissonance theory prides itself on making predictions contrary to coventional wisdom</i> .
	(a) As part of a psychology experiment, participants are paid to write an essay favoring something the don't really believe in, like increasing tuition at their school. Suppose that there are two treatment co tions: (1) In one condition participants are paid \$5 for writing the counter-attitudinal essay, and (2) in the second they are paid \$200 for writing the essay. After writing the essay (if dissonance theory prections are correct) in which case would their attitude about the tuition increase tend to change more, in
	direction of favoring the tuition increase? (Condition 1 or 2?) Briefly, why?
	(b) Suppose Bruce decides to join a particular club. (l) One possible scenario is that he must travel a distance to attend, the club is very expensive, and he must give up much of his free time to become a member. (2) Alternatively, suppose that the traveling time is short, the club is inexpensive, and he need not give up any free time. In which case (1 or 2) will he tend to value his membership more, according
	dissonance theory? Briefly, why?
Relate s	self-perception theory and the elaboration likelihood model to attitude change.

16. Clarify how learning processes and cognitive dissonance can contribute to attitude formation and

17-2.	According to self-perception theory, people infer their attitudes by observing their own
	Thus, if people engage in a behavior that is not accompanied by high rewards, they are likely to infer that
	they (enjoy/do not enjoy) the behavior (because, if they didn't enjoy it and didn't get a reward, then why
	are they doing it?). Predictions from self-perception theory are similar to those of dissonance theory, but
	the theoretical emphasis is on self-observation rather than inconsistent cognitions.
17-3.	Suppose that you are traveling in Europe and must decide between two options, renting a car or traveling
	by train (on a Eurailpass). In the blanks below indicate which persuasive route, central or peripheral, is
	referred to in these examples.
	You opt for the train based on your perusal of train brochures showing travelers din-
	ing in luxury while viewing the Alps.
	Your travel agent is an expert who has advised many of your friends, and she strongly
	recommends that you take the train. You decide on the train.
	You think about details you hadn't previously considered: traffic, waiting in line, ad-
	ditional cab fare, and so on. You seek additional information, and after weighing the
	relative expenses and conveniences for four traveling together, you decide to rent a car.
17-4.	In the elaboration likelihood model, the route that is easier, that involves the least amount of thinking,
	is the route. The route in which relevant information is sought out and carefully
	pondered is the route. Elaboration, which involves thinking about the various
	complexities of the situation, is more likely to occur when the route is used.
17-5.	Elaboration leads to (more enduring/transient) changes in attitudes. In addition, elaboration (i.e., the more
	central route) is (more/less) likely to predict behavior.

CONFORMITY AND OBEDIENCE: YIELDING TO OTHERS

- 18. Review Asch's work on conformity.
 - **18-1.** Briefly summarize the general procedure and results of the Asch line-judging studies.
 - **18-2.** Conformity increased as number of accomplices increased, up to a point. Increasing the number of accomplices beyond four people has (<u>little/a strong</u>) effect.
 - 18-3. Suppose there are six accomplices, one real subject, and that one of the accomplices dissents from the majority. What effect will this "dissenter" have on conformity by the real subject?

Describ	be the Featured Study by Milgram on obedience to authority and the ensuing controversy.
19-1.	Two individuals at a time participated in Milgram's initial study, but only one was a real subject. The other "subject" was an accomplice of the experimenter, an actor. By a rigged drawing of slips of paper the real subject became the, and the accomplice became the There were a total of subjects, or teachers, in the initial study.
19-2.	The experimenter strapped the learner into a chair and stationed the teacher at an apparatus from which he could, supposedly, deliver electric shocks to the learner. The teacher was to start at 15 volts, and each time the learner made a mistake, the teacher was supposed to the level of shock by 15 volts—up to a level of 450 volts.
19-3.	What percentage of the subjects continued to obey instructions, thereby increasing the shock all the way up to 450 volts?
19-4. 19-5.	What is the major conclusion to be drawn from this study? Why are the results of interest? As you might imagine, Milgram's studies on obedience were controversial, producing both detractors and defenders. Following are summaries of objections involving both <i>generality</i> and <i>ethics</i> followed by pos-
	sible counterarguments. Complete the counterarguments by selecting the appropriate alternatives. (a) "Subjects in an experiment expect to obey an experimenter, so the results don't generalize to the real world." The flaw in this argument, according to Milgram, is that in many aspects of the real world, including military and business environments, obedience (is not/is also) considered appropriate. In addition, Milgram's results (have/have not) been replicated over a variety of subjects, settings, and procedures.
	 (b) "Milgram's procedure, by which subjects were allowed to think that they had caved in to commands to harm an innocent victim, was potentially emotionally damaging to the subjects. Milgram's experiment was unethical." Milgram's defenders assert that the brief distress experienced by the subjects was relatively (slight/great) in comparison with the important insights that emerged.

