

BLOCK 4

GROUP DYNAMICS



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INTRODUCTION

The fourth block of this course consists of two units. As the name of the block reflects, both the units deal with the dynamics of the group. In the *first unit*, you will come to know about the concept of group and its various types. We will also discuss the various stages of group formation. Further, the unit will also define various elements of a group and how they affect behaviour in a group as well as the various group processes. The unit will also explain decision making in a group and describe cooperation, competition and conflict in a group.

The *second unit* discusses about the others' influence on our behaviour in a social setting. While influencing our behaviour this 'other' person may or may not be interacting with us. The three types of social influences on our behaviour are: conformity, adherence to social norms or following majority; compliance, acceding to direct request from others; and obedience, following orders given by some authority. The present unit will explain compliance, conformity and obedience as processes of social influence. Further, through this unit you will also come to know about the various factors affecting conformity and the ways to resist conformity. The unit will also explain you the concept of compliance and the various strategies for gaining compliance. At the end of the unit you will be explained about the concept and relevance of obedience.



UNIT 8 GROUP DYNAMICS*

Structure

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8.1 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Define Groups and its various types;
- Describe various stages of group formation;
- Define various elements of a group and how they affect behaviour in a group;
- Define various group processes;
- Explain decision making in a group; and
- Discuss the concept and relevance of cooperation, competition and conflict in a group.

8.2 INTRODUCTION

Living in a social world, we are rarely alone. At homes, we are surrounded by our family members, in school we are surrounded by classmates/teachers, in office we are surrounded by our colleagues, on the road we are surrounded by our fellow travellers, in the park we are surrounded by our friends and strangers. These people range from one whom we don't know at all to those whom we know very well. Few of them interact with us frequently, few of them sometimes and few of them rarely. Whatsoever the level of interaction, they all influence our behaviour. In this unit, we will be discussing about the persons whom we know and with whom we have a considerable amount of interactions are somehow connected to us and we are an intact part of group. Being intact suggests that we are dependent on each other for fulfilment of some of our basic needs, like survival needs, social needs, etc. Hence, these people are the ones who play a major role in shaping our core personality and are the cause behind most of our actions.

8.3 GROUPS: DEFINITION AND CONCEPT

Groups can be defined as a collection of people who perceive themselves to be bonded together in a coherent unit to some degree (Brown, 2000; Dasgupta, Banaji & Abelson, 1999). Characteristics of a group are:

- A collection of two or more individuals who perceive themselves as the members of group.
- Members have common motives.
- Members are interacting (either directly or indirectly) and interdependent.
- Members influence each other.
- Members' behaviour governed by certain rules, roles assigned to them in the group and their status in the group.

All the above mentioned characteristics differentiate a group from a crowd, which is merely a collection of people, who happen to be at the same place at the same time with or without any common purpose.

- A group must be further differentiated from a team where the members have complementary skills, affect each other's activities, attain a positive synergy by coordinated effort and are collectively responsible for the performance. For example, ten students doing combined study is an example of group. Here each individual studies the syllabus separately. On the other hand, a group formed in the

company to complete a project is an example of team. Here, the person analysing the data cannot do the job until the data has been entered by the other person, who in turn is dependent on the person responsible for collection of data. Moreover, in the second example whole group is accountable for the completion of the project; whereas, in the first **Affinitive needs**: Provided by the group through friendship between individuals within it. example, every student is responsible for her/his own performance in the examination.

The groups can provide, with or without the conscious knowledge of their members, a means of fulfilling many of the needs of the individuals in them, such as:

- **Egoistic needs**: Fulfilled through the development of self-esteem and status as the result of membership in the group through opportunity for individual contributions to group functioning.
- **Functional needs**: Aid in daily activities help in adjustment to work routine or even the avoidance of boredom can be met by the group.
- **Cognitive needs**: Satisfied by establishing and testing reality through developing consensus among group members, uncertain parts of social environment can be made certain and parts of social environment can be made “real” and “stable.” Each person can validate perceptions and feelings best by checking them with others.

Thus, groups are instrumental in fulfilling the needs of individual members in various ways. It is possible that these functions may not directly link to the group’s primary goal; although, by fulfilling these secondary needs of members their efforts toward achievement of group is facilitated.

8.4 TYPES OF GROUPS

Although various groups share the basic characteristics mentioned above, they are categorised in different types based on some subtle criteria.

8.4.1 *Perceived Bond* among Group Members

On the basis of Perceived bond among group members, groups can be classified into two types: **common-bond** and **common-identity** groups (Prentice, Miller & Lightdale, 1994).

In a *common-bond group*, members have face to face interaction and also a strong bond exists among them. Players of a team constitute such a common-bond group.

In a *common-identity group*, members are associated with each other just by a category with rare face to face interaction. Citizens of a country or students of a University form such a group. In these groups, group members may not know each other personally. However, their affiliation to a particular category designates them as the group member and all the members of such groups share the common identity of the group.

8.4.2 Entitativity

Entitativity is the extent to which groups are perceived as a coherent whole (Campbell, 1958). Low entitativity groups are a collection of people who happen to be at same place at same time with a common purpose. Group of interviewees for a particular job is an example of such group. A group which includes members of a family is an example of high entitativity group. Groups high on entitativity have following characteristics:

- Frequent interaction among members (either face to face or virtually on phones, internets, etc.)

- Common goals
- Members are highly similar in some ways and are significantly different from the non-members
- Group is a consequence of its members.

One thing that should be noted here is that, it is not the group size but the behavioural features such as acceptance of authority, sharing of resources, adherence to norms, etc. that affects the entitativity of a group (Lickel, Rutchick, Hamilton & Sherman, 2006). High entitative groups are more stereotyped than those low on entitative (Yzerbyt, Corneille & Estrade, 2001).

8.4.3 Primary versus Secondary Group

Primary groups are pre-existing formations whose memberships are conferred to the individuals, such as family, caste, etc. These groups play a vital role in developing a person's values and ideals. A person does not have an option to choose or relinquish the membership of a primary group. Whereas, an individual joins a secondary groups by her/his choice in order to fulfil certain motives. Here the membership is voluntary and the person has an option to relinquish the group.

8.4.4 Formal versus Informal Group

A formal group has explicitly stated rules and functions, definite roles for its members and clearly specified norms. These elements may be written or they may be spoken but unanimously accepted by the members. In contrast, an informal group does not have any explicitly stated rules and regulation. For example, a school has specified rules for both students and teachers, has a definite purpose of imparting quality education in the students and has clearly defined status and norms. On the other hand, group of children of a colony gathered in a park is an example of informal group.

8.5 COMPONENTS OF GROUP

There are number of components in any group that facilitate smooth functioning of the group. Although the groups may differ in terms of their size, types and functions they share some common features, such as status, roles, norms and cohesiveness, which affect behaviours of the group members.

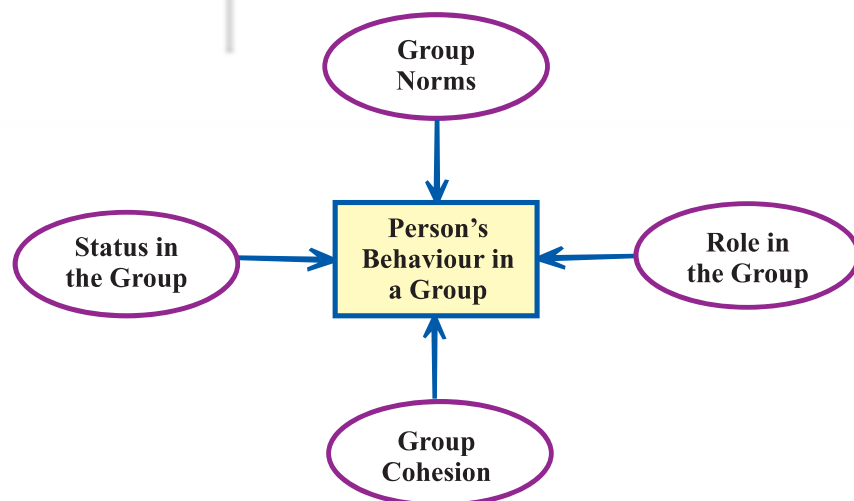


Fig. 8.1: Components of Group

8.5.1 Status

When a teacher enters into the classroom, all students stand in the respect of the teacher. No significant decision in the family is taken until the head of the family, generally parents in the Indian families, approve the decision. These examples characterise status of teachers and parents in their respective groups.

