

SOCIAL INFLUENCE AND GROUP PROCESS

• DEFINITION OF GROUP

- ❖ Groups are different from other collections of people in that there is mutual interdependence, each member has roles, there are status differentials, and there are expectations from each other. For example, family, class, play group, etc.
- ❖ A group may be defined as an organised system of two or more individuals, who:
 - are interacting and interdependent.
 - have common motives.
 - have a set of role relationships among its members.
 - have norms that regulate the behaviour of its members.

• SALIENT CHARACTERISTICS OF GROUP

- ❖ **Two or more people:** A social unit consisting of two or more individuals who perceive themselves as belonging to the group. This characteristic of the group helps in distinguishing one group from the other and gives the group its unique identity. For example, family identity.
- ❖ **Interactive:** A collection of individuals who have common motives and goals. Groups function either working towards a given goal, or away from certain threats facing the group. For example, army units.
- ❖ **Interdependence:** A collection of individuals who are interdependent, i.e. what one is doing may have consequences for others. For example, Suppose one of the fielders in a cricket team drops an important catch during a match — this will have consequence for the entire team.
- ❖ **Common motives:** Individuals who are trying to satisfy a need through their joint association also influence each other. For example, NGOs working on projects such as Narmada Bachao or Save The Tiger.
- ❖ **Gathering:** A gathering of individuals who interact with one another either directly or indirectly. For example, Classroom full of students.
- ❖ **Norms:** A group is a collection of individuals whose interactions are structured by a set of roles and norms. This means that the group members perform the same functions every time the group meets and the group members adhere to group norms. Norms tell us how we ought to behave in the group and specify the behaviours expected from group members.

• COLLECTIONS OF PEOPLE

❖ Crowd

- A crowd is a collection of people who may be present at a place/situation by chance.
- There is neither any structure nor feeling of belongingness in a crowd.
- Behaviour of people in crowds is irrational and there is no interdependence among members. For example, Suppose you are going on the road and an accident takes place. Soon a large number of people tend to collect.

❖ Teams

- Teams are special kinds of groups wherein members often have complementary skills and are committed to a common goal or purpose.
- Members are mutually accountable for their activities.

- In teams, there is a positive synergy attained through the coordinated efforts of the members.

Group versus Team

| Group | Team |
|--|--|
| Performance is dependent on contributions of individual members. | Both individual contributions and teamwork matter |
| The leader or whoever is heading the group holds responsibility for the work | Although there is a leader, members hold themselves responsible. |
| For example, Classroom | For example, Sports team |

❖ Audience

- An audience is a collection of people who have assembled for a special purpose. For example, To watch a cricket match or a movie
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❖ Mob

- An audience is a collection of people who have assembled for a special purpose. For example, to watch a cricket match or a movie.
- Audiences are generally passive but sometimes they go into a frenzy and become mobs, wherein there is a definite sense of purpose.
- There is polarisation in attention, and actions of persons are in a common direction.
- Mob behaviour is characterised by homogeneity of thought and behaviour as well as impulsivity. For example, if in a sports match, the audience favourite begins losing, the audience may become a mob by booing, or in extreme cases, throwing things.

● WHY DO PEOPLE JOIN GROUPS?

- ❖ Different groups satisfy different needs, and therefore, we are simultaneously members of different groups. This sometimes creates pressures for us because there may be competing demands and expectations. Most often we are able to handle these competing demands and expectations.
- ❖ People join groups because these groups satisfy a range of needs such as:
 - (i) **Security:** When we are alone, we feel insecure. Groups reduce this insecurity. Being with people gives a sense of comfort, and protection. As a result, people feel stronger, and are less vulnerable to threats. For example, walking home alone from work v/s walking with a group of colleagues living in the same neighbourhood
 - (ii) **Status:** When we are members of a group that is perceived to be important by others, we feel recognised and experience a sense of power. For example, suppose your school wins in an inter-institutional debate competition, you feel proud and think that you are better than others.
 - (iii) **Self-esteem:** Groups provide feelings of self-worth and establish a positive social identity. Being a member of prestigious groups enhances one's self-concept. For example, being a part of the student government in one's school is a prestigious position
 - (iv) **Satisfaction of one's psychological and social needs:** Groups satisfy one's social and psychological needs such as sense of belongingness, giving and receiving attention, love, and power through a group. For example, Joining a spiritual group such as Sri Ravi Shankar's Art of Living Foundation.
 - (v) **Goal achievement:** Groups help in achieving such goals which cannot be attained individually. There is power in the majority. For example, people passionate about animal conservation come together to form an NGO such as Save The Tiger.
 - (vi) **Provide knowledge and information:** Group membership provides knowledge and information and thus broadens our view. As individuals, we may not have all the required information. Groups supplement this information and knowledge. Eg. Book clubs, the classroom, etc

● **GROUP FORMATION/HOW ARE GROUPS FORMED?**

❖ Basic to group formation is:

- Some contact, and
- Some form of interaction between people.

❖ This interaction is facilitated by the following conditions:

(i) **Proximity:** Repeated interactions with the same set of individuals give us a chance to know them, and their interests and attitudes. Common interests, attitudes, and background are important determinants of your liking for your group members. For example, just think about your group of friends. Would you have been friends if you were not living in the same colony, or going to the same school, or may be playing in the same playground? Probably not.

(ii) **Similarity:** Being exposed to someone over a period of time makes us assess our similarities and paves the way for formation of groups. One explanation of why we tend to like people similar to us is that people prefer consistency and like relationships that are consistent. When two people are similar, there is consistency and they start liking each other.

For example, you like playing football and another person in your class also loves playing football; there is a matching of your interests. There are higher chances that you may become friends.

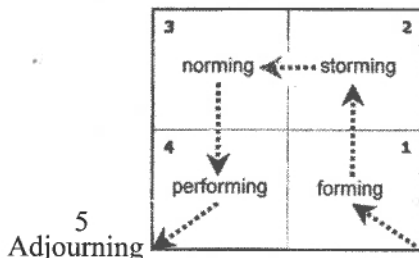
Another explanation given by psychologists is that when we meet similar people, they reinforce and validate our opinions and values, we feel we are right and thus we start liking them.

Suppose you are of the opinion that too much watching of television is not good, because it shows too much violence. You meet someone who also has similar views. This validates your opinion, and you start liking the person who was instrumental in validating your opinion.

(iii) **Common motives and goals:** When people have common motives or goals, they get together and form a group which may facilitate their goal attainment. For example, Suppose you want to teach children in a slum area who are unable to go to school. You cannot do this alone because you have your own studies and homework. You, therefore, form a group of like-minded friends and start teaching these children. So you have been able to achieve what you could not have done alone.

● **STAGES OF GROUP FORMATION**

- ❖ Groups develop, usually through different stages of formation, conflict, stabilisation, performance, and dismissal.
- ❖ Dr. Bruce Tuckman suggested that groups pass through five developmental sequences of forming, storming, norming, performing and adjourning.
- ❖ All groups, of course, do not always proceed from one stage to the next in such a systematic manner.
- ❖ Sometimes several stages go on simultaneously, while in other instances groups may go back and forth through the various stages or they may just skip some of the stages.