20. Discuss cultural variations in conformity and obedience.

20-1. As with other cross-cultural comparisons, replications in other countries yield some similarities and some differences. Indicate true (T) or false (F) for the following statements.

		The obedience effect found by Milgram seems to be a uniquely American phenomenon.
	4 A	In replications of the Milgram studies in several European countries, obedience levels were as high or higher than those in the United States.
		Replications of the Asch line-judging studies have found that cultures that emphasize collectivism are more conforming than are those that emphasize individualism.
BEH	AVIOR II	N GROUPS: JOINING WITH OTHERS
21.		be the Stanford Prison Simulation and its implications.
	21-1.	The Stanford Prison study was conducted by Philip Zimbardo in the 1970s. A total of 24 undergraduate subjects were pre-screened and (<u>randomly/selectively</u>) assigned to be either guards or prisoners in a simulated prison on the campus at Stanford.
	21-2.	It is important to note that the participants were normal, psychologically healthy college students without obvious character flaws. Yet within a few days, subjects assigned to be became sadistic and brutal, and subjects assigned to be the became, for the most part, listless and apathetic. In other words, subjects tended to behave in line with the social associated with the positions of guards and prisoners.
	21-3.	Although done more than 30 years ago, the study resonates with recent events involving American military personnel at Abu Ghraib prison in Iraq. While the government tended to blame character flaws (i.e., a few bad apples), Zimbardo would look for situational pressures. What would lead normal Americans to commit sadistic and brutal acts? Like the Milgram study, this simulation demonstrates once again the power of (personality differences/the situation).
	21-4.	Which of the following include Zimbardo's suggestions for trying to reduce prisoner abuse? a. supervision of guards, sanctions for abuses, and accountability in the chain of command. b. counting on people's inherent good will, weeding out the individuals with moral issues.
22.	Clarif	y the nature of groups and the bystander effect.
	22-1.	The word <i>group</i> doesn't have the same meaning for social psychologists that it does for everyone else. A lecturer looking at an audience might think, "Hm, quite a large group we have here today." Actually, the audience probably is <i>not</i> a group in social psychological terms because it lacks one, and perhaps two, of the essential characteristics of a group. A group consists of two or more individuals who (a) and (b) are
	22-2.	Which of the following are groups, as defined by social psychologists?
		A husband and wife.
		The board of directors of a corporation.

		A sports team.	
		Spectators at an athletic event.	
		Shoppers at a mall.	i.
	22-3.	What is the bystander effect?	
	22-4.	Why does the bystander effect occur? In part because the presence of onlookers not doing anything	; pro-
		duces an situation (no one seems to be upset, so maybe it's not an emerger	icy).
		For example, the effect is less likely to occur when someone is in obvious physical danger. In additional transposition of proposition of the prop	else
		the presence of others causes a of responsibility (we're all responsible, or	515 C
		someone else will do it).	
23.	Evalu	ate evidence on group productivity, including social loafing.	
	23-1.	Individual productivity is frequently less in larger than in smaller groups. Two factors contribute to	this
		decreased productivity. One factor involves a loss of among workers in la	rger
		groups (e.g., efforts of one person interfere with those of another). A second factor is the decreased	1
		that results from social loafing.	
	23-2.	Social loafing is the reduction in expended by individuals working in groups	ıps as
		compared to people working alone. People in groups frequently don't work as hard as they would	if they
		were working alone. Social loafing and the bystander effect seem to share a common cause: diffus	ion of
	23-3.	Social loafing is less likely to occur (mark T or F):	
		Among those who have high achievement motivation.	
	, ,	Among high scorers on agreeableness and conscientiousness.	
		In larger groups.	
		When individual productivity is identifiable.	
		In larger groups.	
		In cohesive groups where group norms favor productivity.	