The status of a member may be defined by his/her physical attributes (Judge & Cable, 2004), usefulness to the purpose of the group and behaviour in accordance with the norms of group (Haslam, 2004). It may be an official position or rank in a group or it may be an implicit feature such as elders and new entrants in a group. Often, status is associated with many privileges in the group, such as access to resources of the group, respect, salary, influencing other group members, group responsibilities, making decisions in a group, etc. (Buss, 1999). It has been found that people with low status are more conforming to the group norms than those with high status (Jetten, Hornsey & Adarves-Yorno, 2006). By being more susceptible to group influence, new members, having low status, of the group attempt to increase their acceptability in the group.

8.5.2 Roles

Different members in a group are designated to perform different functions in the group. For example, in a cricket team the captain is responsible to lead the team on the ground, the coach arranges and manages smooth and strategic practice to the team, the physiotherapist ensures physical fitness of the players and the manager is assumed to be responsible for the issues pertaining to team travels and its interaction with media. All these people actually play different roles for the team or the group of players and officials representing a country at the national or international level.

Roles define the expected set of behaviours from different members of a group occupying specific positions in the group. Roles may be officially assigned to a group member or they may be gradually acquired by a group member without any formal assignment. A person may fulfil one role in a group while other role in some other group (Slater, 1955). Often the roles are internalised and gradually become integral.

A clear recognition of one's goals, or role clarity, helps to avoid chaos in the group. Sometimes, however, members may be confused about the things that are expected of them, such as their level of authority or their responsibility. This is called role ambiguity and is typically experienced by new members. Some groups that are pursuing very dynamic and uncertain tasks have very lower degree of role differentiation and therefore, avoiding the situation of role ambiguity is extremely challenging in such groups.

8.5.3 Norms

Norms are the implicit rules within a group, guiding how its members should or should not behave. Norms are generally agreed-upon informal rules that guide members' behaviours. They represent shared ways of viewing the world. Norms differ from formal rules in that they are not formal and written. However, norms have powerful influence on group behaviour. If each individual in a group separately decides how to behave in each interaction, no one would be able to predict the behaviour of any group member and consequently, chaos would reign. Therefore, norms function as a guide to members' behaviours and reduce ambiguity in groups. Groups do not establish norms about every possible situation but only with respect to things that are significant to the group. Norms might apply to every member of the group or to only some members. Norms that apply to particular group members usually specify the role of those individuals. Norms vary in the degree to which they are accepted by all members of the group: some are accepted by almost everyone, others by some members and not others.

People are guided by the norms of a group only if they value being the member of that particular group. In contrast, they may even act contrary to the norms of a group with which they do not identify themselves (Jetten, Spears & Manstead, 1997; Moreland & Levine, 2001).

In various cultures across the globe, a predominant norm which varies considerably is collectivism versus individualism. A collectivistic group values the maintenance of harmony among its members, even on personal costs. In contrast, a group high on individualistic dimension values 'standing out' from the group. In such groups, dissenters of the groups are seen as courageous and disagreement among the group members is not discouraged. For example, Indian society is considered to be a collectivistic society; whereas western countries, such as USA, are considered to be individualistic societies.

8.5.4 Cohesiveness

Cohesiveness is the force that keeps a group intact (Ellemers, de Gilder & Haslam, 2004). Cohesiveness refers to how strongly group members desire to remain in their groups. Highly cohesive groups are ones in which the members like one another, accept the group's goals, and work towards meeting them. In very un-cohesive groups, the members dislike one another and may even work at cross-purposes. In essence, cohesiveness refers to a "we" feeling, a sense of belongingness to the group. Group cohesion tends to get strengthened under conditions of high external threat or competition. Cohesiveness generally tends to be greater when group members spend more time together. Lesser sub-groupings are evident in high cohesive than in low cohesive groups. A group high on this dimension has following qualities (Hogg, 2007; Mullen & Cooper, 1994):

- Perceived homogeneity
- More supportive and cooperative for in-groups than with the out-groups
- More oriented towards group goals than toward individual goals
- Have high morale
- Perform better than the groups low on cohesiveness dimension.
- Highly adamant towards members of out-groups.
- Display more intra-group attraction and commitment towards group goal in presence of an out-group member.

Self Assessment Questions 1

Fill in the blanks-

- 1) are the need provided by the group through friendship between individuals within it.
- 2) is the force that keeps a group intact.
- 3) Norms are the within a group, guiding how its members should or should not behave.
- 4) A group has explicitly stated rules and functions, definite roles for its members and clearly specified norms.
- 5) A person does not have an option to choose or relinquish the membership of a group.

8.6 STAGES OF GROUP FORMATION

As stated earlier that a crowd is different from a group in a sense that crowd is a mere collection of people; whereas a group is a homogeneous collection of people, with some specific and shared purpose, having some rules and regulation to guide their behaviours in various social situations. However, in the starting a group is also just a collection of people. The various phases through which the collection of people passes, differentiate it from crowd (Tuckman, 1965). These phases are explained below:

Forming: The members of the group might be unknown to one another when they meet for the first time. Therefore, initially the group is quite similar to a crowd. This stage is marked by uncertainties regarding the group purpose, goals, members, procedures, etc.

Storming: At this stage, there is a lot of conflict regarding various roles and status of various members and the methods of achieving the group goals. By the end of this stage some sort of hierarchy develops among the members and some clarity is obtained regarding how the target has to be achieved.

Norming: At this stage, group members finalise various norms which regulate their behaviours and roles. Furthermore, division of responsibilities takes place at this stage. Members devise some scale to measure their progress. Finally, by the end of this stage the group gets a clear identity.

Performing: This is the execution stage of the group. Since the norms, status, roles, etc. have been finalised, members fully devote their efforts to achieve the group goals. For some groups with a single specific purpose this might be the last stage.

Adjourning: Only few groups have this final stage. Here group is disbanded after its purpose is achieved. For example, a committee of juries formed to investigate any case of corruption gets disbanded after submitting its report.

The above mentioned stages are merely a general illustration for the sequential functioning of a group and therefore, the sequence may be different for different groups. In a political committee, norms and status of various members may be pre-decided before the constitution of the group. Similarly, a group may undergo two stages simultaneously or it may switch back and forth between various stages or even it may skip any of the stages.

8.7 GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a sense of status and socialised power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment, thereby sustaining the group as a team. Although these are the broader criteria of group effectiveness, organisations and groups differ in their specific criteria of effectiveness. Any group has its own particular environment (socio-cultural and technological), group task and life-span. These specific given circumstances interact with the internal dynamics of the group to produce a particular degree of group effectiveness.

There is substantial agreement among psychologists working in the field of group functioning about the classes of factors that influence group outcomes. Among the most useful frameworks for thinking about groups and their effectiveness are the input-process-output models summarized by McGrath (1984). The model reflects that the success of

a group (its outcomes) depends upon inputs or resources which the group has to work with (e.g., the members and the task they have been assigned) and the interaction among team members (e.g., communication, conflict, conformity, socialisation, leadership, status, in-group-out-group differentiation, etc.).

By influencing the group process, inputs have both direct and indirect effects on group effectiveness. Inputs include resources, such as personnel, task, tools and time. Groups composed of more competent people, having appropriate knowledge, skills, and motivation, will on average be more effective than groups with less competent members. Work groups that are functionally diverse have a larger stock of ideas to draw upon, and differences in assumptions that allow them to generate more creative solutions. Members who have expertise in a wide variety of disciplines have the potential to be highly creative, bringing together old ideas in new ways (Hargadon & Sutton, 1997).

8.8 GROUP PROCESSES

How a person acts in presence of someone else may be completely different from what he would have been doing, had he been alone. This 'someone' may be a co-worker of her/his group, an audience or a mere stranger. For instance, while dining out in some restaurant, you may refrain from doing many things which you would have done when dining at home. There are several influences of group on an individual called as group processes. Some of them have been mentioned in the sub headings below.

8.8.1 Social Facilitation

Social facilitation is defined as a tendency of a person to perform differently in presence of an audience or with a co-actor. Presence of audience increases our arousal which affects our performance. Thus other's presence will improve performance if the performer is well learned and his/her dominant responses are the correct ones in the situation. Furthermore, it will impair performance if performer's dominant responses are the incorrect ones and the less practiced responses are correct ones. This view is known as *Drive Theory of Social Facilitation* (Zajonc, Heingartner & Herman, 1969). Social facilitation fails to occur if the performer does not pay attention to the other persons present there.

