

Lecture Notes:

- Humans are among the most social species on the planet.
- Humans are considered ultrasocial, along with ants, bees, termites and naked mole rats.
- Ultrasocial organisms form large societies, divide labour, and cooperate for mutual benefit.
- **Social psychology** is the study of the causes and consequences of being social.
- As an introduction to social psychology, we will focus on four main aspects of being social:
 1. Aggression
 2. Cooperation
 3. Altruism
 4. Reproduction
- **Aggression** is behaviour with the purpose of harming another. This aggression can be directed at a member of their own species or at a member of another species. Animals are aggressive for the same reason they are cooperative, aggression and cooperation both serve the same purpose: survival.
- One hypothesis for why humans and other animals aggress is the **frustration-aggression hypothesis**, which states that animals aggress when their desires are frustrated. E.g. Organism A frustrates Organism B's desire for food, so Organism B attacks Organism A.
- Some researchers argue that this hypothesis is too narrow. Humans sometimes aggress when they are feeling negative emotional states even if their desires aren't being frustrated.
- Although all humans aggress, some humans are more likely than others to do so. Some factors that make a human more likely to aggress include:
 1. Biological factors:
 - a. Genetics
 - b. Sex
 - c. Testosterone levels
 2. Environmental factors:
 - a. Culture
 - b. Societal expectations
- The greatest predictors of an individual's level of aggression are immediate family members who are aggressive and the sex of the person. Men are significantly more aggressive than women. Testosterone appears to be implicated. Younger men with more testosterone = more aggressive and women with more testosterone = more aggressive.
- While testosterone does not directly cause aggression, testosterone does not appear to make people more aggressive across situations, it appears to decrease individuals' threat assessments. People with more testosterone are less afraid of retaliation.
- Although aggression is evolutionarily adaptive, it has decreased significantly in the last century. Aggression is not inevitable. Certain cultures are far more or less violent than others.
- **Cooperation** is behaviour by two or more individuals that leads to mutual benefit.
- We just cooperate all the time because it is risky and resources are scarce.
- Because cooperation is risky and resources can be scarce, we often choose to cooperate in groups. **Groups** are collections of people that have something in common that distinguishes them from others. We tend to have positive prejudices and exhibit positive discrimination toward members of our in-group.

- Group cognition is deeply engrained in human evolution. This is present in all non-human primates. Furthermore, it arises in early childhood. It can be elicited spontaneously and arbitrarily.
- Even young infants and children exhibit in-group and outgroup discrimination.
- We often have in-group or out-group beliefs that we are not even aware of. These are called beliefs **implicit biases** and these can affect our behaviours, cognitions, and emotions in subtle ways.
- One measure of implicit biases is called the **Implicit Association Test (IAT)**. It measures biases that we are unable to report ourselves. Note that these differ from biases that we are unwilling to report ourselves.
I.e. The IAT measures biases that you don't even know that you have rather than biases you try to hide.
- While groups make cooperation less risky, so we prefer to cooperate in groups, groups also have their own risks to decision making.
- **Group polarization** is when groups can sometimes make decisions that are more extreme than any member would have made alone.
- **Deindividuation** is when immersion in a group can cause people to become less concerned with their personal values.
- **Grouphink** is when groups can sometimes reach consensus too easily.
- **Diffusion of responsibility** is when individuals feel diminished responsibility for their actions when surrounded by others acting the same way. The **bystander effect** is an example of the diffusion of responsibility.
- **Common knowledge effect** is when group discussions sometimes revolve around information that everyone shares.
- Cooperation helps us to acquire and protect our resources, so it is adaptive for our survival.
- **Altruism** is behaviour that benefits another without benefiting oneself. In evolutionary terms, altruism is defined as a behaviour that reduces my fitness to increase the fitness of another individual.
I.e. I'm reducing my ability to survive and reproduce to increase someone else's ability to survive and reproduce.
- "Altruism" looks like this in other non-human animals:
 - **Kinship selection**: Extending "altruistic" behaviour to related individuals, thus increasing the likelihood that one's genetic material will be passed on.
 - **Reciprocation**: Extending "altruistic" behaviour with the expectation that the favour will be returned.
- Note:** Neither are actually/truly altruistic.
- If humans are truly altruistic, we may be alone in the animal kingdom in exhibiting altruism.
- We may or may not be altruistic, but we are certainly friendly to each other when it comes time to reproduce. **Reproduction** is one way in which almost all animals are social. Humans are especially social in this regard.
- There are three aspects of reproduction that we'll cover: **Selectivity, Attraction and Relationships**.
- Humans are quite selective in terms of their sexual partners. Women tend to be more selective than men because of biological reasons, opportunity cost and societal pressure. Some biological reasons are that females have a limited supply of eggs while males have an unlimited supply of sperm and the physical requirements and changes of