24.	Explai	n group polarization, groupthink, and favorable effects of groups on decision-making.
	24-1.	This problem should help with the concept of group polarization. Suppose that a group of five advisors to a government meets to decide whether or not to recommend invading another country. The recommendations are represented on a scale from 1 (strongly favor invading) to 7 (strongly oppose invading). Before they meet as a group, the opinions of the five advisors are as follows: 1, 2, 3, 3, 3. After they meet as a group, which of the following would be the best representation of their new views, assuming that group polarization occurs?
		a. 2, 3, 4, 4, 4
		b. 1, 1, 2, 2, 3
		c. 4, 5, 5, 5, 6
		d. 5, 6, 6, 6, 7, 7
	24-2.	Suppose that their opinions before they met were: 4, 5, 5, 6, 6, 7. Which of the following would best represent their post-meeting viewpoints, assuming that group polarization occurs?
		a. 2, 3, 4, 4, 4
		b. 1, 1, 2, 2, 3
		c. 4, 5, 5, 5, 6
		d. 5, 6, 6, 6, 7, 7
	24-3.	What is group polarization?
	24-4.	Have you ever been in a group when you thought to yourself, "This is a stupid idea, but my best friends seem to be going along with it, so I won't say anything." If so, you may have been in a group afflicted with groupthink. Groupthink is characterized by, among other things, an intense pressure to group opinions accompanied by very low tolerance for dissent.
	24-5.	According to Janis, the major cause of groupthink is high group, the degree of attraction group members have for the group. Other factors that may contribute to groupthink include (directive/nondirective) leadership, a high degree of (transparency/isolation), and (high/low) stress on the group to make a major decision.
	24-6.	Much of the support for groupthink consists of (<u>laboratory studies/retrospective accounts</u>). This intuitively appealing theory is difficult to test empirically, but more research is needed.
	24-7.	While we've stressed some interesting group phenomena, it's important to realize that group decisions

are sometimes better than those made by individuals. Which of the following are listed as situations in

which groups are likely to outperform individuals?

Person perception tasks.

_ Investment decisions involving picking stocks.

Decisions made with a directive leader under stress.

	Diagnoses by physicians.
	Complicated logic problems and academic tests.
LECTIN	G ON THE CHAPTER'S THEMES
Identil	fy the three themes highlighted in this chapter.
25-1.	This chapter again illustrates psychology's commitment to empirical research as opposed to common sense. When people hear the results of psychological studies, they frequently conclude that the research just confirms what everyone knows. Dispute this view by listing and describing <i>at least one study</i> with results that are not predictable from common sense assumptions.
Table 1	
25-2.	Cross-cultural differences and similarities also reflect one of the unifying themes. People conform, obe attribute, and love throughout the world, but the manner and extent to which they do so are affected by cultural factors. Important among these factors is the degree to which a culture has an orientation.
25-3.	Finally, the chapter provides several illustrations of the way in which our view of the world is highly subjective. For example, we tend to make ability and personality judgments based on people's physica; see in others what we expect to see as a result of; distipudgments of sensory experience based on pressures to; and make foolish decirated and ma
	sions when we become enmeshed in the group phenomenon known as
SONAL	APPLICATION • UNDERSTANDING PREJUDICE
Relate	e person perception processes and attributional bias to prejudice.
26-1.	Prejudice is a negativetoward others based on group membership. Like other attitudes, prejudice may include three components: emotions,, and behavioral predissitions.
26-2.	The affective component may include emotions involving intense dislike or hatred. The cognitive component is likely to include beliefs about typical characteristics of the group, referred to as The behavioral involves hostile or unfair actions referred to collectively as

	26-3.	Stereotypes are part of the <i>subjectivity</i> of person perception. People tend to see what they expect to see.
		When stereotypes are activated, people see and remember information that (matches/does not match)
		their stereotype. Some of our selective mismatching is due to the process referred to as correlation.
	26-4.	Stereotypes are also highly accessible and frequently activated automatically, so that even though people reject prejudiced ideas, stereotypes are (<u>likely/unlikely</u>) to influence behavior.
	26-5.	Our <i>attributional biases</i> are also likely to maintain or augment prejudice. For example, those who believe that women are inherently inferior are likely to attribute women's success to (ability/luck) but men's success to (ability/luck).
	26-6.	A prejudiced person is likely to attribute stereotype-consistent behavior to an internal and stereotype- inconsistent to the In this way stereotypes may be maintained through the bias referred to as the attribution error or bias.
	26-7.	When people encounter others who are the object of discrimination, they are also likely to attribute their misfortune to <i>internal traits</i> , a bias referred to as victim blaming or attribution.
27.	Relate	principles of attitude formation and intergroup competition to prejudice.
	27-1.	Attitudes are to a large extent learned. For example, if someone makes a disparaging remark about an ethnic group that is followed by approval, the approval is likely to function as a that increases that person's tendency to make similar remarks in the future. This is the learning process known as Or, if someone simply <i>observes</i> another person making such a remark, the observer may acquire the tendency to make similar remarks through the process known as
÷	27-2.	What else causes prejudice? One of the oldest explanations involvesbetween groups for scarce resources, something that both groups want.
	27-3.	In a study that foreshadowed the Zimbardo study at Stanford, Sherif (in 1961) used (random assignment/personality traits) to create two groups of boys at a boys' camp. What caused the groups, nicknamed the Rattlers and Eagles, to dislike each other? It was primarily when the boys were asked to engage in games for prizes and trophies that hostility between the groups occurred (food fights, flag burning, cabins ransacked).
20	D.L.4.	
28.		ingroups, outgroups, and threats to social identity to prejudice.
	28-1.	People form into groups. The groups of which they are members are called ingroups, and groups of which they are not members are called outgroups. People tend to think that their ingroups are superior to Thus, one source of hostility to outgroups is simply group formation.