According to *Distraction-Conflict Theory*, a person is distracted when performing in front of others because he or she tries to divide attention between the task and the co-actor/audience. This produces cognitive overload on the performer and therefore, forcing the performer to pay attention only to the essential cues/stimuli.

8.8.2 Social Loafing

While working in a group, often motivation is reduced resulting into reduced efforts to achieve the group goal. This phenomenon is known as *social loafing* (Karau & Williams, 1993). When working in a group for a common task, a general feeling arises among the individuals that even though they will contribute a little less, the group goal will be achieved. Hence they have lower motivation and exert less effort to achieve the group goal. Instead, the individuals rely more on the efforts of their co-members. This might have grim implications. In situations, where each or most of the group members become victim of social loafing, the group performance suffers seriously. Social loafing is observed in variety of group tasks, such as cognitive, physical, verbal, etc. (Weldon & Mustari, 1988; Williams & Karau, 1991).

Price, Harrison and Gavin (2006) observed that there are two factors which contribute to social loafing: feeling of being dispensable to the group and feeling of unfairness in the

group. When a member feels that the contributions made by her/him are not essential to the group, then she/he is more likely to loaf. Conversely, if a member has skills and knowledge relevant to the performance of group task, she/he is more likely to actively participate in the group activities. Similarly, if a member feels that she/he may be treated unfairly, even after making significant contribution, then she/he is more likely to loaf. Also, if a member is dissimilar from the other members on factors such as age, sex, ethnicity, etc. she/he is more likely to feel unfairly treated and thus more likely to loaf.

Following techniques may be implied to reduce social loafing:

- Reduced feeling of being dispensable in the group by making individual efforts readily identifiable (Williams, Harkins & Latane, 1981)
- Increasing individual member's commitment to the successful task performance (Brickner, Harkins & Ostrom, 1986)
- Increasing the importance of the task (Karau & Williams, 1993)
- Providing each member with some kind of standard performance, such as their past performance or how others are doing (Williams & Karau, 1991).

8.8.3 Deindividuation

Deindividuation is a psychological state characterised by reduced self-awareness and personal identity, brought on by external conditions such as being an anonymous member of a large crowd. This leads the members of a crowd to perform behaviours which they would have never performed when they were alone. Deindividuation leads to greater obedience of the norms of the crowd (Postmes & Spears, 1998).

Previously in one of the above section, you were informed about the differences between group and crowd, where, crowd is merely a collection of people, who happen to be at the same place at the same time with or without any common purpose. But this does not mean that crowd cannot have a norm. Consider a crowd gathered to watch a cricket match. Here the crowd norm is to cheer their team. Being in a crowd makes a person anonymous and hence they feel less responsible for their acts. Thus, they are more likely to resort to wild, unrestrained and anti-social actions (Zimbardo, 1970).

Hooliganism is a special case of deindividuation, where the fans of English soccer team displayed extremely wild and unsocial behaviour in the matches involving English team.

Deindividuation does not always lead to negative and anti-social behaviour. It just increases the likelihood of obedience of crowd norms. In instances involving some mishaps like stampede, road accident or fires in buildings, deindividuation may elicit helping behaviour, too.

Self Assessment Questions 2

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

- 1) Storming is the stage of group formation in which the members of the group meet for the first time. ()
- 2) Deindividuation is a psychological state characterised by reduced self-awareness and personal identity. ()
- 3) Hooliganism is defined as a tendency of a person to perform differently in presence of an audience or with a co-actor. ()

- 4) Social loafing is a process in which often motivation of an individual is reduced resulting into reduced efforts to achieve the group goal. ()
- 5) Any group has its own particular environment (socio-cultural and technological), group task and life-span. ()

8.9 GROUP DECISION MAKING

Group decision making is also known as collaborative decision making which refers to the process of taking collective decisions by the members of the group. The decision is taken as well as accepted by all the members of that group. Basically there can be two processes involved in taking group decisions.

8.9.1 Group Polarisation

It is a general conception that decisions made by groups are better than those made by individuals. However, it is not always true. Sometimes, decisions taken by groups are more extreme than those taken by the individuals. This tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held by its members is known as **group polarisation** (Burnstein, 1983). More precisely, during a discussion among group members the initial preference of the group is strengthened leading to the final outcome being a more extreme decision. Hence group shows a phenomenon of **risky shift**, (if the initial preference of the group members is towards a riskier decision) to a **shift towards increased caution** (if initial preference of the group is towards a cautious approach).

There are two factors which contribute to this phenomenon of group polarisation. First, in order to prove themselves a worthy and loyal, the members of group hold a view which is in line with the group's overall image and simultaneously extreme than others. For example, in a terrorist group extreme ideas to create chaos will be considered more worthy. Hence members will try to hold views which are more extreme than others. Second, due to persuasion, a group's initial preference gets strengthened leading to extreme decisions.

8.9.2 Group Think

Another phenomenon observed in highly cohesive groups is **group think**. Members of a highly cohesive group think that their decisions cannot be wrong and all the members must support the decision taken by the group. Moreover, they are also under pressure to reject any information which is in contrary to the group's decision. Once this tendency develops, group is highly resistant to change its decision. It is the high cohesiveness among group members which is responsible for developing such tendency among them. Members are so well connected to each other that they think that any member of the group cannot be wrong and even if any member of the group is wrong, it is their moral responsibility to support him/her. Secondly, the norms of highly cohesive group suggest that the group is superior and infallible. The group sometimes may also fail to share the information relevant to the issue held by their members. This may affect the quality of the decisions taken by the group. This is even more problematic if the unshared information is critical to the decision.

8.10 COOPERATION AND COMPETITION IN A GROUP

A group often works on tasks which are common for all members and a coordinated

group effort is needed to complete this task. However, sometimes individual performance is also credited along with the contributions to the shared tasks. Suppose a cricket team is chasing a huge total and to achieve this total the whole team needs to bat with a fast run rate. But here also, man of the match award is given to only one player for individual performance. So an individual may bat with slow run rate in order to complete his/her century.

Cooperation can be defined as a behaviour, in which, whole group works together to attain the shared goal. Whereas, **competition** can be defined as behaviour in which individual tries to excel his/her own performance and simultaneously hindering others in completing their tasks. Cooperative goals of a group are such that the group achieves them only if the other members of the groups achieve their goal. While competitive goals of a group are such that an individual can get them only if others fail to achieve their respective goals. A group can simultaneously have competitive and cooperative goals, as seen in the example mentioned above. Also, competition within group may lead to conflict and disharmony among group members; whereas, cooperation between groups increase cohesion and solidarity within group members.

8.10.1 Determinants of Cooperation and Competition

Group performance largely depends on the cooperation and competition among group members. Social psychologists have studied various factors that determine the level of cooperation and competition.

Reward Structure: A reward structure that considers only group effort, promotes cooperation in the group. Such a reward structure endorses interdependence among the members. Contrarily, if the reward structure considers only individual efforts, it will promote competition among the members of the group. Suppose in the above example of cricket match, if the condition is set in such a way that the Man of the Match award will be given to the player of winning team only then players will first try to achieve the team target instead of focussing on their individual performance.

Interpersonal Communication: Healthy and ample communication among the group members enhances cooperation among them. Due to healthy communication among themselves, the members develop liking for each other and they tend to cooperate rather than compete. Such a communication also facilitates discussion and interchange of ideas. This leads the members to understand each other's stance and act in a more coordinated way.

Reciprocity: It is a tendency to return favours. If a member of the group has shown initial cooperation towards other member(s) then the other member(s) are also likely to respond in a similar manner. Same is applied for competition also. Thus cooperation or competition among group members looks like a chain reaction. If the group leader somehow manages initial cooperation among the members then it will keep on going.

8.11 CONFLICT IN A GROUP

Conflict is a situation in which individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest. Conflict is the recognition of incompatible interest between the members which may or may not be true (DeDreu & Van Lange, 1995). Conflict is different from competition in a way that conflict is just a perception; whereas, competition includes a behavioural component as well. A conflict may lead to competition but not all competitive behaviours are result of conflict.