Stages of Group Formation

| Stage | Description |
|-----------------------|---|
| Forming/ Formation | When group members first meet, there is a great deal of uncertainty about the group, the goal, and how it is to be achieved. People try to know each other and assess whether they will fit in. There is excitement as well as apprehensions. This stage is called the forming stage. |

| | |
|----------------------------|---|
| Storming/ Conflict | Often, forming, there is a stage of intragroup conflict which is referred to as storming. In this stage, there is conflict among members about how the target of the group is to be achieved, who is to control the group and its resources, and who is to perform what task. When this stage is complete, some sort of hierarchy of leadership in the group develops and a clear vision as to how to achieve the group goal. |
| Norming/ Stabilisation | The storming stage is followed by another stage known as norming. Group members by this time develop norms related to group behaviour. This leads to development of a positive group identity and unwritten rules of the group. |
| Performing/ Performance | The fourth stage is performing. By this time, the structure of the group has evolved and is accepted by group members. The group moves towards achieving the group goal. For some groups, this may be the last stage of group development. |
| Adjourning/ Dismissal | However, for some groups, (e.g., in the case of an organising committee for a school function) there may be another stage known as adjourning stage. In this stage, once the function is over, the group may be disbanded. |

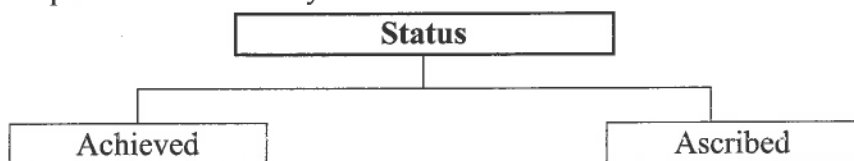
• **GROUP STRUCTURE**

- ❖ During the process of group formation, groups also develop a structure as members interact.
- ❖ Over time this interaction shows regularities in distribution of task to be performed, responsibilities assigned to members, and the prestige or relative status of members.

Elements of Group Structure

Four important elements of group structure are:

- (1) **Roles:** Roles are socially defined expectations that individuals in a given situation are expected to fulfil. Roles refer to the typical behaviour that depicts a person in a given social context. For example, in the role of a son or a daughter, there are certain role expectations, i.e. including the behaviour expected of someone in a particular role. As a daughter or a son, you are expected to respect elders, listen to them, and be responsible towards your studies.
- (2) **Norms:** Norms are expected standards of behaviour and beliefs established, agreed upon, and enforced by group members. They may be considered as a group's 'unspoken rules'. For example, in your family, there are norms that guide the behaviour of family members. These norms represent shared ways of viewing the world.
- (3) **Status:**
 - (a) Status refers to the relative social position given to group members by others.
 - (b) This relative position or status may be:



- **Ascribed:** Status given may be because of one's seniority.
- **Achieved:** The person has achieved status because of expertise or hard work.

- (c) By being members of the group, we enjoy the status associated with that group. All of us, therefore, strive to be members of such groups which are high in status or are viewed favourably by others.
 - (d) Even within a group, different members have different prestige and status. For example, the captain of a cricket team has a higher status compared to the other members, although all are equally important for the team's success.
- (4) **Cohesiveness:**
- (a) Cohesiveness refers to togetherness, binding, or mutual attraction among group members. As the group becomes more cohesive, group members start to think, feel and act as a social unit, and less like isolated individuals.

- (b) Members of a highly cohesive group have a greater desire to remain in the group in comparison to those who belong to low cohesive groups. It is difficult to leave a cohesive group or to gain membership of a group which is highly cohesive.
- (c) Cohesiveness refers to the team spirit or 'we feeling' or a sense of belongingness to the group.
- (d) Extreme cohesiveness however, may sometimes not be in a group's interest. Psychologists have identified the phenomenon of groupthink (where cohesion can interfere with effective leadership and can lead to disastrous decisions) which is a consequence of extreme cohesiveness.

• **GROUPTHINK**

- (1) Irving Janis has suggested that cohesion can interfere with effective leadership and can lead to disastrous decisions in some situations. Janis discovered a process known as "groupthink" in which a group allows its concerns for unanimity to "override the motivation to realistically appraise courses of action".
- (2) It results in the tendency of decision makers to make irrational and uncritical decisions.
- (3) Groupthink is characterised by the appearance of consensus or unanimous agreement within a group. Each member believes that all members agree upon a particular decision or a policy. No one expresses dissenting opinion because each person believes it would undermine the cohesion of the group and s/he would be unpopular.
- (4) Studies have shown that such a group has an exaggerated sense of its own power to control events, and tends to ignore or minimise cues from the real world that suggest danger to its plan. In order to preserve the group's internal harmony and collective well-being, it becomes increasingly out-of-touch with reality.
- (5) Groupthink is likely to occur in socially homogenous, cohesive groups that are isolated from outsiders, that have no tradition of considering alternatives, and that face a decision with high costs or failures.
- (6) Examples of several group decisions at the international level can be cited as illustrations of groupthink phenomenon. These decisions turned out to be major fiascos. The Vietnam War is an example.

From 1964 to 1967, President Lyndon Johnson and his advisors in the U.S. escalated the Vietnam War thinking that this would bring North Vietnam to the peace table. The escalation decisions were made despite warnings. The grossly miscalculated move resulted in the loss of 56,000 American and more than one million Vietnamese lives and created huge budget deficits. Other examples may include the Bay of Pigs invasion and the Korea War.

- (7) Some ways to counteract or prevent groupthink are:
 - (i) Encouraging and rewarding critical thinking and even disagreement among group members
 - (ii) Encouraging groups to present alternative courses of action
 - (iii) Inviting outside experts to evaluate the group's decisions
 - (iv) Encouraging members to seek feedback from trusted others.

• **TYPE OF GROUPS**

(1) **Groups differ in many respects:**

- Some have a large number of members (e.g., a country), some are small (e.g., a family)
- some are short-lived (e.g., a committee), some remain together for many years (e.g., religious groups)
- some are highly organised (e.g., army, police, etc.), and others are informally organised (e.g., spectators of a match)

(2) **The major types of groups include:**

- Primary and secondary groups
- Formal and informal groups
- Ingroup and outgroup

(3) Primary and Secondary Groups

| Primary Group | Secondary Group |
|--|--|
| primary groups are pre-existing formations which are usually given to the individual. | Secondary groups are those which the individual joins by choice. |
| There is a face-to-face interaction, members have close physical proximity, and they share warm emotional bonds. Primary groups are central to individual's functioning and have a very major role in developing values and ideals of the individual during the early stages of development. | Relationships among members are more impersonal, indirect, and less frequent. |
| Boundaries are less permeable, i.e. members do not have the option to choose its membership | It is easy to leave and join another group. |
| For example, family, caste, and religion are primary groups | For example, Membership of a political party is an example of a secondary group. |

(4) Formal and informal groups

| Formal Group | Informal Group |
|---|---|
| The functions of a formal group are explicitly stated as are the roles to be performed by group members. The formation of formal groups is based on some specific rules or laws and members have definite roles. There are a set of norms which help in establishing order. | The formation of informal groups is not based on rules or laws and there is close relationship among members. |
| For example, an office organisation, a university | For example, social circles like book clubs, cliques and friendships |