	28-2.	People also tend to think that members of their ingroups are very different from one another (i.e., heterogeneous), and that members of outgroups are very similar to one another. In other words, in their percep-
		tion of outgroups people experience the illusion of outgroup This illusion makes
		it easier to sustain stereotypic beliefs about outgroups.
	28-3.	Hostility toward outgroups is also fostered by threats to one's social identity. Flunking a test may be a
		threat to your personal identity; the low pass-rate of a group with which you identify may threaten your
		identity. The result may be a loss of self-esteem.
	28-4.	When our social identity is threatened, how do we regain self-esteem? According to social identity
		theory, in two major ways: by showing favoritism and
		derogation. Derogation of an outgroup helps people feel superior. The result is not inevitable, of course,
		but is one more factor contributing to hostility between groups.
		HINKING APPLICATION • WHOM CAN YOU TRUST? ANALYZING CREDIBILITY AND LUENCE TACTICS
20	* *	e e l '' ' C
29.	strateg	fy useful criteria for evaluating credibility and recognize standard social influence gies.
	29-1.	We are constantly bombarded with information designed to persuade. Sometimes we are persuaded and
		happy about it, and sometimes we regret the outcome. How can we resist attempts at manipulation? Two
		tactics are discussed in this section: evaluating the of the source, and learning
		about several widely-used social strategies.
	29-2.	To assess credibility, consider these questions: Do they have a interest? If so,
		information they provide may not be objective. What are the source's? Although
		degrees do not certify competence, they may indicate relevant training.
	29-3.	Is the information inconsistent with views on the issue? If not, one should ponder
	200.	why others haven't arrived at the same conclusion. Finally, what was the of
		analysis used? One should be particularly skeptical if the source relies on anecdotes or focuses on small
		inconsistencies in accepted beliefs.
	29-4.	In addition, learn to recognize social influence strategies. Following are several scenarios. Identify each
		with one of the four strategies discussed: foot-in-the-door, reciprocity, lowball, and scarcity.
		Scenario 1: Mail solicitation for a magazine subscription. "Enclosed is a
		packet of seeds, free of charge, just for you. We hope you enjoy the beauti-
		ful flowers they produce! Also, you will benefit from subscribing to Outdoor
		Beauty magazine. We've enclosed a free copy."
		Scenario 2: Newspaper ad. "This weekend only—mammoth blowout car
		deals!! These beauties will go fast!!!! Don't miss this once-in-a-lifetime op-
		portunity!!"

	Scenario 3: A college development office calling alumni. First week: "We
	don't care about the amount, perhaps \$5, just so that we can ensure full
	participation." You commit to \$5. Next week: "Would you become one of our
	member donors with a contribution of \$100?"
3	Scenario 4: On the phone with a wholesale camera salesman. "Yes, we do
	have the XXY Camera at \$499.00 plus tax. We'll ship that this afternoon.
	Now, did you want the new lens or the old lens with that? The new lens would
	be an additional \$99. Did you want the carrying case also?" (What? New
	lens, carrying case? You assumed the so-called extras were included in the
	original price.)
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Scenario 5: Mail solicitation. First week: "Would you answer this brief survey
	for us? There are only 12 questions." Next week: "Thanks for responding
	to our survey! We desperately need money for this worthwhile (candidate,
	school, charity, etc.)."
<u> </u>	Scenario 6: At the car dealer. "Then we have a deal, this car at \$22,800 plus
	tax, right. Great!! Let me check with my manager to see if that price includes
	dealer prep and the GPS." (GPS not included? It's on the car!! What's a dealer
	prep, anyway? Fifteen minutes pass while the salesman supposedly checks.)
	"Well, I tried, but the manager won't budge. Fortunately it's not much
	additional!"