8.11.1 Causes of Conflict

- In many cases a *faulty attribution* can lead to conflict (Baron, 1990). After a failure to achieve one's own interest people try to attribute this failure to someone else. If somehow, they attribute this failure to other's interference then they are likely to develop conflict with the suspect interferer.
- *Faulty communication* may also cause conflict among members. If someone is criticised for his/her action then he/she may feel agitated and thus may develop conflict with the person who has criticised (Cropanzano, 1993). Faulty and improper communication may sometimes develop suspicion about others' interest which also consequently leads to conflict.
- A tendency to consider our *views* as objective and closest to the reality while that of others as biased and selfish leads to conflict (Keltner & Robinson, 1996).
- Initially the *poor performance* of the group followed by the negative feedback may force the members to blame each other for the group failure. This ultimately generates conflict among them. Studies have been reported showing that more the amount of negative feedback received by the group, higher the level of conflict reported (Peterson & Behfar, 2003).
- A *feeling of deprivation and discontentment* is developed when any member feels that he/she is not equally useful as the other members of the group are. This may trigger conflict in them.
- *Perceived inequity* with respect to work share and reward distribution also leads to conflict among the group members.
- *Feeling that the other group does not respect norms of our group* may also lead to conflict.

8.11.2 Outcomes of Conflict

Just like competition and cooperation, conflict is also a chain reaction. Once it seeds in the thoughts of one party, it becomes visible in their actions and thus generating even more conflict in the mind of one or both the parties. Following may be the possible outcomes of the conflict:

- Poor communication, mistrust and suspicion among the group members.
- Magnification and escalation of even the trivial differences.
- An effort to increase own power and legitimacy over the other.
- Formation of sub groups and factions leading to separation in the group.

8.11.3 Strategies of Conflict Resolution

- *Introduction of super-ordinate goal*: The organisation may introduce super ordinate goals for reducing the conflict among members as well as groups. Super-ordinate goals are those goals that both the parties having conflict, needs to achieve. These goals can be achieved only by the combined efforts of both the parties. In real life, the super-ordinate goals are usually superior to the conflict interest and are necessary for survival (Sherif, 1958).
- *Altering perceptions*: Persuasions, education, media appeals etc. change the perception about each other and thus can reduce the conflict.

- *Increasing intergroup contacts:* Bringing together both the parties involved in a conflict on a neutral ground (task other than conflict interest) may reduce conflict. This gives them a chance to understand each other's stand. Best example of this type of conflict resolution strategy is frequent organisation of friendly cricket matches between India and Pakistan. However, for this technique to be successful the contact needs to be maintained.
- *Redrawing group boundaries:* Creating conditions in which conflicting parties perceive themselves as a part of common group can redraw the group boundary and thus reduce the conflict.
- *Negotiations:* Both parties undergoing conflict can be convinced to achieve a mutually acceptable solution. Such negotiation can help in reducing the conflict significantly. This strategy requires a mediator who allows them to focus on the discussion on relevant issues.
- *Structural solutions:* Redistribution of the resources according to various principles of justice, viz. principle of equality (equal distribution), principle of need (distribution according to need) and principle of equity (distribution according to contribution) may reduce the feeling of injustice and therefore, can ease the conflict.
- *Respect for other group's norms:* Many times conflict among various groups arises from the feeling that the other group does not respect norms of our group. If, somehow, we are able to instil respect for other groups this conflict may be resolved.

8.12 COMMUNICATION

Communication is a process of interpersonal interaction in which thoughts, ideas, emotions and understanding between sender(s) and receiver(s) are exchanged (Guo and Sanchez, 2005). This simple definition of communication directs attention to three important issues:

- Communication involves transmission and reception of messages.
- Communication involves people, at least two: one to transmit the message (sender) and another to receive the message (receiver).
- Communication is best described as a process because it is active, continuous, reciprocal and dynamic.

8.12.1 Types of Communication

There are several forms of communication, the most important being verbal communication. Verbal communication can further be divided into two forms: oral and written. Most basic to the oral form of communication involves the spoken word; as it is the quickest and most accurate because messages can be clarified through ongoing dialogue. Written form of communication involves exchange of ideas, thoughts, understanding, etc. with the help of letters, memos, office orders, e-mail, instant messaging, blogs, etc.

Another form of communication is non-verbal which consists of unspoken clues that a communicator sends in conjunction with spoken or written messages. Examples may include a person's tone of voice, facial expressions, eye contact, head nodding, posture, way of walking, etc.

Though verbal and non verbal communications are separate, both operate at the same time. The verbal part of a message conveys content or information. The non verbal

component indicates how the verbal message should be interpreted and thus it is meta-communication. Whenever verbal and non verbal messages contradict each other, people are more likely to believe the non verbal.

8.12.2 Communication Style

Every individual has his or her own predominant communication style. People with different communications styles use different verbal and non verbal communication patterns. The communication styles can be broadly divided into four types: passive, aggressive, passive-aggressive and assertive. Each communication style conveys certain messages to listeners and leads to a specific outcomes.

- **Passive communication:** People with passive communication style are considered as people pleasers, shy and they usually go along with others to avoid conflict. They generally exhibit confused body language and avoid eye contact, place their hands at or over mouth, often play with pen, pencil, clips, paper, etc. during conversation and chew pen or pencil while listening. Because of their body language they are perceived as individual with low self-esteem weak, timid and indecisive.
- **Aggressive communication:** Those who use this style of communication often disregard the rights of others and force their own needs and opinions onto other people. This form of communication can lead to shouting and in some cases, physical aggression. Such people often use aggressive tone and gestures to emphasis their point of view.
- **Passive-aggressive communication:** In this style of communicating, a person may use passive means of communicating that have an aggressive result, because they often find it difficult to direct their thoughts and feelings. They sometimes use manipulation to get what they want which apparently does not look like manipulation.
- **Assertive communication:** People with an assertive style of communicating are able to respectfully express their thoughts and feelings clearly. They consider and value their own needs, but also the needs of others. This form of communicating can help to build strong, balanced, and respectful relationships with others.

8.12.3 Barriers to Effective Communication

Anything that filters, blocks or distorts the message or the information during the process of “encoding-sending-decoding” between the sender and the receiver is considered as barriers of communication. Barriers of communication can be broadly classified into two types (Longest, Rakich, & Darr, 2000):

- **Physical-environmental barriers:** Environmental and physical barriers of communication pertain to the physical-environmental components of the communication process. These may include noise in the communication channel, an improper time of communication, significant distance between sender and receiver.
- **Psychological barriers:** Psychological barriers are created due to poor listening skills, biases, prejudices, mistrust, negative attitude, fear of failure, evaluation anxiety, public embarrassment, obsessive thoughts of being judged negatively by others, inferiority complex, etc.

Self Assessment Questions 3

State whether the statements are 'True' or 'False':

- 1) People with an aggressive style of communicating are able to respectfully express their thoughts and feelings clearly. ()
- 2) In negotiation, both the parties undergoing conflict can be convinced to achieve a mutually acceptable solution. ()
- 3) Cooperation can be defined as behaviour in which individual tries to excel his/her own performance and simultaneously hindering others. ()
- 4) The tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held by its members is known as group polarisation. ()
- 5) A group can simultaneously have competitive and cooperative goals. ()

8.13 LET US SUM UP

It can be summed up from the above discussions that, group is a collection of people with common motives, who interact and influence each other. Groups are distinguished from a crowd where people may not have a common motive and also they do not interact. We, living in a social world, are part of many groups. These groups may be of many types: common bond and common identity groups; cohesive groups, formal and informal groups; primary and secondary groups, etc. Whatever type of group we belong to, they all have a certain structure. They have certain norms and statuses. Group members have some definite roles to fulfil and also, they have a degree of cohesion among them.

A group passes through various phases of development which turn it into a full-fledged functional entity. These phases are forming, storming, norming, performing. Few groups are disbanded after the purpose of their formation is solved. Such groups have an additional phase of *adjourning*. The effectiveness of a group has to be viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes, satisfaction of personal needs of the members, including a sense of status and socialised power and maintenance of the required level of communication, co-operation and sense of accomplishment.