(5) Ingroup and Outgroup

Individuals often compare the group they belong to with groups of which they are not a member.

| Ingroup | Outgroup |
|---|--|
| The term 'ingroup' refers to one's own group. | 'Outgroup' refers to another group. |
| For ingroup members, the word 'we' is used, to categorise people as similar. | For outgroup members, the word 'they' is used, to categorise people as different. |
| It has been found that persons in the ingroup are generally supposed to be similar, are viewed favourably, and have desirable traits. | Members of the outgroup are viewed differently and are often perceived negatively in comparison to the ingroup members. |
| Perceptions of outgroup can negatively affect our social lives. Although it is common to make these categorisations, it should be appreciated that these categories are not real and are created by us. | In some cultures, plurality is celebrated, as has been the case in India. We have a unique composite culture which is reflected not only in the lives we live, but also in our art, architecture, and music. |

• DEMONSTRATING THE INGROUP VERSUS OUTGROUP PERCEPTION

❖ Tajfel's Minimal Group Paradigm Experiments

- (1) Henri Tajfel and his colleagues were interested in knowing the minimal conditions for intergroup behaviour. 'Minimal group paradigm' was developed to answer this question.
- (2) British school- boys expressed their preference for paintings by two artists — Vassily Kandinsky and Paul Klee. Children were told that it was an experiment on decision-making.
- (3) They knew the groups in which they were grouped (Kandinsky group and Klee group). The identity of other group members was hidden using code numbers.
- (4) The children then distributed money between recipients only by code number and group membership. Even though these groups were created on a flimsy criterion (i.e. preference for paintings by two artists) which had no past history or future, results showed that children favoured their own group.

● INFLUENCE OF GROUP ON INDIVIDUAL BEHAVIOUR

❖ What is the nature of group influence?

❖ What impact does the presence of others have on our performance?

Groups are powerful as they are able to influence the behaviour of individuals. The implications of group influence can be discussed through two situations:

- (i) an individual performing an activity alone in the presence of others (social facilitation: *See chapter 6*)
- (ii) an individual performing an activity along with the others as part of a larger group (social loafing)

Social Facilitation

Social facilitation research suggests that presence of others leads to arousal and can motivate individuals to enhance their performance if they are already good at solving something. This enhancement occurs when a person's efforts are individually evaluated.

Social Loafing

- (1) If efforts of an individual in a group are pooled to look at the performance of the group as a whole, it has been found that individuals work less hard in a group than they do when performing alone.
- (2) This points to a phenomenon referred to as 'social loafing' - a reduction in individual effort when working on a collective task, i.e. one in which outputs are pooled with those of other group members.
- (3) An example of such a task is the game of tug-of-war. It is not possible for you to identify how much force each member of the team has been exerting. Such situations give opportunities to group members to relax and become a free-rider.
- (4) Demonstrating social loafing: latane and colleagues
 - (a) Latane and his associates asked group of male students to clap or cheer as loudly as possible as they (experimenters) were interested in knowing how much noise people make in social settings. They varied the group size; individuals were either alone, or in groups of two, four and six.
 - (b) The results of the study showed that although the total amount of noise rose up, as size increased, the amount of noise produced by each participant dropped. In other words, each participant put in less effort as the group size increased.

❖ Why does social loafing occur?

The explanations offered are:

- (1) Group members feel less responsible for the overall task being performed and therefore exert less effort.
- (2) Motivation of members decreases because they realise that their contributions will not be evaluated on individual basis.
- (3) The performance of the group is not to be compared with other groups.
- (4) There is an improper coordination (or no coordination) among members.
- (5) Belonging to the same group is not important for members. It is only an aggregate of individuals.

❖ Reducing Social Loafing

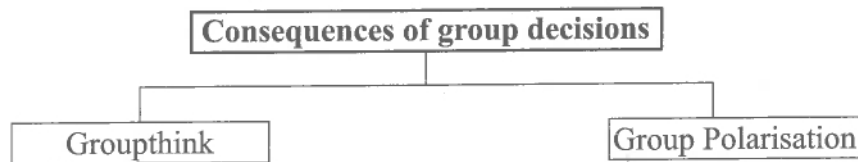
Social loafing may be reduced by:

- (1) Making the efforts of each person identifiable.
- (2) Increasing the pressure to work hard (making group members committed to successful task performance).
- (3) Increasing the apparent importance or value of a task.
- (4) Making people feel that their individual contribution is important.
- (5) Strengthening group cohesiveness which increases the motivation for successful group outcome.

● GROUP DECISION-MAKING

❖ Important decisions are taken by groups and not by individuals alone.

❖ For example, a decision is to be taken whether a school has to be established in a village. Such a decision has to be a group decision.



I. Groupthink

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II. Group Polarisation

- (1) Groups show another tendency referred to as ‘group polarisation’. It has been found that groups are more likely to take extreme decisions than individuals alone. For example, suppose there is an employee who has been caught taking bribe or engaging in some other unethical act such as embezzlement. Her/his colleagues are asked to decide on what punishment s/he should be given. They may let her/him go scot-free or decide to terminate her/his services instead of imposing a punishment which may be commensurate with the unethical act s/he had engaged in.
- (2) Whatever the initial position in the group, this position becomes much stronger as a result of discussions in the group. This strengthening of the group’s initial position as a result of group interaction and discussion is referred to as group polarisation.
- (3) This may sometimes have dangerous repercussions as groups may take extreme positions, i.e. from very weak to very strong decisions.

• WHY DOES GROUP POLARISATION OCCUR?

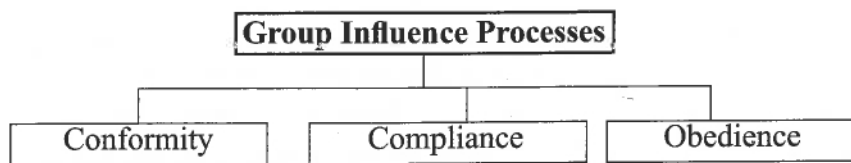
- (i) **Consolidation of one’s opinion:** In the company of like-minded people, you are likely to hear newer arguments favouring your viewpoints.
- (ii) **Bandwagon effect:** When you find others also favouring your stance, you feel that your view is validated by the public. This is a sort of bandwagon effect.
- (iii) **Identification as ingroup:** When you find people having similar views, you are likely to perceive them as ingroup. You start identifying with the group, begin showing conformity, and as a consequence your views become strengthened.

For example, let us take an example whether capital punishment should be there. Suppose you favour capital punishment for heinous crimes, what would happen if you were interacting with and discussing this issue with like-minded people?

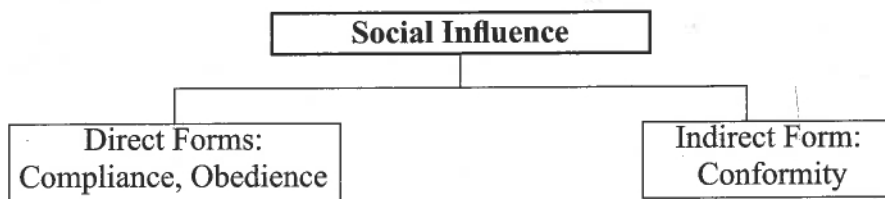
After this interaction, your views may become stronger because you hear new arguments favouring your viewpoint (consolidation of opinion), others validate your opinion by agreeing (bandwagon effect) and you begin indentifying with those you believe in capital punishment (ingroup identification)

• **CONFORMITY, COMPLIANCE, AND OBEDIENCE**

- ❖ Groups and individuals exert influence on us which may force us to change our behaviours in a particular direction.
- ❖ The term ‘social influence’ refers to those processes whereby our attitudes and behaviours are influenced by the real or imagined presence of other people.
- ❖ For example, parents, teachers, friends, radio and television commercials create one or the other kind of social influence.