pregnancy. For opportunity cost, men can keep reproducing constantly while women can only reproduce approximately once a year. For societal pressure, there are reputational costs of promiscuity. Furthermore, women are approached more often than men are. Cultural courtship rituals can affect this selectivity.

- We choose potential sexual partners based on a number of factors that can be broken down into three categories: **Physical, Situational and Psychological**.
- One of the first things we notice about a social partner (sexual or otherwise) is their **physical appearance**. This factor is also the most powerful, at first. Beauty is universally beneficial but beauty is not universal. Being beautiful carries benefits in all cultures but not all cultures define beauty in the same ways.
For example: some cultures value overweight partners over normal-weight partners.
- Physical attraction is often the first thing that we notice, but other factors play a role as well. Perhaps the greatest factor in our attraction to each other is simply **situational**. We try hard to like the people that we are around, because we have to live with them.
- The **mere exposure effect** is the tendency for humans to become more attracted to each other with repeated exposure.
I.e. Simply spending time with someone may make you more attracted to him/her. This is especially true if we spend time together in psychologically arousing situations.
- In addition to physical and situational factors, **psychological** attraction is also important. We are more attracted to people who are similar to ourselves because:
 1. It is easy to interact with people who are similar.
 2. Interacting with similar people makes us feel confident that we are right.
 3. People who are more similar to us also like us more.
- One aspect of social psychology that we all engage in is the attempt to control other individuals. We call this control **social influence**. We are all susceptible to social influence and there are motivations for this susceptibility: **The hedonic motivation and The approval motivation**.
- The **hedonic principle** states that "All motivation is basically rooted in approach to pleasure and avoidance of pain".
I.e. The greatest motivation that humans and many animals have is attraction to pleasure and aversion to pain.
- Appealing to the hedonic principle is one of the most powerful ways to control others. However, appealing to the hedonic principle with rewards can backfire sometimes.
- Another powerful mechanism to control other individuals is to appeal to their desire for **approval**. We are motivated to have others like us and approve of us.
- One way in which approval motivates our actions is by our adherence to **norms**. We obey these norms religiously because they make us more likeable. This is called **normative influence**.
- The normative influence often causes us to conform to the behaviour of others.
I.e. Simply doing what someone else is doing because (s)he is doing it.
A famous example of this is **Asch's conformity study**.

Textbook Notes:

- **Module 13.1 The Power of the Situation Social Influences on Behaviour:**
- **Mimicry and Social Norms:**
- Although we are often unaware of it, we tend to engage in **mimicry**, taking on for ourselves the behaviours, emotional displays, and facial expressions of others.
- The **chameleon effect** describes how people mimic others non-consciously, automatically copying others' behaviours even without realizing it. You tend to laugh and

smile when others are laughing and smiling. More generally, you make the same emotional expressions on your face as those you see on the faces around you, and then pick up their moods as well.