Since, members of a group frequently interact with other members of the group; their behaviour is quite different from what it would have been in isolation. According to *drive theory of social facilitation*, presence of others when we perform increases our arousal level which may either improve or impair our performance. Similarly, *distraction conflict theory of social facilitation* states that others' presence leads to cognitive overload resulting into altered performance. When group is involved in some task, a tendency among the members is to rely on others' efforts and contribute less. This propensity is known as social loafing. This reduces the groups' overall productivity.

Since groups are formed for some specific motives, they are frequently involved in various decision-making processes. However, often we mistakenly consider that the decisions taken by groups are always better than those taken by an individual. Sometimes group may be victim of group polarisation and thus they may take highly extreme decisions. In this condition, the group members lean towards group's initial position so intensely that the final decision is an extreme one. Another tendency of a highly cohesive group is to consider their group to be always correct and hence they display a tendency of group think where they think that the group's decision can never be wrong. Other vulnerabilities in group's decision can be improper sharing of information.

Recurrent interaction among the group members may cultivate tendencies like cooperation, competition and conflicts. Cooperation occurs when group works in unison to achieve the common goal of the group. Competition in the group is observed when members give priority to their individual interests over the group goals. In the case of competition, one member can achieve the target only if the other members fail to attain that. Conflict is a realisation of fact that others' interests are incompatible to that of ours which may or may not be true. Communication is a relevant process and affects the group interactions and processes.

8.14 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Define Groups and explain its various components.
- 2) Present an account of various types of groups.
- 3) Taking reference of various stages of group formation, differentiate between crowd and group.
- 4) Describe the process of decision making in a group. How decisions taken by a group can be different from that of an individual?
- 5) Describe cooperation and competition in a group. What factors are responsible for cooperation and competition in the group? Explain them with example.
- 6) Explain various causes and outcomes of conflict in a group. How can conflict be resolved?
- 7) Justify that cooperation, competition and conflict are chain processes in a group.

8.15 GLOSSARY

Groups

: Collection of people who perceive themselves as the members of the group, have common motives, are interacting and interdependent, influence each other and are governed by certain rules, roles assigned to them in the group and their status in the group.

Common-bond groups

: Members of the group having face to face interaction and a strong bond among them.

Common-identity groups

: Members of the group associated with each other just by a category with rare face to face interaction.

Entitativity

: The extent to which groups are perceived as a coherent whole.

Primary and secondary groups

: Primary groups are pre-existing formations whose memberships are conferred to the individuals. Whereas, an individual voluntarily joins a secondary groups in order to fulfil certain motives.

Formal and informal groups

: A formal group has explicitly stated rules and functions, definite roles for its members and clearly specified norms. In contrast, an informal

	group does not have any explicitly stated rules and regulation.
Status	: An official position or rank of an individual member in a group.
Roles	: The expected set of behaviours from different members of a group occupying specific positions in the group.
Norms	: The implicit rules within a group guiding how its members should or should not behave.
Cohesiveness	: The force that keeps a group intact.
Group effectiveness	: Viewed in terms of achievement of productivity goals, ability to adapt to changes and satisfaction of personal needs of the members in order to sustain the group as a team.
Social facilitation	: A tendency of a person to perform differently in presence of an audience or with a co-actor.
Social loafing	: Reduced motivation of group members resulting into reduced individual efforts to achieve the group goal.
Deindividuation	: A psychological state characterised by reduced self-awareness and personal identity, brought on by external conditions such as being an anonymous member of a large crowd.
Group polarisation	: Tendency of a group to shift towards more extreme decisions than those initially held by its members.
Group think	: Assumption of the members of a highly cohesive group think that their decisions cannot be wrong and all the members must support the decision taken by the group.
Cooperation	: Behaviour in which whole group works together to attain the shared goal.
Competition	: Behaviour in which individual tries to excel his/her own performance and simultaneously hindering others in completing their tasks.
Conflict	: A situation in which individual or a group of individuals perceive that the others have taken or might take an action that is incompatible with their own interest.
Super-ordinate goals	: The goals, usually superior to the conflict interest, which both sides in a conflict need to achieve.

8.16 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions-1

- 1) Affinitive needs
- 2) Cohesiveness
- 3) implicit rules
- 4) formal
- 5) primary

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) False
- 2) True
- 3) False
- 4) True
- 5) True

Self Assessment Questions 3

- 1) False
- 2) True
- 3) False
- 4) True
- 5) True

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UNIT 9 SOCIAL INFLUENCE*

Structure

9.0 Objectives

9.1 Introduction

9.2 Conformity

9.2.1 Solomon Asch: Pioneer of Research on Conformity

9.2.2 Impact of Conformity

9.2.3 Factors Affecting Conformity

9.2.4 Reasons for Conformity

9.2.5 Disadvantages of Conformity

9.2.6 Resisting Conformity

9.2.7 Minority Influence

9.3 Compliance

9.3.1 Principles of Strategies Used in Compliance

9.3.2 Strategies for Gaining Compliance

9.3.2.1 Techniques Based on Friendship or Liking

9.3.2.2 Techniques Based on Commitment and Consistency

9.3.2.3 Techniques Based on Reciprocity

9.3.2.4 Techniques Based on Scarcity

9.4 Obedience

9.4.1 Milgram's Experiment

9.4.2 Reasons for Destructive Obedience

9.4.3 Resisting Destructive Obedience

9.5 Let Us Sum Up

9.6 Unit End Questions

9.7 Glossary

9.8 Answers to Self Assessment Questions

9.9 Suggested Readings

9.0 OBJECTIVES

After reading this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain compliance, conformity and obedience as processes of social influence;
- Describe reasons for displaying conformity, various factors affecting conformity and the ways to resist conformity;
- Discuss the concept of compliance and explain various strategies for gaining compliance; and
- Explain that concept and relevance of obedience.

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9.1 INTRODUCTION

Whenever we are in a social setting, our thoughts and behaviours are affected by elements which are external to our body and mind. Suppose you are driving your bike at night on a lonely road of your colony, you will drive in a quite carefree manner. But when you drive on a heavy traffic road, you stay vigilant and follow certain traffic rules. Maybe you want to avoid accident or you want to avoid traffic inspector. Whatsoever the reason may be but your thoughts and your behaviour get affected due to a social setting. Interestingly, sometimes your behaviour is affected just by thinking about someone even though that someone may not be present there. For example, although you get a lonely road in daylight, yet you follow the traffic rules because you assume that a traffic inspector might be present at the next crossroad. This form of influence is known as symbolic social influence.

Social influence may be of many forms. It may be a request from someone that affects your behaviour (compliance) or it may be social norms that change your behaviour (conformity) or it may be an order from some authority that has brought some change in your behaviour (obedience).

9.2 CONFORMITY

In almost every social setting that you encounter in your daily lives, there are some rules about the “accepted behaviour” in that setting. How one should behave and what one should not do is stated by those rules. These rules are known as social norms. In some settings, these norms are formal, explicitly stated and clearly mentioned in written form. For example, “Please form a Queue” sign board in a post office. However, in many other settings norms are informal, implicit and unstated. A widely accepted norm in most of the cultures around Indian sub-continent is that after marriage, a girl should leave her parent’s house to live with her husband’s family. Whatsoever the case may be, the norms play a very important function of removing uncertainties and chaos from a social situation. Norms restrict a person to behave in a predictable manner and hence reducing uncertainties. That is why even though norms place restrictions on people, yet people follow them.

Our tendency to conform to the social norms is so dominant that we are under a social pressure to be similar to the people in our surrounding. Not just the norms, but people around us also provide us a standard set of behaviour and opinions against which we evaluate our own behaviour and opinions. They may or may not be the correct standards, yet we use them to judge our own behaviour. For example, people standing at the back in a political rally may not be able to listen to the speech of the leader. Yet they clap just by seeing that the others standing there are clapping.

9.2.1 Solomon Asch: Pioneer of Research on Conformity

Solomon Asch (1951, 1955) performed a classic experiment to exhibit this phenomenon. In his very innovative study, real participants were made to sit with 6-7 fake participants (placed by researcher and seemed genuine to the real participant). They were given a perceptual problem to solve wherein they had to indicate that which of the three comparison line matched the standard line in length. On certain occasions (critical trials), fake participants deliberately gave wrong answers. It was observed that, in most of the critical trials (76% of times), the real participants gave in to the group pressure just to conform with the other (fake) participants, even though the real participants were correct and the fake participants were wrong.