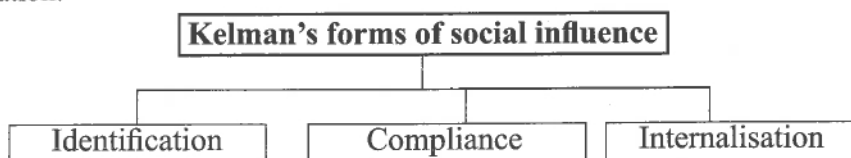
- ❖ Social influence is a part of our life. In some situations, social influence on us is very strong as a result of which we tend to do things which we otherwise would have not done.
- ❖ On other occasions, we are able to defy influence of others and may even influence them to adopt our own viewpoint.



- ❖ **Conformity** means behaving according to the group norm, i.e. the expectations of other group members. Persons who do not conform (called ‘deviants’ or ‘non-conformists’) get noticed more than those who do conform.
 - For example, if in school, some of your friends come to you with a letter of protest against a rule that has been recently announced, i.e. banning use of mobile phones in the school.
 - Personally you believe that the rule is very sensible and should be enforced. But you also know that if you do not sign the letter, you will lose many friends and get a bad name for not keeping ‘student unity’. If you would agree to sign the letter, you have conformed.

❖ **Kelman’s Work**

- Herbert C. Kelman distinguished three forms of social influence, viz. compliance, identification, and internalisation:



(a) In compliance, there are external conditions that force the individual to accept the influence of the significant other. Compliance also refers to behaving in a particular way in response to a request made by someone.

For example, you may sign the letter with the thought that you were accepting the request, not because you agree with other students, but because you have been requested to do so by a significant member. This would be a case of compliance also called ‘external/public conformity’.

- (b) Compliance could take place even without a norm. For example, a member of a community group for 'clean environment' requests you to put a sticker on your bike that reads, 'Say No to Plastic Bags'. You agree to do so, not because of a group norm, or even because you personally believe in banning plastic bags, but because you see no harm or problem in putting such a sticker on your bike. At the same time, you find it easier to say 'yes' rather than 'no' to such a harmless (and eventually meaningful) request.
- (c) *Identification*, according to Kelman, refers to influence process based on agreement-seeking or identity-seeking.
- (d) *Internalisation* is a process based on information-seeking.

Another form of behaviour is 'obedience' :

- (a) A distinguishing feature of obedience is that such behaviour is a response to a person in authority.
- (b) In the example given above, you may sign the letter more readily if a senior teacher or a student leader asks you to do so. In such a situation, you are not necessarily following a group norm but rather carrying out an instruction or an order.
- (c) The presence of an authority figure immediately makes obedience different from conformity. For instance, you may stop talking loudly in the classroom when the teacher asks you to keep quiet, but not when your classmate tells you to do the same thing.

• CONFORMITY, COMPLIANCE, AND OBEDIENCE: SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

- ❖ All three indicate the influence of others on an individual's behaviour.
- ❖ Obedience is the most direct and explicit form of social influence.
- ❖ Compliance is less direct than obedience because someone has requested and thus you comply (here, the probability of refusal is there).
- ❖ Conformity is the most indirect form (you are conforming because you do not want to deviate from the norm).

• CONFORMITY

(Why People Conform/Why People Follow Norms)

- (1) Sometimes people follow group norms even when the only 'punishment' they may face if they do not, is the displeasure of the group, or being perceived as 'different.' People may conform even when they know that the norm itself is not desirable. It seems that the 'natural' or 'spontaneous' tendency to follow a norm is natural, and does not need any special explanation.
- (2) First, norms represent a set of unwritten and informal 'rules' of behaviour that provide information to members of a group about what is expected of them in specific situations. This makes the whole situation clearer, and allows both the individual and the group to function more smoothly.
- (3) Second, in general, people feel uncomfortable if they are considered 'different' from others. Behaving in a way that differs from the expected form of behaviour may lead to disapproval or dislike by others, which is a form of social punishment. This is something that most people fear, often in an imagined way. Following the norm is, thus, the simplest way of avoiding disapproval and obtaining approval from others.
- (4) Third, the norm is seen as reflecting the views and beliefs of the majority. Most people believe that the majority is more likely to be right rather than wrong. People conform to the norm because they believe that the majority must be right.

An instance of this is often observed in quiz shows on television. When a contestant is at a loss for the correct answer to a question, s/he may opt for an audience opinion, the person most often tends to choose the same option that the majority of the audience chooses.

- (5) The pioneering experiments on conformity were carried out by Muzafer Sherif and Solomon Asch.

I. Sherif's Autokinetic Effect

- (a) Sherif conducted a series of experiments to demonstrate how groups form their norms, and members make their judgments according to these norms. Participants were seated in a darkroom, and asked to

concentrate on a point of light. After watching this point of light, each person was asked to estimate the distance through which the point had moved.

- (b) This kind of judgment had to be made over a number of trials. After each trial, the group was given information about the average distance judged by the members. It was observed that on subsequent trials, subjects modified their judgments in a way that made them more similar to the group average.
- (c) The interesting aspect of this experiment was that the point of light actually did not move at all. The light was only seen as moving by the participant (therefore, the effect has been called the 'autokinetic effect').
- (d) Yet in response to instructions from the experimenter, the participants not only judged the distance the light moved, but also created a norm for this distance. Note that the participants were not given any information regarding the nature of change, if any, in their judgments over trials.

II. The Asch Technique

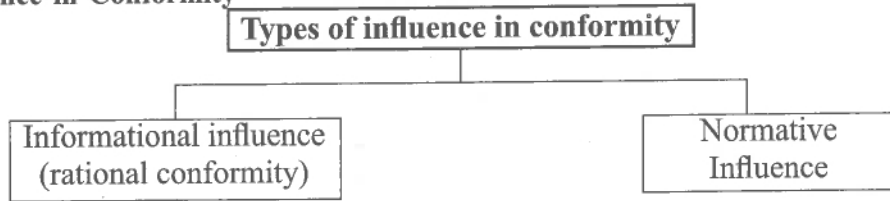
- (a) Asch examined how much conformity there would be when one member of a group experiences pressure from the rest of the group to behave in a specific way, or to give a particular judgment.
- (b) A group of seven persons participated in an experiment that was a 'vision test'. There was actually only one true subject. The other six participants were associates of the experimenter, or 'confederates' as they are called in social psychology. These confederates were given instructions to give specific responses. Of course, this was not known to the true subject.
- (c) All participants were shown a vertical line (standard line) that had to be compared with three vertical lines of different lengths, A, B, and C (comparison lines). Participants had to state which of the comparison lines, A, B, or C, was equal to the standard line.
- (d) When the experiment began, each participant, by turn, announced her/his answer. The first five persons gave wrong answers (as they had been instructed to do so). The true subject's turn came last-but-one in each round. So the true subject had the experience of 5 persons giving incorrect answers before her/him. The last person (also a confederate) gave the same incorrect answer as the first five persons. Even if the true subject felt that these answers were incorrect, a norm had been presented to her/him. There were twelve trials.
- (e) It was observed that 67% subjects showed conformity, and gave the same incorrect answer as the majority, in a situation in which the answers were to be given publicly.
- (f) The main lesson is that the degree of conformity among the group members is determined by many factors which are situation-specific.