- This kind of subtly attuned mimicry is highly functional, much of the time serving as a “social glue,” helping to coordinate behaviours in social settings, helping people to feel reassured and validated by each other, sending the unconsciously processed message to others that you are kind of like them, and more so, that you are paying attention to them in that moment. Humans are a social species, and coordinating our behaviour with others is a key part of learning to function in the social world.
- Given that mimicry is so implicit and deeply ingrained, it would make sense to expect that we humans would find it awfully difficult to resist being influenced by each other. In many different situations, we tend to conform to the **social norms** that are evident. Social norms are the guidelines for how to behave in social contexts. Norms influence everything from our manners, to the amount of alcohol we drink, food we eat, clothes we wear, and even the beliefs and attitudes we express. Social norms govern much of our behaviour, even though people often fail to realize this and instead believe that their behaviour is freely chosen.
- **Group Dynamics Social Loafing and Social Facilitation:**
- Groups sometimes produce poorer outcomes due to **social loafing**, which occurs when an individual puts less effort into working on a task with others.
- There are various phrases for describing this, coasting, slacking, free-riding. Social loafing can occur in all sorts of tasks, including physical activities, cognitive activities, and creativity, and across all types of groups, regardless of age, gender, or nationality.
- One reason why people loaf is because they think others in the group are also not doing their best, setting up an apparent social norm that “people in this group don’t work very hard.” There are two likely outcomes of social loafing. Either the group performs quite poorly, or a small number of people end up saving the group by doing everything themselves.
- Here are some factors that encourage loafing:
 - **Low efficacy beliefs.** This occurs if tasks are too difficult or complex, so people don’t know where to start. Structure tasks so people know exactly what to do, provide clear deadlines, and give people feedback so they know how well they are doing and how they can improve.
 - **Believing that one’s contributions are not important to the group.** This occurs if people can’t see how their own input matters to the group. Overcome this by helping people understand how group members rely on and affect each other, and assigning tasks to people that they feel are significant or they’ve had some say in choosing.
 - **Not caring about the group’s outcome.** This occurs when a person is not personally identified with the group, perhaps feeling socially rejected from the group or perceiving the group as unsuccessful or unimportant. Overcome this by making the group’s goals and values clear and explicit, encouraging friendships to form and group activities to be fun and socially rewarding.
 - **Feeling like others are not trying very hard.** As discussed earlier, people loaf if they feel others are loafing. Overcome this by providing feedback about the progress of group members on their individual tasks; strong groups often have regular meetings where people’s progress is discussed and, ideally, celebrated.

- In contrast to social loafing, **social facilitation** occurs when one's performance is affected by the presence of others.
- There are many different mechanisms that explain the social facilitation effect. One of the most important is that the presence of others is emotionally arousing, and arousal tends to strengthen our dominant responses. When the task is simple, our dominant responses are the right ones, but when the task is very complex, we need to be able to control our responses more carefully, and then arousal decreases performance. Thus, the effects of arousal due to social facilitation depend on one's skills and the difficulty of the task; the greater the skills and the simpler the tasks, the more likely the presence of others will enhance performance. For true masters of a skill, audiences and competitors generally enhance performance, but novices tend to perform best in practice sessions when nobody's watching.
- **Groupthink:**
- In the same way that feeling evaluated tends to limit one's full abilities, the pressures that build within groups also often limit creativity, leading people to hold back their ideas. **Groupthink** refers to this stifling of diversity that occurs when individuals are not able to express their true perspectives, instead having to focus more on maintaining harmony in the group and on not being evaluated negatively.
- **The Asch Experiments, Conformity:**
- Groupthink can occur easily without a strong leader simply because of conformity pressures that arise spontaneously in groups.
- There are two main types of social influence.
 1. **Normative influence** is the result of social pressure to adopt a group's perspective in order to be accepted, rather than rejected, by the group.
 2. **Informational influence** occurs when people feel the group is giving them useful information.
- **The Bystander Effect, Situational Influences on Helping Behaviour:**
- The **bystander effect** describes the counterintuitive finding that the presence of other people actually reduces the likelihood of helping behaviour. This is counterintuitive because, usually, one would assume that if there is a certain chance of one person doing something, like helping, then the more people that are around, the greater the cumulative chance should be that someone will help. However, it seems in many cases that as the number of people in a situation increases, helping rates actually decrease.
- The first explanation offered for the bystander effect is the **diffusion of responsibility**, which is the reduced personal responsibility that a person feels when more people are present in a situation.
- The second explanation offered for the bystander effect is that there is often a mismatch between the public behaviour that people display and the private beliefs or thoughts the people may be having. As a result, the social norms operating in the situation may be quite different from the actual beliefs held by the people themselves; this is called **pluralistic ignorance**.
- **Social Roles and Obedience:**
- In contrast to social norms, which are general rules that apply to members of a group, **social roles** are more specific sets of expectations for how someone in a specific position should behave.