Asch further reported that nearly one fourth of the research participants never accepted the answer given by the group and thus they did not succumb to the group pressure. Similarly, there were many other participants who accepted the group answer almost always. On further probing, they accepted that they were less confident in their judgements and thought that they were wrong and others were right. Many of those participants who accepted the majority view knew that the answers given by others were wrong, even though they could not resist the group pressure and conformed to the majority view.

Asch (1956, 1959) further conducted researches on conformity with some well thought and innovative modifications in his classic study layout. He introduced research accomplices who gave the correct answer or an answer which was between the correct one and the one which was given by the majority. In another study, the research accomplice gave more incorrect answer than that chosen by the group. Thus, the studies were planned in such a way that the consensus of the group was broken. Findings suggested that the real participant showed lesser conformity to the group under all three conditions. This indicated that the unbroken agreement of the group is the key component or force behind conformity and once this unanimity is broken anyhow, the impact of group pressure is reduced and it becomes much easier to resist. Asch further introduced some innovation in his basic research design. He asked his research participants to write down their answers on a paper and not to speak them out loudly. Interestingly, since the participants were not required to openly show their disagreement with group, the incidence of conformity reduced significantly. This finding indicated the difference between *public conformity and private acceptance* suggesting that at a number of occasions even if we explicitly act as per the social norms, we actually do not alter our personal views.

9.2.2 Impact of Conformity

As a human being we desire to be independent in terms of our thoughts, feelings and behaviours. No matter which culture is considered, most of the people of that culture eat and dress in similar ways. They prefer similar media of recreation. Despite the desire to be independent we surrender to the impact of social influence to a great extent. However, the desire to be independent does not allow us to accept the fact we are influenced by the pressure of social norms. Several psychological studies have demonstrated that despite being influenced by group opinions, research participants denied that they were influenced by others (Pronin, Berger & Molouki, 2007). People also think that their behaviours are less influenced by the social norms than those of other people. Pronin, Berger and Molouki (2007) termed this phenomenon as *introspection illusory* and proposed that we conform to the social norms often through automatic route without our conscious awareness and beyond the introspective boundary.

9.2.3 Factors Affecting Conformity

Although conformity is so pervasive in our social behaviour, it is also true that all people do not succumb to the majority view all the time and to the same degree. There are number of factors that affect the level of conformity people show to the social norms.

- *Cohesiveness* and desire to be accepted by a particular group is one of the most prominent factors that determine the extent of conformity we are likely to exhibit to the group's norms. Higher this factor will be, more we will conform to the norms of that particular group (Turner, 1991). In a cohesive group, members are attracted toward one another and also want to continue their belongingness. Thus,

they have strong tendency to think, feel and behave in a similar way. This leads them to adhere to the norms of the group.

- Generally as the *size of the group* increases more pressure we feel to conform to the group. However, relation between size of the group and the level of conformity has been inconclusive. Some studies claim that conformity increases only up to three to four members and after that the group influence becomes either constant or even decreases (Asch, 1956). Some other studies claim that conformity increases with the group size up to eight members and ahead of that (Bond & Smith, 1996).
- Apart from their classification as formal and informal, *norms* can also be classified as descriptive and injunctive. Descriptive norms explain what people generally do in a given situation; whereas, injunctive norms tell us that what should be done in a given situation. For example, people do not play loud music in a funeral is a descriptive norm; whereas, prescribing not to smoke near a petrol pump is an injunctive norm. According to normative focus theory (Cialdini, Reno & Kallgren, 1990), we conform only to those norms which we consider relevant to us. The theory argues that norms steer our behaviours mainly when we think about them and view them as relevant to our behaviour. Contrary to this, the effects of social norms are reduced when we do not think about them or view them as irrelevant. Furthermore, Aarts and Dijksterhuis (2003) suggested that there are certain situational norms that guide our behaviour in specific environment. For example, we speak gently in a hospital and shout loud in a stadium. These norms affect our behaviour very strongly and in an automatic manner, without our conscious awareness.

9.2.4 Reasons for Conformity

Whatever the impact, incidence and extent of conformity are, we all succumb to the social norms at variety of occasions in our social lives. Social psychologists have attempted to find out the reasons behind our behaviours that conform to the social norms.

- **Normative Social Influence-Desire to be liked:** We all have strong desire to be liked by the members of our group. When we conform to the social norms and to the people of our group, we appear similar to them. This, in turn, increases the likelihood of their approval and acceptance for us.
- **Informative Social Influence-Desire to be right:** There are number of social issues for which we do not have any objective standard for judgement. We do not have objective measure by which we could ascertain that which of the political views is right or what should be a correct response to the street beggars. As stated earlier that people around us provide us a standard set of behaviour and opinions through which we evaluate our own behaviour. Hence by conforming to people around us, we develop a sense of correctness. This effect becomes even more prompt in highly uncertain situations, where there are no available measures of right or wrong (Baron et al., 1996).

9.2.5 Disadvantages of Conformity

Whatever the reason behind conforming is, it has both positive and negative effects. Conformity helps to reduce uncertainty from people's behaviour. Due to conformity, we can predict others' behaviour in a social setting and hence can behave accordingly. While driving on road, we know that everyone will drive on left side and will stop at red

light signal. Similarly, in an emergency situation, people follow others to escape from the situation. In case of fire, people follow others to reach the nearest fire exit. Disadvantages of conformity include blind adherence to certain norms like gender norms. Gender Norms are those norms which describe appropriate acceptable behaviour for men and women in a particular culture. This can place limits on the opportunities and career aspirations of women (Eagly, 2007). Due to this only, trans-genders face number stereotypical behaviours against them. Conformity is the most prominent cause behind continuation of number of superstitious behaviours since generations. Other negative effects of conformity include uncontrolled behaviour of crowd. In a crowd, people follow others and ultimately do something so extreme which they would have never done had they been alone.

9.2.6 Resisting Conformity

Although desire to be liked and desire to be right put so much pressure upon us to conform, yet we can find number of instances where people choose not to conform and stand out from the crowd. For example, although gender norms say that man should have short hairs and women should have long hairs, yet we often encounter the contrary as well, we see long haired men and short aired women. In the classic experiments of Solomon Asch, mentioned earlier, we saw that 76% of the time real participants followed the group pressure, yet 24% times they choose to stand apart from the group. People do not conform to all the norms. Instead they pick and choose the norm they want to conform. Also, a person may conform to a particular norm in one situation but not in the other. *The factors which define our ability to resist conformity are given below:*

- **Need to maintain individuality:** Just like the desire to be liked and desire to be right, there is a desire for individuation characterising, the desire to be distinguished from others in some respect (Maslach, Santee & Wade, 1987). Higher the desire for individuation, lower will be the need to conform and vice versa. Studies have been reported which indicated that the need for individuation varies in different cultures. This need is generally found to be higher in individualistic cultures and lower in collectivistic culture. Hence, accordingly, the need to conform will be lower in individualistic cultures and higher in collectivistic cultures (Bond & Smith, 1996).
- **Need to maintain personal control:** Choosing to behave in a manner that others do restricts our personal freedom. The results of various studies suggest that higher the need to maintain personal control, lower will be the chances of yielding to social pressure.
- **Norms that encourage individualism:** There are certain groups in the society that have been created for fighting against social evils and for bringing revolution in society. Norms of such group encourage its members that they should not conform to the societal rules. For example, members of NGOs working against female foeticides behave against the society's beliefs established through generations, though a social problem. These groups deliberately act against the social norms to bring some change in the society.

9.2.7 Minority Influence

Conformity is doing what the others usually do. Here the others are in majority and the one who is conforming is in minority. However, there are examples where individuals or a small group has brought change in the behaviours of large majority. Revolutionaries like Mahatma Gandhi, Raja Ram Mohan Roy, Vinoba Bhawe, etc. are few such people who brought change in the attitudes of the society. But, for minorities in order to

successfully influence majorities, following conditions must be satisfied (Moscovici, 1985):

- They must be consistent in their opposition to the majorities. They must not appear divided.
- They must not be rigid or dogmatic. Minorities that repeats same proposition over and again are less persuasive than those that display a degree of flexibility.
- Minorities that argue for a position that is consistent with current social trend are more influential.

Self Assessment Questions 1

Fill in the following blanks:

- 1) Apart from their classification as formal and informal, *norms* can also be classified as and
- 2) As the size of the group increases more pressure we feel to to the group.
- 3) restrict a person to behave in a predictable manner and hence reducing uncertainties.
- 4) Introspection illusory refers that
- 5) Due to conformity, we can predict in a social setting and hence can behave accordingly.