• DETERMINANTS OF CONFORMITY

- (i) **Size of the group:** Conformity is greater when the group is small than when the group is large. It is easier for a deviant member (one who does not conform) to be noticed in a small group. However, in a large group, if there is strong agreement among most of the members, this makes the majority stronger, and therefore, the norm is also stronger. In such a case, the minority member(s) would be more likely to conform because the group pressure would be stronger.
- (ii) **Size of the minority:** When the dissenting or deviating minority's size increases, the likelihood of conformity decreases. In fact, it may increase the number of dissenters or non-conformists in the group.
- (iii) **Nature of the task:** In comparing situations where there is something like a correct or an incorrect answer, or where answers can vary widely without any answer being correct or incorrect, conformity would be less likely in the second situation.
- (iv) **Public or private expression of behaviour:** In some situations, the group members are asked to give their answers publicly, i.e. all members know who has given which response. However, there can be other situations (e.g., voting by secret ballot) in which the behaviour of members is private (not known to others). Less conformity is found under private expression than it is seen under public expression.
- (v) **Personality:** Some individuals have a conforming personality. Such persons have a tendency to change their behaviour according to what others say or do in most situations. By contrast, there are individuals who are independent, and do not look for a norm in order to decide how to behave in a specific situation.

Research has shown that highly intelligent people, those who are confident of themselves, those who are strongly committed and have a high self-esteem are less likely to conform.

Types of Influence in Conformity



I. Informational/Rational Influence

- Conformity takes place because of informational influence, i.e. influence that results from accepting evidence rather than reality.
- This kind of rational conformity can be thought of as learning about the world from the actions of others.
- We learn by observing people, who are the best source of information about many social conventions.
- New group members learn about the group's customs by observing the actions of other group members.

II. Normative Influence

- Conformity may also occur because of normative influence, i.e. influence based on a person's desire to be accepted or admired by others.
- In such cases, people conform because deviation from group may lead to rejection or at the least, non-acceptance of some form of punishment.
- It is generally observed that the group majority determines the final decision, but in certain conditions, a minority may be more influential.
- This occurs when the minority takes a firm and uncompromising stand, thereby creating a doubt on the correctness of the majority's viewpoint, which creates a conflict within the group.

• COMPLIANCE

- (1) Compliance refers simply to behaving in response to a request from another person or group even in the absence of a norm.
- (2) For example, a good example of compliance is the kind of behaviour shown when a salesperson comes to our door. Very often, this person comes with some goods that we really do not wish to buy. Yet, sometimes to our own surprise, we find that the salesperson has spoken to us for a few minutes and the conversation has ended with a purchase of what he or she wished to sell.
- (3) Why people comply?
 - (i) In many situations, this happens because it is an easy way out of the situation. It is more polite and the other party is pleased.
 - (ii) In other situations, there could be other factors at work.
- (4) Techniques to make others comply
 - (a) **The foot-in-the-door technique:** The person begins by making a small request that the other person is not likely to refuse. Once the other person carries out the request, a bigger request is made. Simply because the other person has already complied with the smaller request, he or she may feel uncomfortable refusing the second request.
For example, someone may come to us on behalf of a group and give us a gift (something free), saying that it is for promotion. Soon afterwards, another member of the same group may come to us again, and ask us to buy a product made by the group.
 - (b) **The deadline technique:** In this technique, a 'last date' is announced until which a particular product or 'an offer' will be available. The aim is to make people 'hurry' and make the purchase before they miss the rare opportunity. It is more likely that people will buy a product under this deadline condition than if there is no such deadline.

(c) **The door-in-the-face technique:** In this technique, you begin with a large request and when this is refused a later request for something smaller, the one that was actually desired, is made, which is usually granted by the person.

• OBEDIENCE

(a) When compliance is shown to an instruction or order from a person in authority, such as parents, teachers, leaders, or policemen, that behaviour is called obedience.

(b) Why do people show obedience?

- If we disobey, some punishment might follow.
- Sometimes, it is because we believe that persons in authority must be obeyed.
- People in authority have effective means for enforcing their orders.

(c) Demonstrating Obedience: The Milgram Experiment

- Stanley Milgram conducted an experiment to show that individuals obey commands from people who are strangers.
- The experimenter informed the respondents in the study that they were participating in an experiment to study the effects of punishment on learning.
- The experiment was conducted on pairs. One person in each pair was the “learner”, whose work was to memorise pairs of words. The other participant was the “teacher”, who would read these words aloud and punish the learner when s/he made errors by giving her/him shock.
- The learner would make errors according to prearranged instructions. The teacher was asked to deliver a shock each time the learner made errors. The teacher was further told to increase the strength of the shock each time the learner made an error.
- In reality, no shocks were given. The instructions were so arranged that the teacher was faced with a dilemma — should s/he continue shocks even when they were increasingly painful? The experimenter kept on motivating the teacher to continue.
- In all, 65 percent showed total obedience. Some participants, however, protested and asked the session to end.

(d) Milgram’s study suggests that even ordinary people are willing to harm an innocent person if ordered by someone in authority.

❖ Why do people obey even when they know that their behaviour is harming others?

Psychologists have identified several reasons for this. Some of these reasons are:

- (a) People obey because they feel that they are not responsible for their own actions, they are simply carrying out orders from the authority.
- (b) Authority generally possesses symbols of status (e.g., uniform, title) which people find difficult to resist.
- (c) Authority gradually increases commands from lesser to greater levels and initial obedience binds the followers for commitment. Once you obey small orders, slowly there is an escalation of commitment for the person who is in authority and one starts obeying bigger orders.
- (d) Many times, events are moving at such a fast speed, for example in a riot situation, that one has no time to think, just obey orders from above.

• COOPERATION AND COMPETITION

(1) Behaviours in most social situations are characterised by either ‘cooperation’ or ‘competition’ :

- When groups work together to achieve shared goals, we refer to it as cooperation. The rewards in cooperative situations are group rewards and not individual rewards.
- However, when members try to maximise their own benefits and work for the realisation of self- interest, competition is likely to result.