- **Module 13.2 Social Cognition:**
- **Explicit processes**, which correspond roughly to conscious thought, are deliberative, effortful, relatively slow, and generally under our intentional control. This explicit level of consciousness is our subjective inner awareness, our mind as we know it.
- **Implicit processes** comprise of our unconscious thought. They are intuitive, automatic, effortless, very fast, and operate largely outside of our intentional control. The implicit level of consciousness is the larger set of patterns that govern how our mind generally functions—all the “lower-level” processes that comprise the vast bulk of what our brains actually do.
- These two sets of processes work together to regulate our bodies, continually update our perceptions, infuse emotional evaluations and layers of personal meaning to our experiences, and affect how we think, make decisions, and self-reflect. Furthermore, they also can influence each other.
- In social-cognitive psychology, models of behaviour that account for both implicit and explicit processes are called **dual-process models**.
- **Person Perception:**
- The effects of implicit processes are dramatically illustrated by research on **person perception**, the processes by which individuals categorize and form judgments about other people.
- Person perception begins the instant we encounter another person, guided by our past experiences with people and the interpersonal knowledge we have absorbed from our culture. When we make a first impression of someone, we rely heavily on implicit processes, using whatever schemas we may have available. Schemas are organized clusters of knowledge, beliefs, and expectations about individuals and groups, which influence our attention and perceptual processes in many ways.
- **Thin Slices of Behaviour:**
- One amazing aspect of these implicit processes is just how accurate and practically instantaneous they can be. What happens in these situations is that we make very rapid, implicit judgments based on **thin slices of behaviour**, very small samples of a person's behaviour. In even a few seconds, our implicit processes, guiding our perceptions holistically and using well-practised heuristics, are able to perceive very small cues and subtle patterns. This gives us instantaneous, intuitive accuracy, at least in part. Many of our social judgments are made in this way, instantaneously, based on very little information.
- **Self-Fulfilling Prophecies and Other Consequences of First Impressions:**
- First impressions have a big impact on many of our social behaviours. Even very simple cues, such as facial appearance, guide a wide range of behaviours, from how a jury treats a defendant to how people vote.
- The fact that our implicit judgments can influence our perceptions and behaviours has countless implications for our social lives, particularly in terms of **self-fulfilling prophecies**, which occur when a first impression (or an expectation) affects one's behaviour, and then that affects other people's behaviour, leading one to “confirm” the initial impression or expectation.
- **Projecting the Self Onto Others, False Consensus and Naive Realism:**
- One way in which our self-concept affects our social perceptions is that we tend to project our self-concepts onto the social world. This means that the qualities we see in ourselves and the attitudes and opinions that we hold, we tend to assume are similar for society at large.