9.3 COMPLIANCE

Compliance is a form of social influence where we accede or give acceptance to direct request form some other person. In our daily life, we encounter many persons whose success in their profession depends upon their ability to make others comply. Sales persons, advertisers, insurance agents, politicians, professional negotiators, etc. are some examples of such compliance professionals. Not only these professionals but we also indulge in lot of events of making others comply. Consider your mother going to market for the weekly shopping. While bargaining with the vegetable vendor, both mother and vendor are involved in compliance strategies. Whenever you try to finalise any plan for party with your friends, all of you try to convince others with their ideas and finally you reach at some conclusion.

9.3.1 Principles of Strategies Used in Compliance

Cialdini (1994, 2006) studied various strategies used by compliance professionals and concluded that various techniques of compliance depend on *six principles*:

- *Friendship or liking*: We comply more with the persons whom we like.
- *Commitments or consistency*: We comply with the request for those behaviours which are consistent with our prior commitments.
- *Scarcity*: There is a greater chance for us to comply with those requests that focus on scarcity.
- *Reciprocity*: We are more likely to comply with the requests of those who had previously given us a favour.

- *Social validation*: We are more likely to comply with the request for behaviours which are in line with our social norms and beliefs.
- *Authority*: We tend to comply with someone who holds legitimate authority. For example, advertisement of an apparel brand is more appealing if endorsed by some actor or fashion designer rather than by a politician.

9.3.2 Strategies for Gaining Compliance

Not only compliance professionals but we also knowingly or unknowingly use various strategies in order to win negotiations in our routine lives. Psychologists have investigated these strategies in a more systematic manner.

9.3.2.1 Techniques Based on Friendship or Liking

As stated earlier, we are more likely to comply with those whom we like, hence, to gain compliance we use:

Ingratiation: getting others to like us. Various ingratiation techniques include flattery, self-promotion, improving one's own image, etc.

Flattery: Persons trying to gain compliance usually praise their target so that they build a positive image of themselves and hence increase chances of gaining compliance.

Self-Promotion: Informing others about our previous achievements increases others' confidence in us. This, in turn, increases our chances of gaining compliance. Not only the promotion of requester, but their promotion of product also is useful in gaining compliance. For example, consider any advertisement on the television, they all display their past accomplishments and tell us about the good characteristics of their products in order to make us appreciate and agree to buy their products or in other words to comply with their request.

Improving Self-Image: Emitting positive non-verbal cues, having a presentable appearance and doing favours to others improve our image in front of our targets. This makes our target develop faith in us and hence increases the chances of gaining compliance. The best examples of this type of techniques are insurance agents. The way they dress up, the way they talk, their body language, everything is so organised and presentable that the target is impressed easily.

Incidental Similarity: Furthermore, requesters try to draw the attention of their targets towards some similarity between them, such as they have same home town, they have same alma-matter, etc.

9.3.2.2 Techniques Based on Commitment and Consistency

In case of having some prior commitments, we are more likely to comply with any request which is consistent with the commitment. Alternatively, we comply with request for behaviours which are consistent to our prior actions. Strategies of compliance based on this principle are Foot-in-the-door technique and Lowball procedure.

Foot-in-the-door: In Foot-in-the-door technique, initially a small deal is offered by the requester. This deal is designed in such a way that the targets easily accept this. Once the target accepts this deal, the larger and actual deal is offered to the target. In this case, the target is more likely to accept this larger deal because rejecting this will not be consistent with his/her prior actions. Recently, one of the renowned companies launched its mobile communication services in India. They initially offered free calling and data service to their clients for few months. Later, they charged this service, which

was more or less similar with the rates of other service providers. Yet, results showed that a large chunk of users continued with the same network and service provider only.

Lowball Technique: In lowball procedure, a deal is first offered to the target, but once the target accepts this deal, the deal is made less lucrative. Studies have shown that this strategy is successful in gaining compliance (Cialdini, Cacioppo, Bassett & Miller, 1978). Here also, the target has option to reject the deal once requester introduces changes in it. Yet prior commitment of the target makes them accept the changed deal also. For example, whenever you choose for an insurance scheme, the terms and conditions of the product are disclosed after you agree to buy the product.

9.3.2.3 Techniques Based on Reciprocity

If someone has done some favours in the past, he or she is more likely to accede to any request made by that person. Strategies using this principle are Door-in-the-face and That's-not-all techniques.

Door-in-the-face technique: Door-in-the-face technique is the opposite of foot-in-the-door technique. Here, first a larger deal is offered by the requester. Once the target rejects this deal, a smaller and actual deal is presented before them. The apparent shift of the requester from a larger deal to a smaller deal appears as a favour to the client. Hence the target feels obligatory to do a return favour to the request. So client is more likely to accept the deal. Best example of this technique can be seen when a shopkeeper bargains with a customer. He initially sets the price to a very higher level. Later he accedes to the request of their customer to lower the price.

That's-not-all technique: In the That's-not-all technique initially a deal is offered and before target accepts or rejects this deal, something additional is provided (like extra discount, or additional complimentary gifts, etc.) to the target in order to make the deal more attractive. By throwing this additional offer, requester pretends to do favour to the client and hence client is compelled to accept the request. This technique is frequently used by advertising channels like Naapto1, Home Shop 18, etc.

9.3.2.4 Techniques Based on Scarcity

Anything which is scarce appears to be more valuable. Hence any request focussing on such scarce objects generally attracts more attention. Strategies using this technique are Playing Hard to Get and Deadline techniques.

Playing Hard to Get: In Playing Hard to Get technique the object of request is portrayed as rapidly exhausting and the target person has to work really hard to get that object. "Limited Stock" displays on the shops use this tactic to gain compliance.

Deadline technique: Similarly, in Deadline technique, deal is made available for a limited period and the target person has to hurry to get benefit of the deal. "Offer for Limited Period" is an example of this strategy.

9.4 OBEDIENCE

This is a form of social influence in which a direct order by a person compels others to behave in a particular manner. However, the person giving order can use other means also to influence the behaviours, such as request instead of order (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Thus, this form of social influence is less frequent than other two forms discussed earlier. Obedience, as a social influence, can sometimes be highly destructive. For example, military troop obeying their command can be brutal towards their target.

9.4.1 Milgram's Experiment

Obedience to the authority can be seen quite often but experiments by Stanley Milgram (1963, 1974) demonstrated that even people without any legitimate authority can also obtain high levels of submission from others. Participants (all males) were told that the experiment aimed at exploring the effects of punishment on learning. Real participants were then paired up with another participant, who in reality was a fake participant (an assistant of the researcher). In each pair, one participant had to act as a teacher and the other participant had to act as a learner. The role of teacher and learner was decided on the basis of a slip drawn from a hat. However, the slips were drawn in a pre-decided manner so that the real participant always got the role of teacher.

Apparatus: Apparatus used in the Milgram's experiment was a board containing 30 switches marked from 15 volts to 450 volts. Participants were told that pressing each switch will give an electric shock to the person sitting on the receiving chair. The amount of shock generated by pressing each switch was told to be equivalent to the amount of volt mentioned above that switch. However, in reality, no shock was received by the person sitting on the receiving end. The only real shock ever felt by person sitting on receiving chair was a mild pulse from third button, just to convince participant that the apparatus was real.

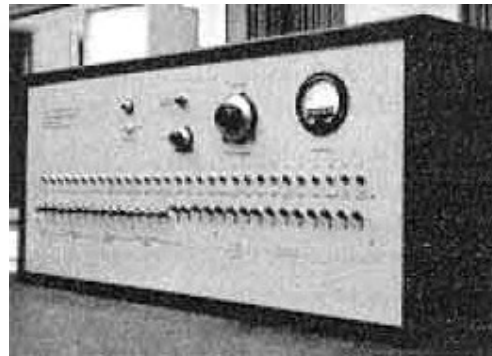


Fig. 9.1: Apparatus used in Milgram's Obedience Experiment
(Retrieved from <https://www.simplypsychology.org/milgram.html>)

Procedure: In each pair, the learner (fake participant) had to perform a simple task of learning (reciting the second word of the previously memorized pair after listening to the first word of that pair). The participant in the teacher role (real participant) had to read out those words to the learner and to punish the learner on errors (by giving an electric shock through the apparatus). The real participant was seated in front of the apparatus. The experimenter (who was conducting the experiment) was present with him. The assistant (learner) was seated on the chair receiving the shock. He was visible to the real participants. During the experiment, the learner deliberately made many errors. Every time he made an error, the real participant had to give a shock to the learner. If he hesitated, the experimenter pressured him to continue with a graded series of urge like: "The experiment requires you to continue"; "It is essential that you continue"; "You will have no other choice, you must go on".