- (2) Social groups may have both competitive as well as cooperative goals:
- Competitive goals are set in such a way that each individual can get her/his goal only if others do not attain their goals. For example, you can come first in a competition only if others do not perform to such a level that they can be judged as first.
 - A cooperative goal is one in which each individual can attain the goal only if other members of the group also attain the goal. Eg. In a hundred metres race between six people, only one can be the winner. Success depends on individual performance. In a relay race, victory depends on the collective performance of all members of a team.
- (3) Morton Deutsch investigated cooperation and competition within groups.
- (i) College students were assigned to groups of five persons and were required to solve puzzles and problems.
 - (ii) One set of groups, referred to as the 'cooperative group', were told that they would be rewarded collectively for their performance.
 - (iii) The other set of groups, labelled as 'competitive group' were told that there was a reward for individual excellence.
 - (iv) Results showed that in cooperative groups, there was more coordination, there was acceptance for each other's ideas, and members were friendlier than those in the competitive group. The main concern of the members of the cooperative group was to see that the group excels.
- (4) Although competition between individuals within a group may result in conflict and disharmony, competition between groups may increase within group cohesion and solidarity.

• **DEMONSTRATING COOPERATION AND COMPETITION: PRISONER'S DILEMMA**

- ❖ The Prisoner's Dilemma Game, which is a two person game in which both parties are faced with cooperation or competition, and depending upon their choices both can win or lose, is often used to study cooperation or competition.
- ❖ This game is based on an anecdote. Two suspects were quizzed by detectives separately. The detectives had only enough evidence to convict them for a small offence. Separately the two convicts were offered a chance to confess.
- ❖ If one confesses and the other does not, the one who confesses will get no punishment and her/his confession will be used to convict the other with a serious offence. If both confess, the punishment to both will be mild. If neither confesses, each will receive a light sentence.
- ❖ This game has been used in hundreds of experiments to demonstrate that when two parties are involved, there is a conflict between motive to cooperate and motive to compete.

• **DEMONSTRATING COMPETITION AND COOPERATION IN GROUPS**

❖ **Sherif's Summer Camp Experiments**

- (1) Sherif conducted a series of experiments on 11–12 year old boys who did not know each other. The boys were attending a summer camp. Unknown to the boys, there were researchers in the camp who examined their (the boys) behaviour.
- (2) The experiment consisted of four phases, viz. friendship formation, group formation, intergroup competition, and intergroup cooperation.
- (3) Friendship Formation: When the boys arrived at the camp, they spent their initial time together. They mixed freely with each other and chose their friends for games and other activities.
- (4) Ingroup Formation: The boys were then divided into two groups by the experimenter. The boys belonging to the two groups lived separately. Members within the group engaged in cooperative projects to increase cohesiveness. The groups were given separate names. Over time, they developed their own norms.
- (5) Intergroup Competition: The two groups were brought together in several competitive situations. Matches were organised in which the groups competed against each other. This competition brought in tension and hostility against each other as a group; so much so that the groups started calling each other names. At the same time, ingroup cohesion and loyalty became stronger.

- (6) Intergroup Cooperation: To reduce the hostility generated by intergroup competition, the researchers created a problem which affected both the groups, and both groups wanted to solve them. *Superordinate goals* could be achieved only through cooperation between the groups. The water supply of both groups was disrupted. Members of both groups helped each other to overcome this.
- (7) Superordinate goals: This intergroup cooperation phase reduced the hostility. This resulted in the development of a superordinate goal, i.e. a goal to which personal goals were subordinated.
- (8) This research is important as it showed that antagonistic and hostile behaviour can be generated by group situations. At the same time, it shows that hostility between groups can be reduced by focusing on superordinate goals, which are important and beneficial to both groups alike.

• DETERMINANTS OF COOPERATION AND COMPETITION

- ❖ **Reward structure:** Psychologists believe that whether people will cooperate or compete will depend on the reward structure. Cooperative reward structure is one in which there is promotive interdependence. Each is beneficiary of the reward and reward is possible only if all contribute. A competitive reward structure is one in which one can get a reward only if others do not get it.
- ❖ **Interpersonal communication:** When there is good interpersonal communication, then cooperation is the likely consequence. Communication facilitates interaction, and discussion. As a result, group members can convince each other and learn about each other.
- ❖ **Reciprocity:** Reciprocity means that people feel obliged to return what they get. Initial cooperation may encourage more cooperation. Competition may provoke more competition. If someone helps, you feel like helping that person; on the other hand, if someone refuses to help you when you need help, you would not like to help that person also.

• SOCIAL IDENTITY

- ❖ Social identity is one's self-definition of who one is. This self-definition may include both personal attributes, e.g., hard working, happy-go-lucky, or attributes which you share with others, e.g. gender, religion, etc.
- ❖ Some aspects of our identity are determined by physical characteristics.
- ❖ We may acquire other aspects as a consequence of our interaction with others in society. Sometimes we perceive ourselves as unique individuals and at other times we perceive ourselves as members of groups. Both are equally valid expressions of self.
- ❖ Our personal identities derived from views of oneself as a unique individual, and social identities derived from groups we perceive ourselves to be members of, are both important to us. The extent to which we define ourselves either at personal or at social levels is flexible.
- ❖ Identification with social groups can have a great deal of importance for one's self-concept. For example, when India wins a cricket match, one might feel elated and proud because of one's social identity as an Indian.
- ❖ Social identity is, thus, that aspect of our self-concept which is based on our group membership. Social identity places us, i.e. tells us what and where we are in the larger social context, and thus helps us to locate ourselves in society.
- ❖ Social identity provides members with a shared set of values, beliefs and goals about themselves and about their social world. Once one internalises the values of one's group, this helps to coordinate and regulate your attitudes and behaviour.
- ❖ When we develop a strong identity with our own group, the categorisation as ingroup and outgroup becomes salient. The group with which you identify yourself becomes the ingroup and others become the outgroup.
- ❖ However, the negative aspect of this own group and outgroup categorisation is that we start showing favouritism towards our ingroup by rating it more favourably in comparison to the outgroup, and begin devaluing the outgroup, which is the basis of a number of intergroup conflicts.

• NATURE OF INTERGROUP CONFLICT

- ❖ Conflict is a process in which either an individual or a group perceives that others (individual or group) have opposing interests, and both try to contradict each other.
- ❖ There is this intense feeling of 'we' and 'other' (also referred to as 'they'). There is also a belief by both parties that the other will protect only its own interests; their (the other side's) interests will, therefore, not be protected.
- ❖ There is not only opposition of each other, but they also try to exert power on each other. Groups have been found to be more aggressive than individuals. This often leads to escalation of conflict.
- ❖ All conflicts are costly as there is a human price for them. In wars, there are both victories and defeats, but the human cost of war is far beyond all this. Various types of conflict are commonly seen in society, which turn out to be costly for both sides as well as for society.