- This tendency to project the self-concept onto the social world is known as the **false consensus effect**. It's important to understand that this is a pretty sensible way to be, much of the time.
- We also generally assume that our perceptions of reality are accurate, that we see things the way they are. This is called **naïve realism**.
- **Self-Serving Biases and Attributions:**
- This tendency toward naïve realism reflects a larger, more general need to want to feel positively about ourselves, to have a positive sense of self-evaluation or self-esteem.
- We strive to maintain our positive self-feelings through a host of **self-serving biases**, which are biased ways of processing self-relevant information to enhance our positive self-evaluation.
- One of the sneaky outgrowths of these self-serving biases and motivations is that for many of the qualities and skills that are important to us, we assume that we are better than average. This rather appropriately named **better than average effect** has been shown in many different domains.
- These same self-serving processes also influence the way we explain or interpret people's behaviour. Much in the same way that first impressions are formed implicitly, our explanations for behaviours tend to start out as automatic and seemingly intuitive. **Internal attribution/dispositional attribution** is when the observer explains the behaviour of the actor in terms of some innate quality of that person.
- **External attributions/situational attributions** is when the observer explains the actor's behaviour as the result of the situation. Generally, these external attributions are not what first come to mind. Rather, we come to them after thinking about it for a bit, and realizing that maybe there were other factors causing the person's behaviour that we didn't initially consider.
- This tendency to over-emphasize internal attributions and under-emphasize external factors when explaining other people's behaviour is known as the **fundamental attribution error (FAE)**.
- When we explain our own behaviours, we tend to emphasize whichever kind of explanation paints us in the best light. For our negative behaviours, the mistakes we make and embarrassing things we do, our attributions are much more generous. We emphasize the situational factors that cause us to do undesirable things. This obviously protects us from having to feel incompetent or foolish. However, it also might prevent us from taking responsibility for negative behaviours sometimes.
- When our behaviours are desirable, self-serving biases work in the opposite direction; we take as much credit as we can for our successes.
- **Ingroups and Outgroups:**
- Although this desire to feel good about ourselves seems functional and healthy, it often has negative side effects. Our self-serving processes also reinforce a tendency to be biased against others. We are motivated to be biased against others because one of the key ways we maintain positive feelings about ourselves is through our identification with larger social groups, and we can therefore make ourselves feel good by feeling positively towards these groups. In turn, one way to feel positively about our own group is to focus on how much better we are than other groups we compare ourselves to. Groups we feel positively toward and identify with are our **ingroups**, including our family, home team, and co-workers. **Outgroups** are those other groups that we don't identify with. In fact, we actively dis-identify with outgroups.

- This where our self-serving biases can be so destructive. As positive biases toward the self get extended to include one's ingroups, people become motivated to see their ingroups as superior to their outgroups, engaging in **ingroup bias** and potentially, outgroup derogation.
- **Stereotypes, Prejudice, and Discrimination:**
- From a social-cognitive perspective, a **stereotype** is a cognitive structure, a set of beliefs about the characteristics that are held by members of a specific social group; these beliefs function as schemas, serving to guide how we process information about our social world. Based on stereotypical beliefs, **prejudice** is an affective, emotionally laden response to members of outgroups, including holding negative attitudes and making critical judgments of other groups. Stereotyping and prejudice lead to **discrimination**, behaviour that disfavours or disadvantages members of a certain social group. Taken together, stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination underlie many of the destructive "isms" in society, racism, sexism, and classism, among others.
- One way science can study implicit prejudice is through an **Implicit Associations Test (IAT)**. The IAT measures how fast people can respond to images or words flashed on a computer screen.
- **Improving Intergroup Relations:**
- One of the most well-supported ideas in all of social psychology is the **contact hypothesis**, which predicts that social contact between members of different groups is extremely important to overcoming prejudice, especially if that contact occurs in settings in which the groups have equal status and power, and ideally, in which group members are cooperating on tasks or pursuing common goals.
- Negative stereotypes and the attendant prejudices thrive under conditions of ignorance, whereas allowing people to get to know members of outgroups, to work together to pursue common goals, to come to appreciate their membership in common groups or as part of the same ingroup and to develop friendships with members of outgroups are all different ways in which contact helps to overcome prejudice. In fact, contact between members of different groups not only helps to combat their own prejudices, but that of their friends as well. Simply knowing that someone is friends with an outgroup member serves to decrease the prejudice of that person's friends.
- **Module 13.3 Attitudes, Behaviour, and Effective Communication:**
- **Changing People's Behaviour:**
- Four of the most common approaches taken to attempt to change the public's behaviour on a large scale are technological, legal, economic, and social.
- The technological approach focuses on making desired behaviours easier and undesired behaviours more difficult.
- The legal approach focuses on policy change, using laws to encourage positive behaviours and discourage negative behaviours.
- The economic approach focuses on financial incentives and penalties, generally through taxes and pricing.
- The social approach focuses on using information and communication to raise awareness, educate people, and create positive community organizations to encourage the desired behaviours.
- **Persuasion: Changing Attitudes Through Communication:**
- If you are preparing a persuasive message, understanding what is likely to connect with and have an impact on your audience is extremely important. These factors are explored by the **elaboration likelihood model (ELM)** of persuasive communication. The ELM