Review of Key Terms

Attitudes	Group	Outgroup
Attributions	Group cohesiveness	Passionate love
Bystander effect	Group polarization	Person perception
Channel	Groupthink	Prejudice
Cognitive dissonance	Illusory correlation	Receiver
Collectivism	Individualism	Reciprocity
Commitment	Ingroup	Reciprocity norm
Companionate love	Internal attributions	Self-serving bias
Conformity	Interpersonal attraction	Social loafing
Defensive attribution	Intimacy	Social psychology
Discrimination	Lowball technique	Social roles
External attributions	Matching hypothesis	Source
Foot-in-the-door technique	Message	Stereotypes
Fundamental attribution error	Obedience	
1 Ass	1. The branch of psychology concerne	ed with the way individuals' thoughts,
	feelings, and behaviors are influence	
	2. The process of forming impressions	s of others.
<u> </u>	3. A negative attitude held toward me	mbers of a group.

4.	Widely held beliefs that people have certain characteristics because of their membership in a particular group.
5.	Error that occurs when we thnk that two events are strongly associated even though they are not.
6.	Inferences that people draw about the causes of events, others' behavior, and their own behavior.
7.	Attributing the causes of behavior to personal dispositions, traits, abilities, and feelings.
8.	Attributing the causes of behavior to situational demands and environmental constraints.
9.	The tendency of an observer to favor internal attributions in explaining the behavior of an actor.
10.	The tendency to blame victims for their misfortune so that we feel less likely to be victimized in a similar way.
11.	The tendency to attribute our positive outcomes to personal factors and our negative outcomes to situational factors.
12.	Liking or positive feelings toward another.
13.	Getting people to agree to a small request to increase the chances that they will agree to a larger request later.
14.	The observation that males and females of approximately equal physical attractiveness are likely to select each other as partners.
15.	Liking those who show that they like us.
16.	Widely shared expectations about how people in certain positions are supposed to behave.
17.	A complete absorption in another person that includes tender sexual feelings and the agony and ecstasy of intense emotion.
18.	A warm, trusting, tolerant affection for another whose life is deeply intertwined with one's own.
19.	Warmth, closeness, and sharing in a relationship.
20.	The intent to maintain a relationship in spite of the difficulties and costs that may arise.
21.	Positive or negative evaluation of objects of thought; may include cognitive, behavioral, and emotional components.
22.	The person who sends a communication.
23.	The person to whom the message is sent.
24.	The information transmitted by the source.
25.	The medium through which the message is sent.
26.	The rule that we should pay back when we receive something from others; may be used in an influence strategy.
27.	Behaving differently, usually unfairly, toward the members of a group.
28.	Situation that exists when related cognitions are inconsistent.
29.	Yielding to real or imagined social pressure.
30.	Involves getting someone to commit to an attractive deal before its hidden costs are revealed.
31.	A form of compliance that occurs when people follow direct commands, usually from someone in a position of authority.

 32.	Involves putting group goals ahead of personal goals and defining one's identity in terms of the group one belongs to.
 33.	Involves putting personal goals ahead of group goals and defining one's identity in terms of personal attributes rather than group memberships.
 34.	Two or more individuals who interact and are interdependent.
35.	The apparent paradox that people are less likely to provide needed help when they are in groups than when they are alone.
36.	A reduction in effort by individuals when they work together, as compared to when they work by themselves.
37.	Situation that occurs when group discussion strengthens a group's dominant point of view and produces a shift toward a more extreme decision in that direction.
38.	Phenomenon that occurs when members of a cohesive group emphasize concurrence at the expense of critical thinking in arriving at a decision.
39.	The group one belongs to and identifies with.
40.	People who are not a part of the ingroup.
41.	The strength of the liking relationships linking group members to each other and to the group itself.

Review of Key People

Solomon Asch Ellen Berscheid David Buss	Elaine Hatfield Cindy Hazen and Phillip Shaver Fritz Heider Irving Janis Stanley Milgram Bernard Weiner Philip Zimbardo
Leon Festinger	n mg same
-	 Was the first to describe the crucial dimension along which we make attributions; developed balance theory.
• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	2. Did research on infant-caregiver attachment patterns as predictors of adult romantic relationships.
	3. With Hatfield, did research describing two types of romantic love: passionate and companionate.
	4. Originator of the theory of cognitive dissonance.
	5. Devised the "line-judging" procedure in pioneering investigations of conformity.
· 1	6. In a series of "fake shock" experiments, studied the tendency to obey authority figures.
	7. Developed the concept of groupthink.