• REASONS FOR GROUP CONFLICT

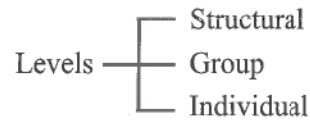
Major reasons for group conflicts include:

- (1) **Lack of communication:** One major reason is lack of communication and faulty communication by both parties. This kind of communication leads to suspicion, i.e. there is a lack of trust. Hence, conflict results.
- (2) **Relative deprivation:** Another reason for intergroup conflict is relative deprivation. It arises when members of a group compare themselves with members of another group, and perceive that they do not have what they desire to have, which the other group has. In other words, they feel that they are not doing well in comparison to other groups. This may lead to feelings of deprivation and discontentment, which may trigger off conflict.
- (3) **Beliefs of parties involved:** Another cause of conflict is one party's belief that it is better than the other, and what it is saying should be done. When this does not happen, both parties start accusing each other. One may often witness a tendency to magnify even smaller differences, thereby conflict gets escalated because every member wants to respect the norms of her/his group.
- (4) **Lack of respect:** A feeling that the other group does not respect the norms of my group, and actually violates those norms because of a malevolent intent, may lead to conflict.
- (5) **Desire for retaliation:** Desire for retaliation for some harm done in the past could be another reason for conflict.
- (6) **Biased perceptions:** Biased perceptions caused by feelings of 'we' and 'they' are at the root of most conflicts.
- (7) **Competition:** Research has shown that when acting in groups, people are more competitive as well as more aggressive than when they are on their own. Groups compete over scarce resources, both material resources, e.g. territory, and money as well as social resources, e.g. respect and esteem.
- (8) **Perceived inequality:** Perceived inequity is another reason for conflict. Equity refers to distribution of rewards in proportion to an individual's contributions, that is, one's contributions and rewards should match with those of one's friends/peers. But, if one contributes more and gets less, one is likely to feel irritated and exploited.

• INTERPLAY BETWEEN INTERGROUP CONFLICT AND INGROUP POLARISATION

- ❖ Conflicts between groups give impetus to a series of social and cognitive processes which harden the stand of each side leading to ingroup polarisation.
- ❖ This may result in coalition formation of like-minded parties, thereby increasing the apprehensions of both parties resulting in misperceptions, and biased interpretations and attributions.
- ❖ The result is increased conflict.
- ❖ Present-day society is fraught with various intergroup conflicts. These are related to caste, class, religion, region, language, just to name a few of them.
- ❖ Gardner Murphy wrote a book entitled 'In the Minds of Men', detailing how most conflicts begin in the minds of men and then go to the field.

- **EXPLAINING CONFLICT (LEVELS)**



- (1) Structural conditions include high rates of poverty, economic and social stratification, inequality, limited political and social opportunity, etc.
- (2) Research on group level factors has shown that social identity, realistic conflict between groups over resources, and unequal power relations between groups lead to escalation of conflict.
- (3) At the individual level, beliefs, biased attitudes, and personality characteristics are important determinants. It has been found that at the individual level, there is a progression along a continuum of violence. Very small acts that initially may have no significance, like calling the other group a name, may lead to psychological changes that make further destructive actions possible.

- **CONSEQUENCES OF INTERGROUP CONFLICT**

Deutsch identified the following consequences of intergroup conflict:

- (1) Communication between the groups becomes poor. The groups do not trust each other, thereby leading to a breakdown in communication and this generates suspicion for each other.
- (2) Groups start magnifying their differences and start perceiving their behaviour as fair and the other's behaviour as unfair.
- (3) Each side tries to increase its own power and legitimacy. As a consequence, the conflict gets escalated shifting from few specific issues to much larger issues.
- (4) Once conflict starts, several other factors lead to escalation of conflict. Hardening of ingroup opinion, explicit threats directed at the outgroup, each group retaliating more and more, and other parties also choosing to take sides lead to escalation of conflict.

- **CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES**

- (i) **Conflicts** can be reduced if we know about their causes. The processes that increase conflict can be turned around to reduce it also.
- (ii) **Introduction of superordinate goals:** By introducing superordinate goals, intergroup conflict can be reduced. A superordinate goal is mutually beneficial to both parties, hence both groups work cooperatively. Eg. As Shown in Sherif's summer camp studies
- (iii) **Altering perceptions:** Conflicts can also be reduced by altering perceptions and reactions through persuasion, educational and media appeals, and portrayal of groups differently in society. Promoting empathy for others should be taught to everyone right from the beginning.
- (iv) **Increasing intergroup contacts:** Conflict can also be reduced by increasing contacts between the groups. This can be done by involving groups in conflict on neutral grounds through community projects and events. The idea is to bring them together so that they become more appreciative of each other's stand. However, for contacts to be successful, they need to be maintained, which means that they should be supported over a period of time.
- (v) **Redrawing group boundaries:** Another technique that has been suggested by some psychologists is redrawing the group boundaries. This can be done by creating conditions where group boundaries are redefined and groups come to perceive themselves as belonging to a common group.
- (vi) **Negotiations and other third party interventions:**
 - (a) Conflict can also be resolved through negotiations and third party interventions. Warring groups can resolve conflict by trying to find mutually acceptable solutions. This requires understanding and trust.
 - (b) Negotiation refers to reciprocal communications so as to reach an agreement in situations in which there is a conflict.

(c) Sometimes it is difficult to dissipate conflict through negotiations; at that time mediation and arbitration by a third party is needed. Mediators help both parties to focus their discussions on the relevant issues and reach a voluntary agreement. In arbitration, the third party has the authority to give a decision after hearing both parties.

(vii) **Structural solutions:** Conflict can also be reduced by redistributing the societal resources according to principles based on justice. Research on justice has identified several principles of justice. Some of these are:

- equality (allocating equally to everyone),
- need (allocating on the basis of needs),
- equity (allocating on the basis of contributions of members)

(viii) **Respect for the other group's norms:** In a pluralist society like India, it is necessary to respect and be sensitive to the strong norms of various social and ethnic groups. It has been noticed that a number of communal riots between different groups have taken place because of such insensitivity.

QUESTION BANK

MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Collection of people who may be present at a place or situation by chance is called _____.
(a) Team (b) Crowd (c) Audience (d) Mob
2. People standing on the road to watch an accident forms _____.
(a) Crowd (b) Team (c) Audience (d) Mob
3. Members having complementary skills and are committed to a common goal or purpose form _____.
(a) Audience (b) Crowd (c) Team (d) Mob
4. In teams, both individual contributions and teamwork matter _____.
(a) True (b) False (c) Can't say (d) Incomplete
5. People who are watching cricket in stadium forms _____.
(a) Team (b) Crowd (c) Audience (d) Mob
6. When audience become frenzy and impulsive they become _____.
(a) Team (b) Crowd (c) Audience (d) Mob
7. When we become friends with others become we meet them every day. This refers to _____.
(a) Similarity (b) Proximity (c) Security (d) Self esteem
8. Who proposed Stages of Group Formation _____.
(a) Cottrell (b) Tuckman (c) Fritz Heider (d) None of these
9. When group members first meet they try to know each other and assess whether they will fit in the group. This refers to _____.
(a) Forming (b) Storming (c) Norming (d) Performing
10. When _____ stage is complete, some sort of hierarchy of leadership in the group develops and a clear vision as to how to achieve the group goal _____.
(a) Forming (b) Storming (c) Norming (d) Performing
11. When the goal is achieved the group may be disbanded. This stage of disbanding of group is called _____.
(a) Forming (b) Storming (c) Norming (d) Adjourning
12. Socially defined expectations that individuals in a given situation are expected to fulfil is called _____.
(a) Role (b) Norms (c) Status (d) Goals
13. Being the eldest your grandfather has acquired the status of head of the family. This status is _____.
(a) Ascribed (b) Achieved (c) Ascertained (d) Adjourning