predicts that when audiences are sufficiently motivated to pay attention to a message and they have the opportunity for careful processing, they will be persuaded by the facts of the argument. When either of these two factors, motivation and opportunity, are missing, people will tend to be persuaded by other factors. According to this model of persuasion, information can appeal to people through two general routes: the central route and the peripheral route.

- The **central route to persuasion** is all about substance. It occurs when people pay close attention to the content of a message, evaluate the evidence presented, and examine the logic of the arguments. If the message is sufficiently compelling, they will be convinced, internalizing the message as something they believe in. As a result, attitude or belief change that occurs through the central route tends to be strong and long-lasting.
- However, much of the time, people are not going to pay sufficient attention to the content of a message, and instead, persuasion will depend upon other features that are not directly related to the message itself. When taking the **peripheral route to persuasion** it's all about style, not substance.
- Although persuasion is typically not as powerful through the peripheral route, it is nevertheless often a superior route through which to reach people, in part because it's so much easier. Even though people may not be paying much attention or may not really care about your issue, they can be persuaded if you can skillfully wield peripheral tools. Peripheral tools are quite dangerous, as a result, because they can make even relatively weak arguments potentially have an impact on people, whereas relatively strong and important arguments, if they are packaged in a more boring, less peripherally appealing way, can be overlooked.
- **Using the Central Route Effectively:**
- In order to use the central route effectively, you need to be confident that you have the facts on your side. If you feel your perspective makes logical, rational sense, then it makes sense to appeal to the central route. This means getting your audience to pay close attention to your arguments. In order to do that, you have two key factors to work with: motivation and opportunity. People will be more likely to process information through the central route when they are highly motivated and when they have the knowledge or expertise to understand the information. Thus, the central route is most reliable when people are highly motivated about the topic, when they have sufficient time and freedom from distraction, and when the information is not overwhelmingly complex relative to their knowledge.
- **Make It Personal:**
- The **construal-level theory** describes how information affects us differently depending on our psychological distance from the information.
- Information that is specific, personal, and described in terms of concrete details feels more personal, or closer to us whereas information that is more general, impersonal, and described in more abstract terms feels less personal, or more distant.
- Communicators should be able to make their messages feel more personally relevant to the audience by working with these factors, bringing the message close to home in time and space, showing how it affects the audience themselves or their social groups, and making consequences or outcomes as certain as possible.