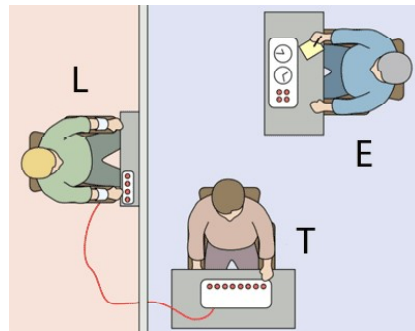


Fig. 9.2: Seating Arrangement in Milgram's Obedience Experiment (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Milgram_experiment)

Results: Results indicated that 65% of the total participants proceeded through the complete series till 450 volt. Few participants protested and asked the experimenter to stop but later yielded to the experimenter's demand to proceed. Participants continued even after the assistant acted to become unconscious at the level of 300 volts. In such cases, the participants were asked to consider no response from the learner as an error and hence to continue the punishment to the learner. Other studies have also reported similar results for different cultures and with children and adults also (Kilham & Mann, 1974; Shanab & Yanya, 1977).

9.4.2 Reasons for Destructive Obedience

History of human race has numerous examples showing that destructive obedience can become extremely detrimental to the mankind. Many dictators have been responsible for death of thousands of people through assassinations, massacre, etc. Psychologists have studied the reasons that lead people to obey the destructive commands of such dictators.

- People obeying the order are relieved of the guilt feeling by the fact that they are just following the command. Hence they do not hesitate in obeying. In Milgram's experiment, participants were told that they will not be responsible for the learner's well-being.
- People giving commands; usually wear some uniform or some insignia which is a symbol of their authority and power. It is a general norm of our society to obey the seniors. Hence most cannot disobey the commands. The experimenter in the Milgram's experiment wore a white coat which gave the participants a feeling that the experimenter is a doctor.
- Orders are gradually increased in their relative strength to harm others. For example, initially the order may be given to a police team to just arrest a group of protesters. But later on, the orders may be escalated to brutal beating of the protesting group. In Milgram's experiment as well, participants were initially instructed to give mild shock to the learner and the magnitude of shock was increased in a graded manner.
- Events involving destructive obedience proceed so quickly that the person who obeys the command do not get time to reflect their actions and systematically think about their activities. In Milgram's experiment, participants got really less time before they started giving extreme shocks to the learners.

9.4.3 Resisting Destructive Obedience

Following strategies can be effective in resisting destructive obedience:

- Reminding that the people who are following the commands are responsible for the harm done.
- Reminding that after a particular point of time, total submission to destructive commands can be unethical.
- Exposing the individuals to the actions of the models who disobeyed commands.
- Questioning the expertise and authority of the person who is giving command.
- Knowing about the true power of commanding authority.

Self Assessment Questions 2

State whether the following are 'True' or 'False':

- 1) Compliance is a form of social influence in which a direct order by a person compels others to behave in a particular manner. ()
- 2) Playing hard to get technique, deal is made available for a limited period and the target person has to hurry to get benefit of the deal. ()
- 3) In Foot-in-the-door technique, initially a small deal is offered by the requester. ()
- 4) Various ingratiation techniques include flattery, self-promotion, improving one's own image. ()
- 5) Obedience is a form of social influence where we accede or give acceptance to direct request from some other person. ()

9.5 LET US SUM UP

The above unit discussed about the others' influence on our behaviour in a social setting. While influencing our behaviour this 'other' person may or may not be interacting with us. The three types of social influences on our behaviour are: conformity, adherence to social norms or following majority; compliance, acceding to direct request from others; and obedience, following orders given by some authority.

In a social setting, pressure to conform to the majority is so high that people conform to the majority view even if the majority is wrong. This pressure is even higher if the majority is unanimous in its views and the size of the majority is large. However, Normative Focus Theory suggests that if the person does not consider the norm or majority behaviour relevant to him or her then he may not display conformity. By conforming to others, people get a feeling that their behaviour is appropriate and believe that this will increase their acceptance in society. Conforming to the majority places a restriction on our behaviour. Hence sometimes, it has been seen that people resist conforming to the majority behaviour. This happens when they have desire to maintain individuality and a sense of self control on their behaviour. It has also been seen that some minorities, who are unanimous and consistent in their views, change the attitude and behaviours of majorities.

Compliance is a phenomenon used by many professionals, like advertisers, politicians, insurance agents, etc., for success in their jobs. They use many principles for convincing

their targets. These principles are based on friendship, commitment, scarcity, reciprocity, social validation and authority. Based on these principles many techniques have been designed to make others comply. Some of these techniques are foot-in-the door technique, starting with a smaller deal and then switching to actual deal; Lowball Technique, making deal less lucrative once it is accepted; door-in-the-face technique, starting with larger deal and then switching to actual deal; that's-not-all technique, making deal more lucrative before it is accepted; playing hard to get and deadline technique, presenting the object as quickly exhausting. Compliance is a bidirectional process. We try to convince others on our ideas and simultaneous agreeing to some of their views.

Obedience is a form of social influence which is least used because the person using this can use other, more effective, forms of influencing behaviour. Experiments of Stanley Milgram presented a very surprising phenomenon that people obey the destructive commands even from persons who do not have legitimate authority.

9.6 UNIT END QUESTIONS

- 1) Present an account of conformity with the help of Solomon Asch's classical experiment.
- 2) Explain various reasons behind conformity. Briefly explain the various factors affecting conformity.
- 3) Describe the conditions under which people resist to conform. Also bring out the conditions under which, minority can influence majority.
- 4) Describe compliance as a form of social influence. What are the various techniques used by compliance professionals in convincing others to accept their offer?
- 5) What is destructive obedience? Explain the reasons behind destructive obedience and the ways to resisted it.

9.7 GLOSSARY

Social influence	: Attempts to bring change in the behaviour, attitudes or feelings of others people.
Conformity	: Tendency to get influenced by the social norms and to think, feel or act in the way majority think, feel or act.
Introspection illusory	: Underestimating the impact of social influence on our own behaviours and overestimating the same in actions of others.
Descriptive norms	: Norms that explain that what people generally do in a given situation.
Injunctive norms	: Norms that prescribe us about approved and disapproved behaviours in a given situation.
Normative focus theory	: Theory stating that we conform only to those norms which we consider relevant to us.
Normative Social Influence	: Conforming to the social norms in order to fulfil our desire to be liked and to be accepted by others.

- Informative Social Influence** : Conforming to the majority view in order to increase a sense of correctness.
- Compliance** : A form of social influence where we accede to direct request from some other person.
- Foot-in-the-door** : A compliance technique in which initially a small deal is offered by the requester and once the target accepts this deal, the larger and actual deal is offered to the target.
- Lowball Procedure** : A compliance technique in which a deal is first offered to the target and once the target accepts this deal, the deal is made less lucrative.
- Door-in-the-face technique** : A compliance technique in which a larger deal is offered first by the requester and once the target rejects this deal, a smaller and actual deal is presented before them.
- That's-not-all technique** : A compliance technique in which initially a deal is offered and before target accepts or rejects this deal, something additional, such as extra discount, or additional complimentary gifts, etc., is provided.
- Playing Hard to Get*** : A compliance technique which employs portraying the object as scarce and very difficult to obtain.
- Deadline technique** : A compliance technique in which deal is made available for a limited period and the target person has to hurry to get benefit of the deal.
- Obedience** : A form of social influence in which a direct order by a person compels others to behave in a particular manner.

9.8 ANSWERS TO SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Self Assessment Questions 1

- 1) descriptive and injunctive
- 2) conform
- 3) Norms
- 4) we conform to the social norms often through automatic route without our conscious awareness and beyond the introspective boundary.
- 5) others' behaviour

Self Assessment Questions 2

- 1) False

- 2) False
- 3) True
- 4) True
- 5) False

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