14. The feeling of togetherness that binds the group members is called _____.
- (a) Status (b) Cohesiveness (c) Roles (d) Group polarization
15. During a meeting Anil feels that the decision of the CEO might lead to extreme financial loss to the company but does not contradict the unanimous decision. This refers as
- (a) Group think (b) Group polarization (c) Compliance (d) None of these
16. During a school competition Anita prefers to sit with her own team and gossips about the other team. She does this as she forms _____ with her school team.
- (a) Out group (b) Ingroup (c) Formal Group (d) None of these
17. During a tug of war some students are just pretending to be pulling the rope. This phenomena is referred as
- (a) Conformity (b) Compliance (c) Social Loafing (d) Social Inhibition
18. In a study it was seen that, as size increased of the group increased although the total amount of noise rose up, the amount of noise produced by each participant dropped. This happened because
- (a) Group members feel less responsible for the overall task being performed and therefore exert less effort.
 (b) Motivation of members decreases because they realise that their contributions will not be evaluated on individual basis.
 (c) The performance of the group is not to be compared with other groups
 (d) All the above
19. When the initial position in the group, becomes much stronger as a result of discussions in the group this is called
- (a) Conformity (b) Compliance (c) Group polarization (d) Social Loafing
20. When you find others also favouring your viewpoint you feel that your views are validated by the public. This is called
- (a) Bandwagon effect (b) Group think (c) Conformity (d) None of these
21. Your friends ask you to bring phone to school and you think it's wrong but you still get it as you don't want to lose your friends. You are showing _____.
- (a) Compliance (b) Conformity (c) Obedience (d) Group think
22. In Asch experiment on conformity the result showed:
- (a) Majority of the participants gave the same answer as others
 (b) Only few gave the same answer as others
 (c) There were equal number of [participants showing conformity and non-conformity
 (d) None of these
23. There is more conformity when the expression of behaviour is _____.
- (a) Partner (b) Public (c) Private (d) Secret
24. _____ refers to behaving in response to a request from another person or group even in the absence of a norm
- (a) Compliance (b) Conformity (c) Obedience (d) Group think
25. When a friend asks to borrow a small amount of money, then later asks to borrow a larger amount is an example of
- (a) Foot in the door technique (b) The deadline technique
 (c) The door-in-the-face technique (d) None of these
26. Identify the technique used in the following example 'last date' is announced until which a particular product or 'an offer' will be available
- (a) Foot in the door technique (b) The deadline technique
 (c) The door-in-the-face technique (d) None of these
27. When a friend asks to borrow an unreasonable sum of money, to which you say no, only to turn around and ask for a smaller sum that you agree to give is an example of
- (a) Foot in the door technique (b) The deadline technique
 (c) The door-in-the-face technique (d) None of these

28. When compliance is shown to an instruction or order from a person in authority it is called ____
 (a) Compliance (b) Conformity (c) Group think (d) Obedience
29. Milgram study on obedience shows:
 (a) Ordinary people are willing to harm an innocent person if ordered by someone in authority
 (b) Ordinary people do not harm an innocent person even if ordered by someone in authority
 (c) There was not much connection between obedience and following orders by authority
 (d) None of these
30. Why do people obey even when they know that their behaviour is harming others?
 (a) People obey because they feel that they are not responsible for their own actions
 (b) Authority generally possesses symbols of status
 (c) Many times, events are moving at such a fast speed, for example in a riot situation that one has no time to think
 (d) All the above
31. When groups work together to achieve shared goals, we refer to it as
 (a) Cooperation (b) Competition (c) Compliance (d) Conformity
32. A relay race is an example of:
 (a) Cooperative goals (b) Competitive goals (c) Compliance (d) Conformity
33. Competitive reward structure is one in which there is promotive interdependence:
 (a) True (b) False (c) Can't say (d) None of these
34. When people feel obliged to return what they get it is termed as
 (a) Reciprocity (b) Competition (c) Compliance (d) Conformity
35. When the members of a group compare themselves with members of another group, and perceive that they do not have what they desire to have, which the other group has, referred as
 (a) Lack of communication (b) Relative deprivation
 (c) Feeling of being superior to other group (d) Desire for retaliation
36. Faulty communication indicates some harm done in the past could be another reason for conflict.
 (a) True (b) False (c) Can't say (d) Incomplete
37. _____ refers to distribution of rewards in proportion to an individual's contribution.
 (a) Lack of communication (b) Relative deprivation (c) Equity (d) Desire for retaliation
38. Who wrote the book entitled 'In the Minds of Men'?
 (a) Howard Gardner (b) Gardner Murphy (c) Robert Sternberg (d) None of these
39. The goal is mutually beneficial to both parties is called ____
 (a) Super Goal (b) Ordinate goals (c) Superordinate goals (d) None of these
40. The train service Samjahuta Express between India and Pakistan explain which conflict resolution technique:
 (a) Altering perceptions (b) Negotiations
 (c) Structural solutions (d) Increasing intergroup contacts

Input-Text Based MCQs

Read the passage and answer the questions that follow (41 to 43).

In a well-known example 'Challenger Space Shuttle disaster' the engineers of the space shuttle knew about some faulty parts months before take-off, but they did not want negative press so they pushed ahead with the launch anyway. President Ronald Reagan was also announcing the launch at his Union address that night. The only option that NASA and Morton Thiokol felt they had was to continue with the launch as scheduled. The result was in January of 1986, the orbiter Challenger exploded 73 seconds after the launch taking lives of many crew members.

41. Which concept has been discussed?
 (a) Group polarisation (b) Group think (c) Conformity (d) Cooperation
42. Who gave this concept?
 (a) Irvin Janis (b) Sherif (c) Asch (d) None of these
43. This behaviour is observed due to extreme _____.
 (a) Cohesiveness (b) Status (c) Role expectation (d) Competition

Read the passage and answer the questions that follow (44 to 46).

This phenomenon has been demonstrated in many experiments by psychologist, who asked group of male students to clap or cheer as loudly as possible as they (experimenters) were interested in knowing how much noise people make in social settings. They varied the group size; individuals were either alone, or in groups of two, four and six. The result of the study showed that although the total amount of noise rose up, as size increased, the amount of noise produced by each participant dropped. In other words, each participant put in less effort as the group size increase.

44. Identify the phenomena discussed.
 (a) Social loafing (b) Group polarization (c) Social cognition (d) Social facilitation
45. Name the psychologist associated.
 (a) Irvin Janis (b) Sherif (c) Asch (d) Latane
46. How can this phenomenon be reduced?
 (a) Making the efforts of each person identifiable (b) Increasing the pressure to work hard
 (c) Increasing the apparent importance or value of a task (d) All of these

ANSWERS

Multiple Choice Questions

1. (b) 2. (a) 3. (c) 4. (a) 5. (c) 6. (d) 7. (b) 8. (b) 9. (a) 10. (b)
 11. (d) 12. (a) 13. (a) 14. (b) 15. (a) 16. (c) 17. (c) 18. (d) 19. (c) 20. (a)
 21. (b) 22. (a) 23. (c) 24. (a) 25. (a) 26. (b) 27. (c) 28. (d) 29. (a) 30. (d)
 31. (a) 32. (b) 33. (b) 34. (a) 35. (b) 36. (b) 37. (c) 38. (b) 39. (c) 40. (d)

Input-Text Based MCQs

41. (b) 42. (a) 43. (a) 44. (a) 45. (d) 46. (d)