- **Working the Scientific Literacy Model The Identifiable Victim Effect:**
- The **identifiable victim effect** describes how people are more powerfully moved to action by the story of a single suffering person than by information about a whole group of people.
- The **experiential system** operates more implicitly, quickly, and intuitively and is predominantly emotional. This system responds strongly to personal experiences, images, stories, and other people's emotions.
- In contrast, the **analytic system** operates more at the explicit level of consciousness, is slower and more methodical, and uses logic and discursive thinking to try to understand reality. The analytic system specializes in understanding, whereas the experiential system specializes in intuition and feeling.
- **Preaching or Flip-Flopping? One-Sided vs. Two-Sided Messages:**
- One potential downside to taking a straightforward values approach is that you might sound "preachy." On the other hand, if you don't make your own position clear and advocate clearly for your values, people may think you are a "flip flopper" who doesn't stand for anything in particular, or they may just get confused while you describe all aspects of an argument, and stop paying attention.
- It is actually more persuasive if you acknowledge opposing arguments than if you just preach from your own soap-box, unless your audience is unlikely to ever hear information that counters your message. By giving a two-sided message, you make it more likely that your audience will see you as trustworthy and honest. But you gain in another sneakier way as well. By bringing up, and shooting down, opposing arguments, you help your audience resist those arguments in the future. This is called **attitude inoculation**, a strategy for strengthening attitudes and making them more resistant to change by first exposing people to a weak counter-argument and then refuting that argument.
- **Emotions in the Central Route:**
- **Processing fluency**, the ease with which information is processed, biases the person's processing of the information. Thus, even insignificant aspects of a communication can, through triggering negative affect, influence the communication's persuasive impact.
- Another key factor that can easily derail communication is the message's complexity. If your arguments are overly technical, complex, or convoluted, or use specialized language, this can also activate negative emotion for people and bias them against your message. Also, people will simply lose interest in a message they don't understand and stop paying attention.
- To be an effective communicator, you can't ignore the peripheral route.
- We believe people we like. Communicators who connect with their audience get their message across more effectively.
- **Reciprocity:**
- Reciprocity is often used in a two-step manner called the **door-in-the-face technique**, which involves asking for something relatively big, then following with a request for something relatively small. The logic is that once someone has scaled back their request, you are obligated to meet them part way.
- **Consistency:**
- One of the most powerful influence techniques, especially for long-term behaviour change, is an old salesperson's trick called the **foot-in-the-door technique**, which involves making a simple request followed by a more substantial request.

- **Cognitive Dissonance:**
- The **cognitive dissonance theory** describes that when we hold inconsistent beliefs, this creates a kind of aversive inner tension, or “dissonance”. We are then motivated to reduce this tension in whatever way we can, often by simply changing the beliefs that created the dissonance in the first place.
- **Attitudes and Actions:**
- If attitudes influence behaviours, and behaviours influence attitudes, then you can see that the two are connected to each other in a circular fashion, with each affecting the other in a self-reinforcing cycle. Because each process affects the other, what happens in these causal loops is that initially small changes can grow into very large changes over time.

Definitions:

- **Analytic system:** Operates at the explicit level of consciousness, is slower and methodical, and uses logic and discursive thinking (i.e., reasoning using language).
- **Attitude inoculation:** A strategy for strengthening attitudes and making them more resistant to change by first exposing people to a weak counter-argument and then refuting that argument.
- **Bystander effect:** The presence of other people actually reduces the likelihood of helping behaviour.
- **Central route to persuasion:** Occurs when people pay close attention to the content of a message, evaluate the evidence presented, and examine the logic of the arguments.
- **Chameleon effect:** People copy others’ behaviours even without realizing it.
- **Cognitive dissonance theory:** When we hold inconsistent beliefs, it creates a kind of aversive inner tension, or “dissonance”. We are then motivated to reduce this tension in whatever way we can.
- **Construal-level theory:** Describes how information affects us differently depending on our psychological distance from the information.
- **Contact hypothesis:** Social contact between members of different groups is extremely important to overcoming prejudice.
- **Diffusion of responsibility:** The responsibility for taking action is spread across more than one person, thus making no single individual feel personally responsible.
- **Discrimination:** Occurs when an operant response is made to one stimulus but not to another, even if the stimuli are similar.
- **Discrimination:** Behaviour that disfavours or disadvantages members of a certain social group in some way.
- **Door-in-the-face technique:** Involves asking for something relatively big, then following with a request for something relatively small.
- **Dual-process models:** Models of behaviour that account for both implicit and explicit processes.
- **Elaboration likelihood model (ELM):** A model of persuasion that states when audiences are sufficiently motivated to pay attention to a message (i.e., they care about the issue) and they have the opportunity for careful processing (i.e., they have the cognitive resources available to understand the message), they will be persuaded by the facts of the argument, the substance; when either of these two factors (motivation and opportunity) is missing, people will tend to be persuaded by other factors.
- **Experiential system:** Operates implicitly, quickly, and intuitively and is predominantly emotional.

- **Explicit processes:** Correspond to “conscious” thought: deliberative, effortful, relatively slow, and generally under our intentional control.
- **External attribution/Situational attribution:** The observer explains the actor’s behaviour as the result of the situation.
- **False consensus effect:** Tendency to project the self-concept onto the social world.
- **Foot-in-the-door technique:** Involves making a simple request followed by a more substantial request.
- **Fundamental attribution error (FAE):** The tendency to overemphasize internal (dispositional) attributions and under-emphasize external (situational) factors when explaining other people’s behaviour.
- **Groupthink:** The stifling of diversity that occurs when individuals are not able to express their true perspectives, instead having to focus more on maintaining harmony in the group and on not being evaluated negatively.
- **Identifiable victim effect:** People are more powerfully moved to action by the story of a single suffering person than by information about a whole group of people.
- **Implicit Associations Test (IAT):** Measures how fast people can respond to images or words flashed on a computer screen.
- **Implicit processes:** Correspond to “unconscious” thought: intuitive, automatic, effortless, very fast, and operate largely outside of our intentional control.
- **Informational influence:** Occurs when people internalize the values and beliefs of the group, coming to believe the same things and feel the same ways themselves.
- **Ingroups:** Groups we feel positively toward and identify with.
- **Ingroup bias:** Positive biases toward the self get extended to include one’s ingroups and people become motivated to see their ingroups as superior to their outgroups.
- **Internal attribution/Dispositional attribution:** The observer explains the behaviour of the actor in terms of some innate quality of that person.
- **Mimicry:** Taking on for ourselves the behaviours, emotional displays, and facial expressions of others.
- **Naive realism:** The assumption that the way we see things is the way that they are.
- **Normative influence:** A social pressure to adopt a group’s perspective in order to be accepted, rather than rejected, by a group.
- **Outgroups:** Those “other” groups that we don’t identify with.
- **Peripheral route to persuasion:** Depends upon features that are not directly related to the message itself, such as the attractiveness of the person delivering the information.
- **Person perception:** The processes by which individuals categorize and form judgments about other people.
- **Pluralistic ignorance:** Occurs when there is a disjunction between the private beliefs of individuals and the public behaviour they display to others.
- **Prejudice:** Affective, emotionally laden responses to members of outgroups, including holding negative attitudes and making critical judgments of other groups.
- **Processing fluency:** The ease with which information is processed.
- **Self-fulfilling prophecy:** A first impression (or an expectation) affects one’s behaviour, and then that affects other people’s behaviour, leading one to “confirm” the initial impression or expectation.
- **Self-serving biases:** Biased ways of processing self-relevant information to enhance our positive self-evaluation.
- **Social facilitation:** Occurs when one’s performance is affected by the presence of others.

- **Social loafing:** Occurs when an individual puts less effort into working on a task with others.
- **Social norms:** The (usually unwritten) guidelines for how to behave in social contexts.
- **Social roles:** Are more specific sets of expectations for how someone in a specific position should behave.
- **Stereotype:** A cognitive structure, a set of beliefs about the characteristics that are held by members of a specific social group; these beliefs function as schemas, serving to guide how we process information about our social world.
- **Thin slices of behaviour:** Very small samples of a person's behaviour.